EFFECTS OF READ-ALOUD STRATEGIES ON YOUNG CHILDREN’S VOCABULARY LEARNING

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For Gram,
who valued education as the highest privilege,

and for Danielle,
who is the inspiration for my every endeavor
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It seems there are huge differences in vocabulary knowledge between young children in this country. These differences develop early in life and seem to remain constant throughout the elementary school period. There has been little attention to this component of reading in the early childhood years despite it being such a critical time for vocabulary development. Recent research is showing promising results in developing and evaluating new methods for vocabulary instruction. Educators need strategies that are both appropriate for preschool children and effective in promoting vocabulary learning in children who are not yet reading independently.

The goal of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of a structured, comprehensive framework for preschool vocabulary instruction consisting of a combination of research-supported strategies implemented during storybook read-aloud sessions for two lengths of time. The study used a quasi-experimental, split-plot design with two between-groups factors, condition (instructional intervention vs. comparison) and implementation time (short term vs. long term) and one within-groups factor, time of measurement (pretest vs. posttest). Participants were teachers and 4- and 5-year-old children drawn from area preschools and child-care centers.

Quantitative data analysis revealed that the instructional intervention was an effective method for teaching targeted vocabulary words to preschool students. Both the short-term and
long-term instruction periods were effective, the long-term condition much more so and obtaining a large effect size. Further analysis showed that the intervention did not have differential effects on students’ learning according to prior levels of vocabulary knowledge; students with low vocabulary levels were able to learn the targeted words.

Evidence of positive learning outcomes supports the instructional intervention and offers teachers a structure for storybook read-aloud sessions that addresses goals of an emergent literacy curriculum effectively. The lack of differential effects suggests that the approach may be a key to increasing the rate of vocabulary learning that is crucial for at-risk students. It would take more instructional time to teach targeted words for four days instead of two, but knowing more words leads to increased incidental learning of words making the extra instructional time beneficial to long-term word learning and achievement.
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The Importance of Vocabulary

The ability to read is a skill necessary to function in current society. It is both valued and expected in many countries, including the United States. In 1998, the National Research Council reported that the rapid rate of technological advances is bringing ever rising demands for literacy (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). Nearly a decade later, the Nation’s Report Card reiterated the importance of literacy as critical for learning (Lee, Grigg, & Donahue, 2007). The ability to read allows access to knowledge and information granting a person unlimited opportunities and pathways for accomplishing goals. To be literate, one must be able to communicate with written and oral language; to do so requires knowledge of the word meanings used in language, or vocabulary.

A person’s vocabulary is the conglomerate of words that one can understand and use. People experience vocabulary in four ways: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Those experiences can be described as either oral or written and either receptive or expressive. Oral vocabulary includes listening to speech and speaking while written vocabulary includes reading and writing. Receptive vocabulary describes language a person is receiving from another source, listening to speech and reading print. Expressive vocabulary describes language a person is using, speaking to others and writing. The function of these abilities is to give and obtain knowledge and to share experiences.

Vocabulary is an important aspect of oral language, which is the first version of language to develop early in life. Immediately it becomes a vehicle for learning about the world through communication and categorization of words and concepts. These skills link oral language ability to cognitive functioning, both of which develop in integration as a child attains exposure to
varied situations and contexts. The link to cognitive function allows oral language to be used as an indicator of general intelligence (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD] Early Child Care Research Network, 2005). Very young children use their knowledge of words to label, classify, and organize the world around them (Stahl & Stahl, 2004). Because learning is language based, larger vocabularies allow for more expanded thought about new concepts (Baker, Simmons, & Kame’enui, 1998). Increasing knowledge of words and their uses allows children to refine their thinking, constantly deepening their knowledge. In this way, growing vocabulary and oral language ability support learning and the development of reading ability. Storch and Whitehurst (2002) conducted a longitudinal study of low-income head-start children from preschool to fourth grade to understand the relationships between language ability, code-related reading skill, and later reading achievement. They found a strong association between code-related skills and oral language ability in preschool that influenced the development of reading ability in later elementary grades. Oral language ability became a direct influence on comprehension. It is clear that oral language is a key to building knowledge and vocabulary is one of its essential components.

Young children build oral language ability and vocabulary through exposure and use. When children are exposed to oral language, they hear words in conjunction with an immediate context, what they are doing or seeing at that particular moment. That connection between a concrete object, action, or situation and the words used to talk about it allows a representation to be made and a new word to be added to the child’s lexicon, or store of known vocabulary (Hart & Risley, 1995). The more language exposure children have, the more opportunities available to build vocabulary. Exposure to oral language can come incidentally through functioning in daily life and interaction with others. It is also possible to structure a child’s experiences purposefully
in order to promote oral language development and vocabulary growth. Interventions designed
to elicit language production from young children and to give feedback about their language use
can have positive effects (Whitehurst et al., 1988; Lonigan, 2007).

Contextual factors connected to language that assist in obtaining meaning are the location,
setting, shared knowledge and experiences, and nonverbal factors such as tone, eye-contact,
gestures, and expressions (Nagy, 2007). When circumstances require language to refer to a
situation detached from the immediate context, these factors are removed and language of a
specific category is used. Such language is labeled decontextualized language, which is
language that refers to the world beyond the immediate, present context, and is found most
frequently in written text. In a case of decontextualized language, meaning is made explicit
solely through the text; the words alone must convey meaning without assistance from factors in
the physical or social context. In consequence of this restriction, the author must precisely craft
the text to express the exact intended meaning therefore being more likely to include a wider
range of more sophisticated vocabulary.

Removing language from the surrounding context that it describes makes it more abstract
and more difficult for young children to understand, yet the increased level of vocabulary makes
it an appealing means for broadening language exposure for children. In order for children to
comprehend decontextualized written language when they become established readers, they must
first learn to understand decontextualized oral language. A study that investigated the
relationship between early language and literacy and fourth grade comprehension found that
decontextualized oral language and listening comprehension in kindergarten predict later reading
outcomes almost as well as kindergarten print-related reading skills (Snow, Tabors, Nicholson,
Based on the outcomes, the researchers expected that decontextualized oral language skill would grow in predictive power throughout elementary school.

Another distinction of decontextualized written language is that its abstract nature is more likely to cause incomplete understanding on the part of the reader, however since it is written language, it is possible to re-read the text as needed to repair comprehension. To do so successfully requires metalinguistic awareness on the part of the reader, the ability to consciously think about and manipulate language (Nagy, 2007). Metalinguistic awareness is a cognitive process thereby important for comprehending decontextualized written language and providing an additional link between vocabulary and cognitive ability. Vocabulary is linked to cognition through oral language via classification and communication skills, and through decontextualized written language via metalinguistic awareness.

Thus far, there seems to be a strong connection between vocabulary and language ability, but how does vocabulary contribute to reading comprehension and general reading ability, the attainment of which is needed to be successful in a literate society? The National Research Council (NRC) defined reading as “using principles and elements of the established writing system to obtain meaning from print” (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, p. 42). The council identified five critical components of reading instruction, of which vocabulary is one. They deemed vocabulary necessary for success in learning to read because without it, a text is not meaningful. Other researchers before and since have validated the council’s assertion of the importance of vocabulary. Davis (1942) used factorial analysis of comprehension test scores to identify the two most important components of reading for understanding as word knowledge and reasoning ability. The National Reading Panel (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000) and others (Biemiller, 2001; Mason, Stahl, Au, &
Herman, 2003) have supported the NRC’s position that vocabulary is essential for reading comprehension. Mastery of phonics alone does not equal comprehension; reading for meaning cannot take place without vocabulary knowledge.

In addition to its fundamental connection to comprehension through definition alone (meaning of individual words must be linked to meaning of a text), vocabulary does have an established relationship with reading comprehension as it is manifested in the education system. Researchers have found both evidence of a connection between vocabulary and comprehension (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982; McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Perfetti, 1983; Wise, Sevcik, Morris, Lovett, & Wolf, 2007) and evidence that vocabulary can predict later comprehension ability (Sénéchal, Ouellette, & Rodney, 2006; Ricketts, Nation, & Bishop, 2007). Ricketts, Nation, and Bishop found that oral vocabulary predicted comprehension ability in eight and nine year olds. Those students with poorer comprehension ability also had weaker vocabulary skills. The NICHD Early Child Care Research Network (2005) studied the relationship between preschool oral language ability and reading skill in the early elementary grades. They found evidence of both direct and indirect links between preschool broad oral language (which included vocabulary as well as semantics and syntax) and 1st grade decoding skill and reading comprehension in 3rd grade. When oral language ability was narrowed specifically to vocabulary ability, a positive relationship to 3rd grade comprehension was still evident. Stahl and Nagy (2006) concluded that a complex relationship exists between vocabulary and comprehension although there are many hypotheses as to exactly how the relationship works. Despite the lack of certainty about the precise function of the relationship, researchers maintain that there is an important connection and that classroom practice therefore, should include an explicit plan for vocabulary instruction throughout the early elementary years.
Since comprehension is the ultimate goal of reading instruction, purposeful effort must be directed to the growth of skills and abilities shown to support it.

**Statement of the Problem**

Despite the abundance of knowledge that researchers have accumulated regarding educational practice and theories of knowledge and learning, disparity in academic achievement exists among children in schools. This phenomenon is termed the “achievement gap” which refers to the wide differences in academic performance between groups including those separated by income, cultural background, and gender (Teale, Paciga, & Hoffman, 2007). Children from low SES levels, African American children, and Latino children typically score lower in areas of reading and writing. Researchers have found that reading ability tends to remain stable throughout the elementary grades and predicts long-term reading behavior and ability (Juel, 1988; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Foster & Miller, 2001). Each attempt to eradicate the differences between students shows that, upon re-assessment, the achievement gap persists between students of varying SES levels and cultural backgrounds (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Lee, Grigg, & Donahue, 2007).

Within the larger situation of the general achievement gap there lays an additional concern related specifically to language and vocabulary. In studies of the language use and growth of preschool children from low- and middle-SES levels, Hart and Risley found that language-based interventions intended to narrow the differences between the groups showed only temporary increases in vocabulary; they concluded that the rate of vocabulary learning could not be adjusted (1975; 1981; 2003). These findings led to questions about what may occur in the early lives of these children that could cause such a fixed trajectory. In their influential longitudinal study of young children’s language growth, Hart and Risley (1995) documented huge differences in the amount of language experience between groups of children in different
SES levels. They determined that such differences in language exposure and interaction grow cumulatively throughout the infant and toddler years resulting in a difference of approximately 13 million words by age four. In a review of multiple studies exploring early language and vocabulary, Baker, Simmons, and Kame’enui (1998) also found a disparity in vocabulary size between groups of students. It seems that this vocabulary gap appears early in development and grows larger over time due to a slower rate of vocabulary learning by students from diverse backgrounds. This gap in vocabulary knowledge also exists between children in the primary grades; it appears that through second grade, children in higher SES levels know more words and learn new words at a faster rate (Biemiller & Slonim, 2001).

Farkas and Beron (2003) offered additional documentation of established differences in vocabulary by age three and claimed that differences remain until at least age 13. More specifically, they found that the gap ceased to widen around ages five to six, but still existed throughout the intermediate grades. The estimated size of the difference was more than the equivalent of one year, a very substantial gap. Both SES and race appeared to effect vocabulary learning separately and in interaction with each other. SES level impacted Caucasian children prior to 3 years of age, then ceased to have an impact; SES level impacted African American children prior to 3 years of age and grew stronger from age three to four. The researchers concluded that the preschool years are crucial for vocabulary development and should be the targeted period for prevention of the vocabulary gap.

Why is such a difference in levels of vocabulary knowledge a concern regarding young children? In 1986, Stanovich exposed a phenomenon that causes the vocabulary gap to continue to widen which he labeled the Matthew Effect. Under Stanovich’s theory, poor readers experience failed or unsuccessful attempts at reading and few positive results, therefore
participating in reading and reading-related activities less frequently. Fewer reading experiences translate into less practice opportunities and delayed development of automaticity. Failure to obtain adequate levels of automaticity needed to focus on comprehending increasingly difficult texts leads to repeated unsuccessful reading experiences and the cycle continues. The theory of the Matthew Effect is based on the idea of reciprocal causation, that ability or lack of reading ability impacts the level of reading proficiency, but that levels of reading proficiency can also cause the attained ability or lack thereof. Stanovich posits that vocabulary development and reading ability may hold a substantial reciprocal relationship, that developing vocabulary knowledge increases reading comprehension and that successfully comprehending texts prompts readers to read more, therefore further expanding vocabulary knowledge. The Matthew Effect that is inherent in this reciprocal relationship is that those children who read well and read more will acquire a greater vocabulary in their lexicon. Their larger vocabulary will then assist them in reading well and allow them to learn more vocabulary at an even greater rate. For children who have a smaller vocabulary, their limited knowledge of word meanings will impede successful comprehension and discourage them from reading more, thereby stunting the expansion of their vocabulary. In practice this theory will be visible in situations where children with smaller vocabularies do not learn as many words or as quickly as those children with higher levels of vocabulary knowledge.

Researchers should consider the influence of the Matthew Effect when interpreting experimental data as effects are often apparent in the results. Studies have shown that primary age children with higher initial vocabulary knowledge learn more and receive greater effects from intervention strategies than do their peers with smaller vocabularies (Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Penno, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2002). The effects are also evident with preschool children.
(Sénéchal, Thomas, & Monker, 1995) and kindergartners (Ewers & Brownson, 1999; Coyne, Simmons, Kame’enui, & Stoolmiller, 2004). However, Matthew Effects are not always present (Walsh & Blewitt, 2006) and intervention strategies designed for students with low initial vocabulary knowledge or children with low SES levels can have positive results (Nash & Snowling, 2006; Wasik, Bond, & Hindman, 2006). Young children with low initial levels of vocabulary can be taught strategies to increase their vocabulary knowledge. In order to combat the Matthew Effect phenomenon, it is clear that vocabulary instruction should be a major focus during the preschool and primary years.

Despite the evidence that vocabulary instruction is important in the early years, word identification skills remain the dominant focus. Many curriculums devote a majority of the allotted instructional time to phonics and word study instruction. Although both the NRC (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) and the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) identified vocabulary as one of the five critical components of reading instruction along with phonics and word study, there is still a heavy emphasis on decoding or identifying words in print. The primary reason for this focus is that until children are able to read independently, they cannot benefit from the positive effects of wide reading, which include broadening their vocabulary. The logical path therefore, is to focus on word identification skills so that children can begin reading on their own as soon as possible. However, successful decoding does not equal understanding if the words being decoded are not in the child’s vocabulary. It is for this reason that researchers strongly recommend attention to vocabulary development alongside word identification instruction (Biemiller & Slonim, 2001; Biemiller, 2001; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Coyne, Simmons, Kame’enui, & Stoolmiller, 2004; Teale, Paciga, & Hoffman, 2007). It is essential to increase the emphasis on oral vocabulary during the preschool and
primary years before students are reading on their own so that when students are able to recognize words automatically, they will already have a substantial store of words and meanings in their lexicon from which to construct meaning of the text they are reading. In addition, studies have found that much of the differences in vocabulary knowledge and language experiences in young children develop before entering school making it necessary to combat the issue in the early childhood years (Biemiller & Slonim, 2001; Hart & Risley, 2003; Farkas & Beron, 2003). A beginning reading curriculum that is balanced between all five components of reading instruction will establish a foundation for literacy and reading achievement.

Another issue pertaining to the need for vocabulary instruction in the early years is that there has been relatively little research conducted on vocabulary with children in preschool and the primary grades. The National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) found very few studies conducted with children below third grade. Research evidence is building, but there is still a deficiency in what is known about vocabulary growth in the early childhood years. Perhaps one reason for the lack of research is the issue of appropriate measurement. The National Reading Panel found a wide range of methods in the studies reviewed, which included both standardized and researcher-created measures, and concluded that there was no standard in the field. Hargrave and Sénéchal (2000) found no differences in the receptive language of three to five year olds when using a standardized measure, but did find differences with non-standardized options. Nelson and Stage (2007) found only moderate gains in their participants and speculated that the standardized measure was not sensitive enough to measure all improvements in vocabulary. It has become generally accepted that researcher-created measures are more sensitive than standardized measures and that both types should be used as part of a multiple measure battery.
Certainly, there is ample evidence to support the importance of vocabulary as part of a balanced emergent or early literacy curriculum. Vocabulary is critical to the goal of understanding what one reads and being able to communicate effectively in a literate society. It seems there are huge differences in vocabulary knowledge between young children in this country. These differences develop early in life and seem to remain constant throughout the elementary school period. The differences arise from various factors that affect children’s lives including race, SES level, and language experience. There has been little attention to this component of reading in the early childhood years despite it being such a critical time for vocabulary development. Recent research is showing promising results in developing and evaluating new methods for vocabulary instruction. Educators need strategies that are both appropriate for preschool children and effective in promoting vocabulary learning in children who are not yet reading independently. Hence, turn to the literature on vocabulary instruction during storybook read-aloud sessions as one such opportunity to explore.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of relevant research pertaining to how reading storybooks to young children affects their vocabulary development. It begins with a brief discussion about the language in children’s storybooks and the efficacy of reading aloud, and then continues with a review of studies that investigate using storybook read-aloud sessions as a vehicle for vocabulary instruction. The review is organized by instructional strategies, grouping together studies that implemented the same or similar techniques as part of their experimental interventions. Many researchers utilized multiple strategies as part of their intervention; therefore, some studies may be included in two or more of the sections.

Reading Aloud – Why Use Storybooks to Promote Vocabulary Growth

Vocabulary instruction centers on teaching new words and their meanings to children. Storybooks provide a prolific source of words in a form appealing to and appropriate for young children. A survey of the language included in children’s storybooks found that they have a higher number of rare words than television programs and adult conversation (Hayes & Ahrens, 1988). In addition, the researchers found that adults tend to simplify their word choices when speaking to children. These findings indicate that oral language sources are basic in lexical quality and therefore are not helpful in expanding the lexicon through exposure to rich, more sophisticated words. Instead, exposures to such words will happen more frequently when reading than when conversing or watching television (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998). Researchers have found children’s storybooks to be rich sources of potential vocabulary and hail them as an accessible catalyst for new word learning (Justice, Meier, & Walpole, 2005; Stahl & Stahl, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006). Talking with young children could expose them to some new
words, but a conversation would not include the high proportion of novel words as a storybook would. Therefore, storybooks are a better choice for vocabulary instruction.

It is important to differentiate between authentic children’s literature and books written for beginning readers. Authentic children’s literature is written for children to relate to and enjoy, but not necessarily for children to read themselves. Children who are just beginning to learn to read have very limited word identification skills. Beginning reader texts are written with controlled word choices so that children can read them independently. The words included in these texts are restricted to those familiar to children and probably already part of their oral language experience (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). Their primary purpose is decoding and fluency, not vocabulary. Using words from these books for vocabulary instruction would be redundant.

Very young children who are not yet readers (pre-readers) cannot engage in wide independent reading of authentic literature as a way to build vocabulary. They must be exposed to new vocabulary in the context of oral language experiences. As previously indicated, conversations and television programs are not appropriate choices of oral language experiences due to their basic level of lexical sophistication. The alternative then is for an adult to read authentic children’s literature aloud to provide an oral language experience that includes rare and sophisticated words (Coyne, Simmons, & Kame’enui, 2004). One study compared the language interactions between low SES mothers and their five year old children during common daily routines and play sessions (Weizman & Snow, 2001). They found that the language interactions during book reading sessions contained the most number of words per minute and the highest exposure to sophisticated vocabulary, primarily contained in and prompted by the books’ texts. Stahl and Nagy (2006) include experiences with rich written language in the first level of their
vocabulary growth pyramid validating that hearing storybooks read aloud is a primary way to promote vocabulary growth in pre-readers.

Another reason for choosing storybooks for read-aloud sessions with young children is to expose children to decontextualized language. The language in children’s literature is most often written to refer to a situation removed from the immediate context and therefore contains more precise and sophisticated words to compensate for the lack of shared social cues. To be successful readers, children must be familiar with the vocabulary used in decontextualized language (Nagy & Scott, 2000). We know from Adams (1990) that the context processor in the brain contributes knowledge of experiences to assist with meaning construction while reading and maintains an ongoing interpretation of the text. However, when constructing meaning about events in a storybook, the reader may have limited or no prior experiences of the context or societal norms that would guide and support meaning construction. The task then is for children to construct meaning based solely on the words they hear while playing a detached role from the situation in the story (McKeown & Beck, 2006). Interactive experiences that guide children to use and understand decontextualized language are very important for supporting reading comprehension (Snow, 1991). Therefore, the use of storybooks provides exposure to decontextualized language and exercises a child’s ability to process sophisticated vocabulary outside of a familiar context and create meaning from it. In summary, the potential opportunities for rich, diverse language learning and for exposure to decontextualized language make children’s storybooks a prime stage through which to promote vocabulary development.

There is a viewpoint in the field that contends that the benefits of reading aloud are overstated. In a wide review of literature, Scarborough and Dobrich (1994a) claimed that the impact of shared storybook reading on literacy achievement is not as dramatic as typically
perceived or implied in the field. Their critique included that (1) research has found mostly
correlations of which the direction is uncertain and no causal link can be inferred, (2) there is a
relatively small contribution to overall variance in achievement when other variables show
stronger predictive capability, (3) it is possible that the effects are limited to certain portions of
literacy development, primarily oral language development, and (4) overemphasizing shared
storybook reading that may not be effective enough to warrant precious instructional time takes
away time from other equally or more important activities for fostering literacy growth.
Scarborough and Dobrich do not deny that a relationship exists; they only claim that the
relationship is too easily accepted in the field. Lonigan (1994) countered the argument by
contending that Scarborough and Dobrich did not adequately consider the “potential complexity
of the model” (p. 311) or the variety of direct and indirect effects and the multitude of ways they
may interact to impact reading ability throughout the primary grades. Lonigan maintained that
there is some indication of a relationship, regardless how small, and it is yet unknown how much
the effects of that small relationship may grow over the course of the elementary years. In
Lonigan’s view, there presently is not a clear alternative to exposure to books and shared reading
and no clear prediction of what may happen to literacy development if that activity was removed.

Dunning, Mason, and Stewart (1994) responded to the discussion by affirming that
shared book reading is one important aspect of the total home literacy experience. They pointed
out that parent interactions during a shared reading event can be manipulated and should be in
order to maximize learning during such sessions. In a rebuttal to the critiques of their review,
Scarborough and Dobrich (1994b) emphasized that shared reading needs to be examined more
fully in the broader context of early literacy experiences. In addition, they feel that attention
should be given to other manipulable variables that may contribute to literacy development.
Based on this dialogue between top researchers in the field of early literacy, it can be inferred at least that reading aloud to young children has some merit, even if it cannot yet be determined exactly how much or precisely where the effects lie.

The Impact of Story Read-Aloud Sessions on Vocabulary

The National Reading Panel (NRP) (National Institute for Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000) found evidence in its review that vocabulary can be increased through both explicit and incidental instructional methods and that both should be included in an early literacy curriculum. The NRP recommended that a variety of methods should be implemented in practice as opposed to reliance on a single strategy. The methods chosen should match the age and ability of the students. Let us now explore the effectiveness of different types of instructional strategies on young children’s vocabulary growth.

Frequency of Exposures to Words

Teachers provide incidental vocabulary instruction when they purposefully construct the classroom environment to increase students’ exposure to sophisticated words both in print and through verbal interaction. Such exposure can include print on the walls and in centers in the classroom, conversation with students, and reading storybooks aloud. The principle behind this practice is that children will learn new words if they frequently are exposed to them in context. This theory also applies to explicit vocabulary instruction, in which teachers directly teach new words and their meanings, when they arrange for the children to have multiple encounters with the instructed words. Blachowicz and Fisher (2000) conducted a review of literature seeking to outline the major principles of vocabulary instruction and concluded that repeated exposures to words are important for learning. The exposures should include opportunities for children to hear, see, and use the words. A series of studies by Beck, McKeown, and colleagues supports the principle that repeated exposures to words increases learning (Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown,
These studies were conducted with fourth graders and the instruction was not given in a read-aloud situation, but the researchers did compare the effects varying numbers of encounters with targeted vocabulary words. Results consistently demonstrated that more encounters (between ten and twelve) were always more effective than fewer encounters (zero to four) for building vocabulary knowledge and comprehension.

Establishing this strategy as important for vocabulary instruction leads to the question of how many exposures to a single word are necessary for a child to learn the word and its meaning. Researchers have tested varying amounts of exposures to targeted vocabulary words provided exclusively through reading storybooks aloud in search of the most effective number.

Eller, Pappas, and Brown (1988) conducted a study of how children learn vocabulary incidentally from storybook read-alouds using child retellings as their means of assessment. The participants were twenty kindergarten children, all of whom were prereaders. In individual sessions, the researchers read a story to each child and then immediately asked the child to take a turn “reading” the book. By the end of the study, each child had heard two books, read three times each. The researchers targeted 20 vocabulary words and tracked the children’s usage of the words during their readings. They found a significant increase in the expressive vocabulary of the children over the course of the three readings. The researchers concluded that vocabulary development is a constructive and continuous process on the part of the child and that kindergartners can learn new words from storybooks that are read to them with no additional instruction.

Penno, Wilkinson, and Moore (2002) also studied children’s ability to use targeted vocabulary words after hearing storybooks read aloud. Their study included 5- to 8-year-olds
who heard a book read three times. The accuracy of the children’s retellings and their ability to use the targeted vocabulary words increased after each successive reading of the story. These two studies focused on and found positive results for affecting expressive vocabulary; most researchers however have focused on receptive vocabulary growth.

Several studies have found increases in receptive vocabulary knowledge after repeated readings of storybooks with no additional instruction. Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) found that one to two exposures were not enough; more than two exposures to the targeted words had more effects on children’s vocabulary. Elley (1989) read one story three times during one week to 7- and 8-year-olds and found a fifteen percent gain in vocabulary. Elley noted that repetitions of the targeted words within the book contributed to learning. Sénéchal and Cornell (1993) provided only a single reading to preschool 4- and 5-year-olds. They did see increases in receptive vocabulary, but the increases were higher for the older children. Robbins and Ehri (1994) provided two readings during one week and found increases in the receptive vocabulary of 5- and 6-year-olds. Sénéchal (1997) worked with preschoolers and compared the effects of three readings versus a single reading. Her results showed three readings to be more effective than a single reading on both receptive and expressive vocabulary. Biemiller and Boote (2006) included kindergarten and first grade students and determined two to four readings to be effective for learning word meanings that were not taught directly. These studies together demonstrate that multiple readings of a storybook to young children ranging from three to eight years old are effective for learning new words.

Despite so many positive results for simply reading storybooks aloud multiple times, some researchers have found minimal or no effects when the readings do not include additional, explicit instruction about the targeted vocabulary words. Sénéchal, Thomas, and Monker (1995)
provided four-year-olds two readings of a story in two days and found increases in receptive vocabulary only in those students with higher initial vocabulary knowledge. Justice, Meier, and Walpole (2005) worked with at-risk kindergartners and found that four readings of a storybook over ten weeks resulted in only minimal gains in vocabulary. The researchers speculated that the results were due to the exposures being too spread out across time and that perhaps the repeated readings should be closer together to have more effect. Coyne, Simmons, Kame’enui, and Stoolmiller (2004) worked with kindergartners with lower initial vocabulary knowledge. Exposure to the targeted vocabulary words through two readings of a storybook did not help these students catch up to their peers. Coyne, McCoach, and Kapp (2007) tried three readings of a storybook and again found no differences in the kindergartners’ knowledge of the target words. This group of researchers concluded that incidental exposure during multiple readings of a storybook is not enough and that explicit instruction of words needs to accompany story read-aloud sessions.

This discussion so far has attempted to isolate effects derived only from exposure to words through single and multiple readings of storybooks to young children. When all other instructional strategies are removed, the effects of multiple readings range from no or minimal effects to moderately significant effects on vocabulary growth. There does not seem to be a magical number of exposures to a word, but the trend through the research findings is that three readings appear to be the most effective. There were no studies that read a storybook more than four times; therefore it is unknown whether or not more readings would produce increased vocabulary knowledge. In addition, most researchers focused on increases in receptive vocabulary intimating that exposure to words through storybook read-alouds impacts receptive vocabulary more than expressive.
Simple Instruction – Repeating Text and Explaining Meanings

The next logical approach to vocabulary instruction during storybook read-alouds is to add some basic instruction from the teacher to the sessions. Biemiller (2001, pg. 26) suggested that “a substantial majority of new root words are acquired through explanation by others (including explanations in text) rather than by inference while reading.” In this review, “simple instruction” refers to the teacher repeating text from the storybook and/or explaining the meanings of words to the children during the read-aloud session. It is labeled “simple instruction” to portray its clear and straightforward nature.

Elley (1989) compared the effects of storybook read-aloud sessions with explanations of words, read-aloud sessions with no explanations, and a no reading control condition on the vocabulary learning of 8-year-olds. Two storybooks were used and each was read three times over the course of one week. Elley found the highest increases in the read-aloud sessions that included teacher explanations of words in the story. In addition, delayed posttests showed that the students’ learning was maintained three months later.

Penno, Wilkinson, and Moore (2002) conducted a study with 5- to 8-year-olds in which the teachers gave explanations of target vocabulary words within the context of the story during the read-aloud session. Each story was read aloud three times. As a result of including the explanations, the researchers found increases on standardized vocabulary tests and in the students’ ability to use the words while retelling the story.

Justice, Meier, and Walpole (2005) investigated the effects of elaboration of words during small-group storybook reading on vocabulary growth. They worked with at-risk kindergartners and also looked for differences in learning between students with higher and lower initial vocabulary knowledge. The researchers targeted 60 words in ten storybooks; 30 words were elaborated with an explanation of their meanings and with an example sentence,
while the other 30 were not elaborated and only exposed to the children through the story reading. Each book was read four times over ten weeks. Results showed significant vocabulary gains for the elaborated words and only minimal effects for those not elaborated. The researchers also found differential effects for initial vocabulary knowledge: treatment effects of elaborated words were strongest for students with lower initial vocabulary levels. The researchers concluded that the elaboration strategy (explanation and example of use) was effective and recommended it be used in combination with other strategies for vocabulary instruction.

In a study with students ranging from kindergarten to second grade, Biemiller and Boote (2006) found that combining repeated readings with explanations of new words and review of words previously explained during each subsequent reading can result in large increases in vocabulary knowledge that was still present four weeks later. Simple instruction that includes providing an explanation of a word’s meaning seems to be effective for increasing children’s vocabulary knowledge.

Another type of simple instruction during a storybook read-aloud session is to repeat words or sentences from the text. Teachers can repeat lines from the books’ text during the reading and may ask students to repeat as well. Sénéchal and Cornell (1993) found that repeating sentences with target vocabulary words or recasting students’ utterances did not increase 4- and 5-year-olds vocabulary any more than just reading the story. Sénéchal, Thomas, and Monker (1995) found that 4-year-olds who listened to read-alouds with teacher repetition of sentences containing target words had lower expressive and receptive vocabulary than children who answered questions during the sessions. Ewers and Brownson (1999) found similar results with kindergarten children. Dickinson and Smith (1994) also found limited effects of repetition...
when present as a feature of adult reading style and concluded that choral repetition of phrases did not contribute to 4-year-olds vocabulary learning. It seems that strict repetition is not enough instruction to affect vocabulary growth.

Some researchers have tried combining simple instruction strategies and requested that teachers implement both explanations and repetition during their read-aloud sessions. Brett, Rothlein, and Hurley (1996) designed an experimental treatment that consisted of a single reading of a storybook that included explanations and synonyms of target words, example sentences using the target words, and repetition of sentences from the text containing the target words. They compared an experimental treatment group to a single reading only group and a no reading control group. Results showed that the experimental group had higher vocabulary scores at the posttest and the delayed posttest six weeks later. Although these researchers worked with fourth grade students, the instruction was effective and was effective with only one reading of the text.

In a study comparing certain Head Start curriculums, Han, Roskos, Christie, Mandzuk, and Vukelich (2005) explored a certain early literacy curriculum that prompted teachers to use strategies such as saying a word and asking students to repeat it, pointing out features of a word, and defining or explaining words. Students in classrooms implementing this curriculum talked more and scored higher on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT). In contrast, Coyne, McCoach, and Kapp (2007) found that three readings of a storybook combined with simple definitions for target words and repeating sentences substituting the definition in place of the word produced only minimal increases in word learning. Thus, there are mixed results concerning the effectiveness of repetition when it is used in conjunction with word explanations.
Using simple instruction techniques during a storybook read-aloud session is the next step in promoting vocabulary growth in young children after merely reading the text. Studies reviewed here show that incorporating explanations of target vocabulary words is a very effective strategy. When coupled with multiple readings of a storybook, this strategy can provide built-in review of words already explained in previous reading sessions by repeatedly exposing students to the word and its definition within a context. In contrast, studies show that strategies involving repeating words or sentences from a book’s text are not very effective when used as the sole method of vocabulary instruction. There is some evidence that repeating strategies have increased effectiveness when they are paired with word explanations, but recent research has yet to produce overwhelming positive conclusions.

**Active Participation by the Child – Questioning and Discussion**

The instructional strategies discussed thus far have been focused solely on teacher behavior requiring little involvement of the students other than passive listening. However, many studies of vocabulary instruction since the late 1980’s have incorporated techniques that entail active participation on the part of the child. A child is actively participating in an interaction when they reflect on the information presented to them and add information to the exchange based on their background knowledge and own original ideas. In such a situation, the total interaction is built from contributions of all those participating, not directed by one and accepted by others. Active participation during a storybook read-aloud session can take the form of either questioning, in which the child is prompted to respond to questions posed by the reader, or discussion, in which the reader facilitates a back and forth exchange of ideas between herself and all the children in the group.

Whitehurst et al. (1988) began the exploration of the effects of active participation during book reading sessions with a study focused on young children’s language acquisition. This
A group of researchers trained parents to use specific techniques during their shared reading sessions that would elicit oral responses from the child. The intervention included questions that prompted the child to extend their responses thereby forcing them to produce more language, informative feedback from the parents to the child about their language use, and progressive expectations that increased in conjunction with the child’s developmental level. The parents in the study held storybook read-aloud sessions with their children three to four times a week for four weeks. The researchers found that the intervention techniques employed by the parents did have a positive effect on the children’s language development and that it took very little parent training to bring about significant changes. The study’s positive results show the important role of active participation on the part of the child during storybook reading.

To determine exactly what kind of active participation is the key to promoting vocabulary learning, researchers have explored the effects of specific question types posed to children during storybook read-alouds. Sénéchal and Cornell (1993) included questions asking “what” and “where” during read-aloud sessions with 4- and 5-year-olds. They did not find any increases in vocabulary beyond those that resulted from simply reading the book without additional instruction. Dickinson and Smith (1994) found that reading styles that primarily consisted of asking recall questions during the book reading session did not affect vocabulary learning in 4-year-olds. Ewers and Brownson (1999) found opposite results in which kindergarten children who answered “what” and “where” questions during a storybook reading did learn more of the targeted words than students who participated passively. In a study of read-alouds with 3-year-olds, Walsh and Blewitt (2006) differentiated between types of questions that elicited children’s use of target vocabulary words from the text and those that did not elicit the specific words.
They found that asking either type of question impacted the children’s vocabulary knowledge, but that the type of question did not make a difference in increasing vocabulary learning.

One group of researchers has found that different types of questions during reading affect receptive and expressive vocabulary differently. Sénéchal, Thomas, and Monker (1995) compared three strategies used during story read-aloud sessions: students listening with teacher repetition of sentences containing target words, teachers asking students to point to pictures depicting target words, and teachers asking labeling questions that required the students to use the target words in their responses. They found that 4-year-old children who answered pointing or labeling questions during read-aloud sessions had higher receptive vocabulary than children who only listened to the reading, but found no differences between the two questioning strategies. Children who answered the labeling questions however had higher expressive vocabulary than the children who only answered the pointing questions. The researchers speculated that compelling the children to say the target words in their responses is important for expressive vocabulary development. In a subsequent study, Sénéchal (1997) found similar results and concluded that prompting children to pronounce new vocabulary words during the read-aloud session aids production of the words during expressive vocabulary assessments; thus, this feature of questioning must be critical for increasing a student’s ability to use newly learned vocabulary words. Finally, Hargrave and Sénéchal (2000) found that asking “wh” questions was a predominant aspect of a specific read-aloud strategy and found significant gains in the expressive vocabulary of the children in that group. They surmised that the key to new vocabulary learning could be asking questions.

The results of researchers’ search for the best style of questioning are mixed and the positive effects that have been found are moderate. The most important conclusion perhaps is
that questions that prompt children to use the target vocabulary words heard in a story offer an important opportunity to practice using newly learned expressive vocabulary. It seems as though questioning is a valuable strategy for inducing active participation by children during storybook read-aloud sessions, but may not generate the level of effectiveness needed to increase children’s vocabulary learning significantly. Another form of active participation during storybook read-alouds to consider is discussion between students and the reader.

The body of research surrounding discussion during storybook read-aloud sessions has taken various directions. This review includes studies that investigate dialogic reading techniques, the Text Talk strategy, and exploration of reading styles all as ways of eliciting discussion about texts as a way to promote vocabulary growth. Discussion as an instructional strategy as it is referred to in this review is an extended dialogue that involves asking questions, responding to questions, and making comments or statements between students and the teacher in a classroom. All those included contribute thoughts and respond to the remarks of others. Discussion about vocabulary words goes beyond simply attaching a word to a definition to include how the word is used in the context of the story, applying the word to other contexts, making connections explicit, and teacher elaboration and extension of students’ language.

Whitehurst et al. (1988) began their investigation of the role of active participation by training parents to ask questions designed to elicit more language from their children during shared storybook reading sessions. They labeled this strategy an “evocative technique” because the purpose was to encourage the child to talk. Whitehurst and colleagues used this purpose as a foundation and have shaped and extended the original questioning technique into a complete interactive instructional strategy for use during storybook read-aloud sessions labeled Dialogic Reading.
Dialogic reading is an interactive storybook reading strategy in which the adult asks open-ended questions, adds information, prompts children to elaborate their responses, expands children’s responses, provides feedback about the children’s language use, and allows the children’s interests to guide the discussion of the text (Whitehurst, Arnold, Epstein, Angell, Smith, & Fischel, 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003). Whitehurst, Arnold et al. implemented this strategy with parents and teachers of 3-year-olds from low SES families. The researchers provided training for both parents and teachers, and then compared the effects of three conditions after six weeks of implementation: dialogic reading at school only, dialogic reading at school and home, and a control condition in which the children participated in play activities. The dialogic reading sessions were conducted daily for six weeks in small groups of five or less at school and one-on-one with parent and child at home. Results showed that the dialogic reading strategy is effective for increasing vocabulary and general language development when used at school with or without additional sessions at home. Effects were still present six months later. Whitehurst and colleagues concluded that the effectiveness of the dialogic reading strategy comes from the active participation of children when an adult gently guides the children to extend their thinking and supports them with modeling and feedback.

Whitehurst and colleagues conducted additional studies to validate the effectiveness of the Dialogic Reading strategy (Whitehurst, Epstein, Angell, Payne, Crone, & Fischel, 1994; Whitehurst, Zevenbergen, Crone, Schultz, Velting, & Fischel, 1999). Whitehurst, Epstein et al. conducted dialogic reading sessions with 4-year-olds three to five times per week. All the children participated in small groups at school and some participated in one-on-one sessions at home with a parent. Results showed increases in language skills only in the group participating in both the home and school sessions. The researchers concluded that this finding indicates that
a one-on-one session is the most effective and teachers conducting dialogic reading sessions in classrooms should use the smallest groups possible. Whitehurst et al. replicated the same design with a new group of children entering Head Start. The children were pretested upon entry to Head Start where they then received the dialogic reading intervention. The children were posttested at the end of the Head Start year and again at the end of each year through second grade. In addition, this study followed the Whitehurst, Epstein et al. participants through the end of second grade. The replication study was successful with results showing increases in the emergent literacy skills, including both receptive and expressive vocabulary, in all the children. The follow-up testing for both groups of participants revealed that effects were still apparent at the end of kindergarten, but not at the end of first or second grade.

Despite the positive findings of the series of Dialogic Reading studies, Zevenbergen and Whitehurst (2003) published a book chapter describing the Dialogic Reading strategy and cautioning its limited effectiveness when used with larger groups of children. The chapter reviewed the evidence of the strategy’s success in increasing expressive language and other emergent literacy skills, but also outlined potential barriers to avoid in implementing Dialogic Reading. The researchers found that teachers are less willing to pose open-ended questions to larger groups of children and that fidelity to the implementation guidelines of the strategy was hard to maintain in childcare centers. Additionally, the researchers noted that the philosophy of preschool curriculum may conflict with the use of Dialogic Reading as a direct instruction strategy, but emphasized that the interests of the children should always lead the discussion ensuring that the strategy remains child-centered.

Hargrave and Sénéchal (2000) also investigated the effectiveness of the Dialogic Reading strategy with 3- to 5-year-olds. They trained the teachers to use the strategy and implemented it
in small groups of eight children over four weeks. Results showed no differences in receptive vocabulary knowledge between the groups of students, but significant gains in expressive vocabulary. These positive results demonstrate that Dialogic Reading can be effective for groups up to at least eight children, which is closer to the reality of what is possible in a preschool classroom. Dialogic Reading is a strategy that incorporates discussion and active participation by the child into a storybook read-aloud session and seems to be effective for promoting vocabulary growth in young children.

Another line of research focuses on reading styles and attempts to categorize the behaviors that are included in the various ways teachers read aloud to their students. When the features of each style of reading that these studies describe are compared with the instructional strategies that other studies implement, the results can inform this discussion of how active participation during storybook read-aloud sessions promotes vocabulary growth in young children.

Dickinson and Smith (1994) conducted a one-year longitudinal study of teachers’ reading styles with four-year-olds. They found three approaches to reading that they labeled co-constructive, didactic-interactional, and performance-oriented. The co-constructive style included lots of conversation that was of an analytic nature between the teacher and the students throughout the reading. Such analytic talk involved the children interpreting and evaluating meaning from the text and drawing logical conclusions. The discussion also incorporated extensive clarification of ideas presented in the story and extensions of the children’s thoughts. The goal of analytical talk in this style of reading-aloud was to model explicitly how to extract meaning or information from the book’s text. The didactic-interactional style contained limited amounts of talk during the reading. The talk that did occur was focused on choral reading of
repeated phrases or whole texts and simple recall questions. The performance-oriented style included analytical talk before and after reading the story that focused on children’s responses to the book, retelling the story, and relating the children’s own experiences with those described in the story. Dickinson and Smith found that the approaches that included analytical talk, the co-constructive and the performance-oriented styles, showed more vocabulary learning by the children after one year of instruction. The researchers emphasized that analytical talk arises from teachers and students actively contributing and responding to the discussion.

In another examination of how adult reading styles affect children’s vocabulary growth, Reese and Cox (1999) implemented three specific styles in individual reading sessions with four-year-olds. The study included 32 books read over the course of six weeks. The three styles they included were describer, comprehender, and performance-oriented. The describer style involved the reader labeling items and describing the illustrations in the books for the children. In the comprehender style, the reader focused primarily on making predictions and inferences about the story’s plot and characters, which occurred throughout the reading. The performance-oriented style included talk before and after the story that focused on inferences and evaluations about the story ideas. The researchers found that overall, the describer style was the most effective for building receptive vocabulary, however, the style of reading interacted with the students’ initial vocabulary levels. Students with lower initial vocabulary gained most from the describer style while students with higher initial vocabulary gained the most from the performance-oriented style. Reese and Cox noted that it could be beneficial to adjust the style teachers use according to the vocabulary level of the students to which they are reading. They also suggested that the describer style might be the most effective for younger children because they tend to have smaller vocabularies.
Brabham and Lynch-Brown (2002) also compared three adult read-aloud styles and their effects on the vocabulary of first and third grade students. Their study included three groups: a reading only group in which the teacher only read the story with no comments or questions; a performance reading group in which the teacher engaged in discussion with the students before and after the story reading; and an interactional reading group in which the teacher encouraged discussion throughout the reading of the story. The researchers found that all the styles affected the students’ vocabulary growth, but that the interactional group had the most gains. These results validate that even just reading a story with no instruction is helpful in promoting vocabulary growth, but that instruction that includes explaining new words and discussing their meanings throughout the reading is significantly more effective. From these studies of adult reading styles, it is important to recognize that the key to active participation for increasing vocabulary knowledge seems to be the interaction that comes from a back and forth discussion during the read-aloud session in which children can contribute ideas and respond to the ideas of others.

The most recent line of research using discussion as a means to encourage active participation by students in a storybook read-aloud session is the development of the Text Talk strategy by Beck and McKeown (Beck & McKeown, 2001; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; McKeown & Beck, 2006). Text Talk is an instructional approach to read-alouds that is used to engage children in discussion of ideas in a story while the story is being read. The goal of Text Talk is to build comprehension of the story, increase students’ ability to understand and use decontextualized language, and to increase students’ vocabulary knowledge and use. Active participation is a critical feature of the Text Talk strategy as it is meant to be a back-and-forth exchange of ideas between the teacher and students. The teacher uses a protocol that includes
open-ended questions to elicit student discussion about the text and its individual words. The students respond to the questions by commenting on their own ideas and other students’ remarks. The teacher then elaborates and extends students’ thoughts and asks additional questions. Through such discussion, the teacher and students can synthesize the ideas of the group and practice precise articulation of thoughts. Using sophisticated words that exactly convey an intended meaning is essential to this task and therefore promotes students’ learning of higher-level vocabulary. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) present Text Talk as a framework for structuring read-alouds that become the foundation for robust vocabulary instruction. These researchers classify vocabulary instruction as robust when it includes direct teaching of word meanings and usages, student’s interaction with words, and extension activities that allow students to think about and use words.

McKeown and Beck (2003) studied how the use of the Text Talk strategy affected the nature of classroom language interactions. They found that teachers asked many more open-ended questions that prompted longer responses from students. In addition, students’ thoughts were less reliant on the text and contained more original ideas. In another study with kindergartners and first grade students with lower SES, Beck and McKeown (2007) compared read-aloud sessions that used the Text Talk strategy with a comparison group that did not. They found that the students who participated in the Text Talk lessons learned more vocabulary words than the students in the comparison group did. They concluded that the text talk strategy provided richer instruction that provided information about the context of the words instead of just a simple association between a word and its definition. This feature allowed students to gain a deeper level of knowledge about the words and their uses.
In a review of literature aiming to identify the major principles of vocabulary instruction, Blachowicz and Fisher (2000) concluded that children need to be actively engaged in word learning in order to see the relationships between words and build connections. After examining the research on active participation through questioning and discussion, it is clear that these are the most appropriate and effective instructional strategies for promoting vocabulary growth in young children. Questions posed about words or a text should be open-ended and designed to allow children to practice using newly learned words by relating them to the story and their own experiences. Discussions conducted throughout a story read-aloud session are extremely effective and should involve a true back-and-forth exchange of ideas between all participants. A framework that provides a structure for discussion can be helpful for teachers to ensure connections between words, their meanings, and their uses are clear to students. Active participation through discussion seems to be an essential instructional strategy to include for vocabulary learning.

“Rich…, Extended…, Robust…” – Comprehensive Instruction

Based on the positive findings that a variety of instructional strategies are effective, using a combination of those strategies for vocabulary instruction makes the most logical sense. Researchers use various terms to describe comprehensive instruction, but essentially, it involves using combinations of effective strategies to provide the most complete, effective vocabulary instruction possible. The collection of strategies deemed effective in the literature includes providing explanations or definitions of words, questioning, discussion and using the context, rich instruction, and extended instruction. Rich instruction is the term used by some researchers to describe activities facilitated by the teacher that go beyond a typical discussion. Such activities can involve retelling the story, role-playing to give students the opportunity to use the word in the context of the story, or activities designed to give the students opportunities to apply
the word to a different context. In most cases, rich instruction refers to instruction about the
target vocabulary words that is delivered on the day the storybook is read. Extended instruction
is the term generally used to describe additional rich instruction that is delivered on subsequent
days after the storybook is initially presented to the class. Instruction that includes repeated
readings of the same book is considered extended after the initial reading. Several groups of
researchers have combined some or all of these strategies to create a comprehensive vocabulary
instructional program for preschool and primary classrooms.

Wasik and Bond (2001) trained preschool teachers of 4-year-olds to implement a
combination of interactive book-reading strategies and to create a rich context for learning
identified vocabulary words. The intervention strategies included introducing vocabulary prior
to reading using props, objects, and pictures, asking open-ended questions, facilitating discussion
about the words and the books, and providing extension activities related to the book topic that
provided opportunities for students to use the targeted words. Instruction for each storybook
lasted from two to four days and the teachers read each book one to two times. Teachers in
control group classrooms read the same storybooks an equal number of times, but did not receive
any training in the intervention strategies. The researchers found that students learned more of
the targeted vocabulary words when their teachers offered rich contexts for learning word
meanings and multiple opportunities to hear and use the words when compared to their teachers
simply reading the book. The researchers noted that the teachers’ ability to systematically
structure a rich learning atmosphere was important for the success of the instructional
intervention.

Upon the success of their instructional intervention, Wasik, Bond, and Hindman (2006)
sought to determine if the strategies would be as equally effective with at-risk children from
lower SES levels. In this study, the preschool teachers received extensive training in the 
interactive book reading strategies previously described. In addition, the teachers received 
training in oral language strategies that included active listening, modeling descriptive language, 
and providing feedback through extending and elaborating children’s language. The intervention 
was implemented through two-week themed units for nine months. During each theme, each 
book was read two times to the entire class with ensuing interaction with the words occurring 
both in whole class and small group formats. The control group teachers read the same books an 
equal number of times, but did not receive the intervention training. The researchers found that 
at the end of the nine-month implementation period, the children in the intervention group had 
larger receptive and expressive vocabularies than did children in the control group. The results 
of these studies demonstrate that a comprehensive instructional intervention that combines many 
strategies shown to be effective can be highly valuable for promoting vocabulary growth in at-

Beck, McKeown, and colleagues also have explored the effectiveness of comprehensive 
instructional strategies for teaching vocabulary. An early study was conducted with 4th grade 
students and compared the effects of rich instruction, extended-rich instruction, and traditional 
instruction (McKeown, Beck, Omanson, & Pople, 1985). Rich instruction included exploring 
aspects of word meanings, elaborating word meanings, word uses in different contexts, and 
relationships between words. The extended-rich instruction added encouragement by the teacher 
for students to attend to and use targeted vocabulary words outside the classroom in spontaneous, 
natural contexts. Traditional instruction was described as simple associations between each 
word and its definition or synonyms. Results of the study showed that all the types of instruction 
increased word knowledge, but the rich instruction was more effective for learning words in
relation to context. The extended-rich instruction only showed a benefit over rich instruction alone when a task demanded faster processing times.

Beck and McKeown’s (2007) most recent study of the Text Talk strategy compared the effectiveness of rich instruction and extended-rich instruction with low SES kindergarten and first grade students. The Text Talk strategy (described in the previous section) can be considered a comprehensive instructional strategy because it uses a combination of techniques shown to be effective including explanations of words, questioning, discussion, and explicit attention to the context. The rich instruction included using the Text Talk strategy during a storybook read aloud session to teach all the identified vocabulary words. The extended-rich instruction was implemented with half of the identified words that had received the initial rich instruction. The extended-rich instruction added follow-up on the words throughout the week and two additional review sessions in which the words were re-taught and discussed in subsequent weeks after the initial story reading and Text Talk lesson. The number of words students learned increased for all the words taught, but the students were able to learn more of the words taught with extended-rich instruction at a faster rate. This is a crucial point to note in lieu of the current belief in the field that the way to close the vocabulary gap is to increase the rate at which students learn words. The researchers also emphasized that the Text Talk strategy aided the students’ decision-making about how to use the targeted words in an appropriate context and supported their ability to explain why or why not a word would make sense when used in a particular way. These research findings deem Text Talk to be an effective method of comprehensive vocabulary instruction for young children.

Another group of researchers has endeavored specifically to create a comprehensive vocabulary instructional intervention to be used with storybook read-aloud sessions based on the
techniques shown in the literature to be effective. Coyne, Simmons, Kame’enui, and Stoolmiller (2004) designed an intervention that integrated two readings of a storybook, direct instruction of targeted words using simple definitions, discussion about the book, and teacher and student retellings using targeted vocabulary words. The researchers tested their intervention with kindergartners with low receptive vocabulary levels using two storybooks and instruction that spanned six days. They found that the students in the intervention group learned more of the targeted words than the control group did and that the groups had no differences on the untaught words. The researchers concluded that the instructional intervention was successful and, since the participants were considered on the low side of the vocabulary gap, the intervention could be a way to increase their vocabulary learning and begin to close the gap.

Coyne, McCoach, and Kapp (2007) conducted a two-part study in which they first compared the effects of incidental exposure through storybook reading and extended instruction, and then the effects of extended instruction and embedded instruction. In this study, the researchers labeled embedded instruction as the simple instruction that occurred during the read-aloud session that consisted of explaining word meanings and repeating sentences from the text replacing the target word with the definition. Extended instruction in this particular study referred to the activities that occurred after the storybook was read that included discussion of the words and meanings, correct and incorrect uses of the words, creating sentences with the words, open-ended questions, and corrective feedback from the teacher. Each book was read three times and instruction was delivered to small groups of students over the course of one week. To be clear, in this study, the researchers labeled instruction that occurred after the read-aloud was concluded as extended instruction even though it occurred only on the day the story was read. The researchers identified target vocabulary words from each story and assigned a
type of instruction to each word; therefore, some words were only taught to the students through incidental exposure through reading, some words were taught through embedded instruction, and some words were taught with embedded and extended instruction. The researchers found substantial effects for their version of extended instruction when compared to both incidental exposure and simple instruction embedded within the read-aloud session. They also found differential effects for students with higher and lower initial vocabulary scores; instruction was more beneficial for students with higher initial vocabulary levels. Due to the positive results of this study, Coyne, McCoach, and Kapp recommend using the intervention described in this study as a Tri-Level Approach to vocabulary instruction. The first level consists of wide incidental exposure through multiple readings of storybooks; the second level adds embedded instruction for some identified words during the read-aloud session; and the third level offers extended instruction with meaningful activities surrounding the words and their uses after the read-aloud session is concluded. The researchers also emphasize the potential of this intervention as intensive support for at-risk students.

The studies reviewed here as comprehensive instructional strategies are just the beginning of a line of research that incorporates all the individually validated instructional methods into an integrated, structured program for vocabulary instruction for young children. This seems to be the most successful approach for increasing vocabulary learning and has the most potential for building vocabulary knowledge in children on the lower side of the vocabulary gap.

Summary

Research has established several different vocabulary instructional strategies as effective when used individually. Repeated readings of storybooks containing higher level, sophisticated vocabulary can provide multiple exposures to targeted words in a developmentally appropriate
and child-centered way. It seems that several exposures to words are necessary for deep levels of learning. Simple instruction that embeds explanations of word meanings into reading is effective for increasing word knowledge. The fundamental aspect of vocabulary instruction is to teach word meanings; therefore, providing explanations of unfamiliar words is an essential part of all vocabulary instruction. Eliciting active participation from the students through questioning by the teacher can be effective when the question is open-ended and prompts the students to use the targeted words. Finally, involving students in discussion about words and their meanings and uses is perhaps the most effective strategy for vocabulary instruction. Discussion allows students to associate words to contexts in which they may be used and allows connections to be built between words, information from the story, and the students’ existing background knowledge and prior experiences.

It is also apparent that using a combination of individually effective strategies can be highly successful in building young children’s vocabulary knowledge. Despite what name or label is given by a researcher, the key is to create an environment focused on words, their meanings, and their uses and to allow students the opportunity to exercise their new knowledge through continuous exposure and practice. Comprehensive approaches that combine strategies to create a structured and explicit plan have emerged as the premier method of vocabulary instruction.

Research is narrowing the parameters of what effective instruction to build young children’s vocabulary should entail. Yet, questions remain as to how best to compile strategies into a comprehensive framework for instruction. How much of each strategy is needed? How long should instruction last for a single word or storybook? How much extended instruction is necessary to provide maximum interaction with targeted words? These questions can only be
answered by additional exploration of comprehensive instructional interventions. In addition, researchers have not standardized the descriptive labels assigned to aspects of instruction such as, “extended, rich, embedded, and robust.” Without agreement on the characteristics that comprise these varying types of instruction, there cannot be a clear understanding about how to implement these strategies in classrooms.

**Purpose of the Study**

The National Research Council (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) recognized the ability of effective teachers to individualize instruction for every child by identifying the right combination of instructional strategies that will enable them to succeed. Although no one particular strategy will be equally effective for all children, the collection from which teachers draw must be filled with practices shown to be effective and accompanied by sufficient knowledge to implement them. In addition, teachers must allocate the available classroom instructional time to many curriculum demands to ensure that students meet all expected standards of learning. The goal of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of a structured, comprehensive framework for vocabulary instruction for preschool students consisting of a combination of research-supported strategies implemented for two varying lengths of time. This goal was set in an effort to add to the pool of available choices for teachers seeking to implement a strategy most appropriate for their students, yet the most efficient and feasible for implementation in a classroom with many demands and limited time. In addition, this study strove to determine if the instruction was differentially effective for students with varying initial levels of vocabulary knowledge. It is the researcher’s hope that this study furthers the work of established researchers in determining which teaching strategies are essential for vocabulary learning, particularly which strategies to use during storybook read-aloud sessions, and the amount of instruction needed for each targeted word that allows for maximum word learning during the school year.
Research Questions

1. How effective for increasing students’ vocabulary knowledge is the instructional intervention when implemented at a rate of 2 days per lesson/book when compared to the standard curriculum in place in the classrooms?

2. How effective for increasing students’ vocabulary knowledge is the instructional intervention when implemented at a rate of 4 days per lesson/book when compared to the standard curriculum in place in the classrooms?

3. Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the instructional intervention for increasing students’ vocabulary knowledge when it is implemented at a rate of 2 days versus 4 days per lesson/book?

4. Does the instructional intervention affect students’ vocabulary learning differentially according to their initial levels of vocabulary knowledge when implemented at a rate of either 2 days or 4 days per lesson/book?

Significance of the Study

The present study was designed to lead directly to practice in early childhood settings. The instructional framework was designed to incorporate the goals of an emergent literacy curriculum. It offers a systematic and explicit structure for read-aloud sessions that enables teachers to meet those instructional goals. The instructional framework can be applied to most storybooks appropriate for reading aloud in early childhood classrooms. Teachers participating in the present study received training in applying the framework to storybooks and in using the framework to conduct a read-aloud. Findings from this study reveal the effectiveness of the strategy and its feasibility for teachers to implement in their classrooms. The instructional framework can contribute to maximizing instructional time in the classroom to allow for the largest impact possible in the time available.

Findings from this study indicate no presence of Matthew Effects or how differences between students’ initial levels of vocabulary knowledge can influence the outcomes of the instruction. Conclusions assess the potential for the instructional framework to be implemented
with children with lower initial levels of vocabulary knowledge to increase their rate of vocabulary learning.
CHAPTER 3
METHODS

The goal of this study was to implement a combination of vocabulary instructional strategies and evaluate their effectiveness when implemented for two different periods. The researcher has sought evidence for a causal relationship between the specific instructional methods and the participating students’ vocabulary learning. The researcher was particularly interested in which implementation period yielded the most vocabulary learning relative to its requisite classroom instructional time.

Design

This study used a quasi-experimental, split-plot (mixed) design with two between-groups factors, condition (instructional intervention vs. comparison) and implementation time (short term vs. long term), and one within-groups factor, time of measurement (pretest vs. posttest). The crossed nature of the between-groups independent variables results in four group conditions: (1) experimental short-term instruction, (2) experimental long-term instruction, (3) comparison short-term instruction, and (4) comparison long-term instruction. Six intact groups, each consisting of one classroom teacher, an assistant, and their assigned students, from area preschools and child-care centers were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. The conditions had one to two intact groups each and $n$ represents the total number of students in that condition (see Table 3-1).

Threats to the internal validity of this quasi-experimental design were important to consider due to the lack of random selection and the use of intact groups for the participant sample. Selection threats introduced by using intact groups violate the assumption of independence. Using random assignment to conditions helped control these threats, however the assumption of independence is still violated based on the design of the study, hence the status of
quasiexperimental. The threats of history and maturation were accounted for by using a comparison group whose participants had a comparable maturation rate and similar characteristics to the participants in the experimental group. The ages of the participants and the type of child-care program from which they were drawn were held constant across all the groups. Identical training was given to all teachers in the experimental groups and instructional protocols with scripts bolstered fidelity of the treatment by keeping the intervention the same across experimental classrooms. The researcher conducted fidelity checks in all classrooms and conditions were clustered by site to avoid crossover effects between the groups. Each participating teacher’s classroom was observed to ensure similar levels of quality before assignment to conditions. A pretest was administered to verify the equivalence of the groups and was used as a covariate as necessary to control for individual differences. Implementing standardized testing procedures helped alleviate testing and instrumentation threats. Regression to the mean was a possible threat to the comparison of the high and low subgroups necessary to address research question number four. To control this threat, the researcher conducted the same extreme group contrast with the comparison group. Finally, the researcher monitored the mortality rate of participants as it occurred throughout the data collection period and found no more than two participants that left the study.

**Participants**

Participants were 61 four- and five-year-old children drawn from preschools and child-care centers participating in the Florida Voluntary Pre-Kindergarten (VPK) program in North Central Florida. The VPK program is state-supported, public preschool program that strives to establish a strong foundation for learning by making available high-quality preschool education to all four-year-old children in Florida. The sample included 36 boys and 25 girls ranging in age from 4 years, 4 months to 5 years, 6 months, with the mean age being 4 years, 11 months.
Eighty percent of the children were Caucasian, 11.6 percent were African American, 6.6 percent were Hispanic, and 1.6 percent were of Asian descent. Ten children whose parents gave consent for participation in the study were excluded because their native language was not English. This decision was made due to limited knowledge of the children’s level of proficiency in their native language and the possible presence of additional, unknown variables related to learning English as a second language that may have influenced the data.

Teachers of VPK classrooms were recruited for the study from four area child-care centers which partner with the county’s Early Learning Coalition (ELC). The ELC is a not-for-profit organization that serves as a resource for parents and integrates services from childcare providers and agencies with the goal of supporting school readiness. Two of the centers identified themselves as Faith-based and two were secular. There was no concrete data related to SES levels available; the centers did not participate in free- and reduced-lunch programs from which the percentage of children participating is commonly used as a gauge of SES levels. Three of the four classrooms were classified as large VPK classrooms with a maximum number of enrolled students of 18 and one teacher and one assistant per classroom. The fourth classroom consisted of two separate groups of ten children who met with the teacher during different parts of the day at the center.

Six teachers were included in the study to deliver the instructional intervention to the participants. All of the teachers were female, three were Caucasian, two were African American and one was of Asian descent. They had 2, 6, 13, 16, 22, and 30 years of teaching experience in preschool settings; the teacher with two years also had nine years experience as an assistant teacher and the teacher with thirty years had some elementary teaching experience as part of her experiences. All of the teachers had Child Development Associate (CDA) credentials and three
had Director’s Credentials. One teacher also had an AA degree in early childhood education and one had a BA degree in education. Two teachers had four-year degrees in fields unrelated to education.

Prior to random assignment to condition, each teacher’s classroom was observed using the Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation (ELLCO) (Smith & Dickinson, 2002). Five of the six teachers scored within seven points of each other on all sections of the measure. One of the teachers scored lower on three of the four sections. Her low scores can partially be attributed to the unique design of her particular center. The structure of the center was originally a home, thus there are many small rooms. Instead of each room being a complete classroom for a group of students, each room in the building is devoted to a different content area (library, science, art, music) and the students rotate with their classroom groups throughout the building during the day. The ELLCO was performed only on the library room during the teacher’s 2 VPK groups. Not all of the rooms in the building were included in the observation, therefore some items on the measure were scored very low, particularly those pertaining to environment and arrangement. Despite this limitation, several sections of the ELLCO that were observed in the library room were rated below basic level, including classroom climate, oral language facilitation, approaches to writing, and curriculum integration. This difference in quality of one of the study classrooms is a limitation that is addressed in a later section.

Each teacher received seven storybooks to use during the implementation of the instructional intervention and to keep for her personal collection upon the conclusion of the data collection period. In addition, each teacher was awarded her choice of a gift card to either a bookstore or local restaurant.
Measures

The National Reading Panel (2000) recognized that there is no single standard for measuring vocabulary present in the field and that many studies use researcher-created instruments to measure vocabulary levels and new learning. The panel concluded that assessment instruments that more closely represent the instructional methods used offer more accurate information about students’ learning from that instruction. From this conclusion and the high number of researchers using researcher-created methods, the panel recommended this practice be adopted as accepted practice in the field.

Some studies that have used standardized measures found that they are not sensitive enough to detect small increments of learning or learning of a specific set of targeted words (Hargrave & Sénéchal, 2000; Nelson & Stage, 2007). The National Reading Panel reported this finding and suggested instead that standardized measures are indicative of a more global measure of vocabulary and oral language. An NICHD study by the Early Child Care Research Network (2005) used a standardized vocabulary instrument to measure verbal intelligence and supported the connection between oral language and cognitive functioning. These findings suggest that standardized measures are not useful as an outcome measure of vocabulary learning, but can be used as a pretest measure to provide a baseline for participating students. Based on these findings from previous research, the present study used two measures of vocabulary: the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test – 3 (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) and a researcher-created protocol designed by Michael Coyne at the University of Connecticut.

Both measures were administered at the pretest data collection point approximately 2 weeks before implementation of the instructional intervention. Only the Coyne measure was administered at the posttest data collection point, within one week after the end of the intervention period. The measures were given to the participating students by the researcher and
two early childhood preservice teachers/university students trained in administering the measures.

In addition to the vocabulary measures that were used to gauge word learning, an inventory of each classroom’s language and literacy environment was taken prior to forming the participant groups. The Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation Toolkit (Smith & Dickinson, 2002) was administered in each classroom and the resulting data was used to describe the context of the classrooms and ensure that groups were matched on levels of quality.

**Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test – 3rd Edition**

All the children participating in the study were pretested with the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test – 3rd Edition (PPVT-3) (Dunn & Dunn, 1997), a standardized measure of receptive vocabulary. The PPVT-3 is given individually in sessions lasting approximately 11 minutes. During an administration of the PPVT-3, the tester verbally gives the student a word and presents them with a plate of four pictures. The student is asked to point to the picture that most accurately represents the given word. The PPVT-3 uses the student’s age to identify an appropriate starting point for testing and uses basal and ceiling rules to ensure that only the items within the critical range of the student’s ability are given. This practice minimizes frustration or boredom that may come with answering items that are extremely too hard or easy for the student.

The PPVT-3 uses a student’s raw score and age to assign standard scores appropriate for comparing the student’s performance to the normative sample. The PPVT-3 has a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. The authors report alternate-forms reliability, split-half reliability, and test-retest reliability as all having median scores of .91 or higher. In addition, the authors report satisfactory correlational data between the PPVT-3 and other well-known intelligence tests as evidence of construct validity to support the use of the PPVT-3 as a measure of cognitive functioning (Dunn & Dunn, 1997).
Coyne Vocabulary Protocol

The participants were pretested for prior knowledge of the targeted vocabulary words using an assessment protocol designed by Michael Coyne of the University of Connecticut and used in similar studies by its author (Coyne, McCoach, & Kapp, 2007; Coyne, Simmons, & Kame’enui, 2004). This instrument is a combination of receptive and expressive vocabulary that measures the students’ knowledge of the definitions and uses of the 20 targeted words. For each word, the student is given three items. First the student is asked to define the word. For example, “what is an easel?” Next, the student is asked a follow-up question to explain the word’s use. For example, “what would you do with an easel?” Finally, the student is prompted to choose a picture that represents the word. For example, “point to the boy drawing on an easel” is the prompt and the student will view a stimulus sheet with pictures of a blackboard, the floor, a table, and an easel. Responses for the first two items for each word are awarded 2 points for a complete response, 1 point for a partial response, and 0 points for an unrelated response. An example of a complete response to the item, “what did someone do if they gathered?” was, “they picked apples from a tree and loaded them into a basket and carried them to a table.” An example of a partial response to the item, “what does wail mean?” was, “you cry and pout.” The third item for each word is given 1 point for pointing to the correct picture and 0 points for pointing to any incorrect picture. The total number of points available for each word is 5, with a total maximum score range of 0 – 100 for the measure. Learning outcomes for the targeted words were measured by administering this assessment again as a posttest.

Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation Toolkit

Each participating teacher’s classroom was observed using the Early Language and Literacy Classroom Observation Toolkit (ELLCO) (Smith & Dickinson, 2002) for the purpose of ensuring the four groups were equivalent in quality for the study. The ELLCO is a three part
observation and interview tool that strives to identify and document the physical and social environment in a classroom that supports the language and literacy development of young children. The ELLCO uses an environment checklist to inventory the literacy-related content of the classroom at the beginning of a classroom observation. Items on the checklist relate to book availability, selection, and use as well as writing materials and activities throughout the room. The bulk of the tool guides the administrator through an observation of classroom practices and a short teacher interview to record and describe literacy-related activities occurring in the classroom. The administrator looks for evidence of oral language facilitation, books and the approach to book reading in the classroom, and children’s writing, among other indicators. The brief interview with the teacher uses broad prompts about the general atmosphere of the classroom as a whole to supplement the observation that occurs on a single day. The final portion of the tool is a rating scale that summarizes the state of the language and literacy curriculum of the classroom.

The authors report internal consistency reliability to be .84 for the checklist, .90 for the observation, and .66 for the total rating scale. Because the reliability of the total rating scale is low, yet still acceptable, the authors recommend considering the two subscales separately with reliability coefficients of .92 and .73. Most sections of the toolkit have moderate to strong correlations with each other; the only exception being the Book Reading and the Writing portions of the literacy activities scale. The authors note that this implies measurement of two separate constructs and should be evaluated individually.

**Materials and Instruction**

**Materials**

The books selected for this study were high-quality authentic literature written for young children. The researcher chose narratives, which present a definite story structure, with a clear
problem and resolution, characters likely to appeal to young children, and events that allowed children to contemplate choices and outcomes. Books chosen were rich sources of vocabulary and offered complex ideas that will prompt the reader to consider multiple perspectives and express opinions.

The words targeted for instruction from each of the selected storybooks were classified as Tier 2 words as in Beck, McKeown, and Kucan’s (2002) approach to vocabulary instruction labeled Text Talk. Tier 2 words are words likely to appear widely in books and occur in oral language interactions of mature language users. They are useful and offer students a more precise or mature way of expressing thoughts or discussing concepts than their current level of word knowledge (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). The researcher chose words that (a) describe concepts or objects children would be familiar with, but that offer more refined ways to refer to those concepts or objects, and (b) are conducive to explaining their meanings in simple language using words that are likely already a part of young children’s oral vocabulary.

To choose storybooks and targeted words for this study the researcher conducted a search of children’s literature using recommendations from researchers and book reviews listed in the Children’s Literature Comprehensive Database (located at www.childrenslit.com) looking for high quality stories that fit the above outlined criteria. The researcher compiled a list of eighteen possible books and asked the participating teachers to identify any of the selected storybooks that may already be well-known by the students in her class (i.e. the teacher may have already read a certain book to her class or it may be part of the classroom library). Identified books were removed from the list until only storybooks remained that the teachers deemed previously unfamiliar to the students.
Using these sources, the researcher chose seven storybooks for use in the study. The researcher identified all the potential Tier 2 words in each of the selected storybooks, and then chose two or three words from that pool for each book that would be the most important for understanding the story. The researcher also considered the instructional potential of each word and the level of conceptual understanding of the participants when making the final word choices. There were a total of 20 targeted words from the seven books.

Once the storybooks were chosen and words from each were targeted for instruction, the researcher developed lesson plans with specific procedures for implementing the instructional framework that include scripted prompts and questions for the participating teachers’ use. The rationale for these highly structured lessons was to ensure compliance and fidelity to the instructional intervention and to maintain uniformity of instruction between the participating teachers.

**Instructional Framework**

The experimental instructional framework was designed by the researcher with the intent of combining vocabulary instructional strategies shown to be effective through previous research and recommended by professionals in the field. There were two versions of the framework, each consisting of the same strategies, but the first was designed for implementation with one storybook over two days (Short-Term Instruction) and the second was designed for implementation with one storybook over four days (Long-Term Instruction). Both short-term and long-term instruction included the following strategies, each described in detail below: multiple readings, identifying targeted vocabulary words, explanations of targeted words, open-ended questions about targeted words and definitions, discussion about targeted words, and integration of targeted words into classroom activities after the read-aloud session.
Multiple readings and identifying targeted words

Directly prior to reading each storybook, teachers introduced each targeted word by clearly pronouncing the word for the students and displaying the written form of the word. The teachers prompted the students to repeat the word, several times if necessary, to ensure students learned the accurate pronunciation and created a phonological representation of the word for storage in memory. After the introduction of the targeted words, the teachers commenced reading the story. Teachers in the short-term instruction groups read each storybook two times, while the teachers in the long-term instruction groups read each storybook four times (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000).

Explaining the meaning

Upon the conclusion of each storybook reading, teachers repeated each targeted word and explained the meaning of the word to the students (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Justice, Meier, & Walpole, 2005). Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) recommend giving a definition of a word to students using what they term, “student-friendly explanations.” A student-friendly explanation clearly describes the meaning of a word, as it is most typically used, with simple language that allows young children to grasp the meaning in a concrete way. Teachers used provided student-friendly explanations to present word meanings to the students. In addition, teachers provided a visual demonstration of the word, consisting of actions, objects, or pictures, and a selection of examples and non-examples to promote understanding of each word’s meaning.

Open-ended questions

Teachers posed open-ended questions about the targeted words and their meanings to the students both during and after the reading on each day of instruction for each book. The questions were designed to prompt the students to use the targeted words and to construct
meaning about the words and their appropriate uses. Whitehurst and colleagues recommend a strategy labeled CROWD to guide the forming of questions during dialogic reading sessions (Whitehurst, Epstein et al., 1994). Under this strategy, each letter in CROWD stands for a different type of question. “C” refers to completion questions in which the reader poses a fill-in-the-blank type sentence and the students provide an appropriate word. “R” questions are for recall of events in the story. “O” stands for open-ended questions that require the students to respond in their own words and that prompt elaborated language on an aspect of the story. The “W” refers to “wh” questions, such as what, why, where, and when. “D” refers to distancing questions that allow the students to relate to their experiences outside of the story. The questions teachers posed to their students during the read-aloud sessions were primarily open-ended questions, “wh” questions, and distancing questions. In addition, teachers used repetition and rephrasing of students’ answers to provide feedback and model further language use. When student answers were short or demonstrate only a shallow understanding of a word’s meaning, teachers asked follow-up questions to extend the student’s response or prompt an explanation of their thinking (Beck & McKeown, 2001).

Discussion

After each read-aloud session, the teachers guided a discussion about the targeted words and how they were used in the context of the story. The teachers used the think-aloud strategy to narrate their thinking and model how the meaning of the word can be derived from the context in order to make the connection explicit for the students. During the discussion, the teachers posed both questions and comments about the words’ meanings, and prompted the students to respond to their comments and those from other students (Whitehurst, Arnold, Epstein, Angell, Smith, & Fischel, 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003). Questions and comments focused on presenting examples of the words’ uses, applying the words to situations, and making judgments
about appropriate uses of the words (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). Teachers encouraged all students to contribute to the discussion and practice using the targeted words.

**Integration into classroom activities**

After the initial instruction of the targeted words’ meanings during the first reading of each storybook, the teachers intentionally created opportunities for students to think about and use the words during other classroom routines and activities (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Coyne, McCoach, & Kapp, 2007). These were in the form of teacher comments incorporating a targeted word during daily routines, teacher prompts to use the words directed to the students during an activity in which the targeted words could apply, or extension activities implemented specifically to encourage use of the targeted words. These activities occurred after the storybook read-aloud session during each day of instruction for each book. Between four and six integration opportunities were presented in the lesson protocols and teachers decided which to implement on each day of instruction.

**Instructional sequence and implementation time**

The experimental instructional framework had two versions: short-term instruction, which is designed to be implemented with one book over two days and long-term instruction, designed to be implemented with one book over four days. The fifth day of the school week was left open intentionally to account for holidays and school activities (i.e. guest speakers, assemblies, field trips) that could interfere with classroom instruction during the week. Each read-aloud session and accompanying instruction was designed to be implemented during a twenty-minute period. Short-term instruction included the following: (day one) book introduction, identification of targeted words, story read-aloud with questions throughout, explanations of word meanings, teacher think-aloud and word use examples; (day two) book re-
introduction, re-identification of targeted words, repeated story read-aloud with questions throughout, discussion with application to situations and making judgments about the words. Long-term instruction will include the following: (day one) book introduction, identification of targeted words, story read-aloud with questions throughout, explanations of word meanings, teacher think-aloud and word use examples; (days two through four) book re-introduction, re-identification of targeted words, repeated story read-aloud with questions throughout, discussion with application to situations and making judgments about the words (discussion prompts and questions were different on each day). Opportunities for integration and extension activities took place at various times throughout the remainder of the school day on each day of instruction for each book.

**Comparison Groups**

Teachers in the comparison groups read the same seven storybooks to their students as did teachers in the instructional intervention groups. In the short-term instruction groups, teachers read two books a week while in the long-term instruction groups, teachers read one book a week. The researcher did not indicate to the teachers in the comparison groups how many times to read each storybook, nor which words had been targeted for instruction. The teachers were asked to conduct their typical early literacy instruction with no changes other than reading the selected storybooks. Voluntary pre-kindergarten guidelines allow centers to choose or design their own curriculums given that they meet the educational standards set by the state. The standards that relate to vocabulary instruction and storybook read-alouds include: listens and responds appropriately to comments, questions, and directions; uses language to express thoughts and feelings; shows motivation for reading; shows understanding for text read aloud by retelling and answering questions; shows understanding of words and their meanings and uses vocabulary appropriately in a variety of situations.
Procedures

Prior to beginning data collection for the study, the researcher conducted a pilot test of the Coyne measure using the targeted words from the selected storybooks. The pilot version of the measure included thirty items, three words each from ten storybooks identified in the search for appropriate books. The measure was administered to sixteen children in a VPK classroom at a Child Development and Research Center affiliated with a public university in North Central Florida. Data from the pilot measure was used to identify words of which typical children in VPK classrooms may have prior knowledge. Ten words were removed from the measure leaving twenty that were used in the main study.

Upon obtaining consent from teachers, children, and their parents, the children were pretested by the researcher or a trained early childhood preservice teacher/university student over a two-week period in one-on-one sessions at their center. Both measures were administered during the pretest and the sessions lasted approximately 20 minutes each.

After the participants were pretested, the researcher met with the teachers of the experimental groups for training in using the instructional framework. The researcher explained the strategies and sequence of the instructional framework and modeled its implementation with a storybook and sample words not included in the study’s materials. These sessions lasted approximately one hour and the teachers were able to practice the skills and receive feedback from the researcher. At the end of the session, the researcher explained the guidelines for implementing the instructional framework in their classrooms and identified the storybooks and targeted words. The teachers of the comparison groups met with the researcher who explained the schedule for reading the storybooks to their students, but the comparison group teachers did not receive any instructional training and were not informed which words were targeted for the study.
There were two experimental groups in the present study. Teachers of the short-term experimental group classrooms implemented the instructional framework with the selected books and words to their students over a period of three-and-a-half weeks at a rate of two storybooks and accompanying instruction each week. The teachers of the long-term experimental group classrooms delivered the same instruction, including the same books and targeted words, to their students over a period of seven weeks at a rate of one storybook and accompanying instruction each week.

During the instructional implementation period, the researcher conducted fidelity checks in the treatment condition classrooms to ensure compliance with the instructional intervention. The researcher visited each experimental classroom two times to observe a story read-aloud session. The researcher looked for evidence that the teacher followed the instructional sequence and that the instruction included the features that were taught in the training sessions. In addition, level of adherence to the instructional protocols was observed to ensure equivalent fidelity across all classrooms. The implementation observation form (see Appendix E) uses a rating scale from one to five, with one being poor practice and five being excellent practice, to rate teachers’ implementation of the lesson across five characteristics. The resulting score can range from five to twenty-five.

Both teachers in the long-term instructional group maintained fidelity to the lesson plans. Their average scores on the implementation observation form were 22.5 and 24. The teacher in the short-term instructional group only partially maintained fidelity during the first observation and received a score of 18. The researcher prompted the teacher to complete the lesson later in the day and provided a training booster session before the next book was begun. The additional training included modeling by the researcher of the instructional strategies using the lesson
protocol and additional teacher practice. The teacher demonstrated improvement upon the second observation and received a score of 20.

There were two comparison groups in the present study. Teachers of the comparison groups read the same books to their classes, as did the teachers of the experimental groups, but did not deliver any accompanying instruction nor identify targeted vocabulary words. The teachers of the short-term comparison groups read the selected books to their classes over the course of three-and-a-half weeks at a rate of two books per week. The teachers of the long-term comparison groups read the same books over seven weeks at the rate of one book per week. The researcher did not indicate how many times the comparison group teachers should read each book during the assigned week, but allowed the teachers to reread books according to their usual practice.

During the instructional implementation period, the researcher visited each comparison classroom one time to observe a story read-aloud session and document the features of the teachers’ instruction using the implementation observation form. The two teachers in the short-term comparison group scored a 23 and a 24 on their observations. Their instruction included the following characteristics: interprets meaning after reading each page and offers comments; responding to and extending students’ comments; providing prompts and hints to aid students’ recall; asking questions during reading that help students understand the story and connect to their own experiences; and discussing the meanings of some words used in the story (not those targeted by the researcher). The teacher in the long-term comparison group received a score of nine on the observation. Her instruction included the following characteristics: providing questions and comments that focused on labeling animals in the story; answering student-initiated questions; failing to correct a student’s incorrect answer; and little encouragement of
spontaneous participation by the students. The low score this teacher received is a limitation that is discussed in a later section.

Upon completion of the short-term instructional period, the researcher conducted posttests with the participants. The Coyne measure was administered to the children in one-on-one sessions in their centers that lasted approximately 20 minutes. When the long-term instructional period was completed, the researcher administered the posttest assessment to the children also in one-on-one, 20-minute sessions.

Upon completion of the data collection period of the study, the researcher met with the teachers of the comparison groups and provided training in the instructional framework used by the experimental teachers. Incentives were awarded to the participating teachers upon completion of the data collection period.
Table 3-1. Group Conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Short-term</th>
<th>Long-term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Instructional intervention| Group 1  
$n = 14$ | Group 2  
$n = 17$ |
| Comparison               | Group 3  
$n = 10$ | Group 4  
$n = 20$ |
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

The goal of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the instructional intervention when delivered to preschool students at two different rates of implementation. To achieve this goal, four groups crossed between two independent variables were formed and specific research questions were presented to systematically examine the effects. To investigate the data, the researcher used analysis of variance techniques to compare outcomes within and between each group. This chapter presents the statistical analysis procedures and results used to draw conclusions about the effectiveness of the instructional intervention.

Statistical Assumptions of ANOVA

Use of analysis of variance as an inferential statistic requires that three primary assumptions about the data are upheld in order to draw conclusions with confidence. The assumption of independence was violated in this study due to the use of intact groups. The sampling procedures could not be fully random due to constraints from the structure of the school system from which the population was drawn. The violation was moderated by using random assignment to conditions, but still requires cautious interpretation of the data.

The assumption of normality was tested by examining the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution of scores of the dependent variable, the Coyne measure posttest, for each group. The short-term comparison group appeared to have a non-normal distribution that was positively skewed with positive kurtosis. This group had the smallest $n$ ($n=10$) of all the groups in the sample; therefore, this potential violation of normality was verified using the Shapiro-Wilk test which is highly sensitive to small sample sizes. Using a strict alpha level of $p < .001$ as recommended by Gamst, Meyers, and Guarino (2008), the posttest scores were found to
approximate a normal distribution ($p = .430, .297, .025, \text{ and } .514$ for the four groups) and the assumption of normality was upheld. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested using the Levene statistic for the scores on all three measures, the PPVT-3, the Coyne measure pretest, and the Coyne measure posttest. The scores for the PPVT-3 upheld the assumption of homogeneity of variances ($p = .052$). Both the Coyne measure pretest and posttest were found to violate the assumption ($p$’s $< .001$). A likely cause was the small and unequal sample sizes of each group. To correct for the effect of unequal variances, the Welch statistic was used during the analyses to identify differences between groups. In addition, to account for possible inflation of the Type I error rate due to these violations, a lower alpha level of .01 was set during statistical analyses.

**Group Equivalency**

To identify any preexisting differences prior to the instructional intervention, equivalency of the four groups was examined across the following variables: age in months, initial vocabulary level measured by PPVT-3, and prior knowledge of the targeted words measured by the Coyne measure pretest (see Table 4-1). Two-way analyses of variance showed no differences between the groups for age, $F(1, 57) = .032, p = .858$, or initial vocabulary level, $F(1, 57) = 2.666, p = .108$. Two-way analysis of variance of the Coyne measure pretest scores using the Welch test to correct for heterogeneity of variances indicated that there were no differences between groups in prior knowledge of the targeted vocabulary words, $F(3, 24.727) = 2.132, p = .122$.

**Effectiveness of the Instructional Intervention**

Targeted vocabulary words were taught during storybook read-aloud sessions using a specific framework for instruction. The primary goal of the study was to determine the effectiveness of that instruction when implemented at two varying rates in comparison to the
standard curriculum in place in the centers. A two-way analysis of covariance was used to compare differences in the four groups’ learning of targeted words. Group condition (instructional intervention, comparison) and implementation time (short-term, long-term) were the between-groups factors and the Coyne measure posttest was the dependent variable. Age in months and the Coyne measure pretest scores were used as covariates. Using the Welch test to correct for heterogeneity of variances, the omnibus hypothesis test showed significant differences between groups, \( F(3, 21.198) = 29.676, p < .001 \). Pairwise comparisons using a Bonferroni adjustment to avoid inflation in the Type 1 error rate were conducted to locate the differences. Results showed a significant difference between the short-term instructional intervention and comparison groups, \( F(1,55) = 15.441, p < .001 (\eta_G^2 = .219) \), and between the long-term instructional intervention and comparison groups, \( F(1,55) = 89.28, p < .001 (\eta_G^2 = .619) \). Comparison of the short-term and long-term instructional groups also showed a significant difference, \( F(1,55) = 16.798, p < .001 (\eta_G^2 = .234) \). Examination of posttest means for each group indicate that each instructional intervention group learned more of the targeted vocabulary words than did the respective comparison group and that the long-term instructional intervention group had higher learning gains than the short-term instructional intervention group (see Table 4-2).

In addition to locating differences in word learning between groups, it was also desirable to examine each individual group’s pre- to posttest learning. Word learning gains are reflected in the differences between pre- and posttest mean scores on the Coyne measure. For this analysis, a two-way repeated measures analysis of covariance was used with time of measurement (pretest, posttest) as the within-groups factor, condition and implementation time as the between-groups factors, and age in months as a covariate. Results showed a significant interaction between time
of measurement and the between-groups factors, $F(1, 56) = 10.213, p = .002 (\eta^2_G = .048)$.

Analysis of the simple effects of the interaction revealed significant differences between the pre- and posttest scores for the short-term instructional intervention group, $F(1,56) = 40.025, p < .001 (\eta^2_G = .186)$, and long-term instructional intervention group, $F(1,56) = 173.170, p < .001 (\eta^2_G = .821)$. There were not significant differences between pre- and posttests scores for the short-term, $F(1,56) = .292, p = .591$, and long-term, $F(1,56) = .015, p = .904$, comparison groups.

Figure 4-1 displays mean scores by group on pre- and posttests of the Coyne measure to illustrate word learning gains.

**Strength of Effect for Word Learning**

To understand the magnitude of the effect of the intervention for each group, the researcher considered several statistical measures and their appropriateness with the design of the study. Omega squared is an estimate of strength of association for the entire population from which the sample was drawn (Gamst, Meyers, & Guarino, 2008). While helpful in studies with large sample sizes that are randomly selected from the total population of interest, this measure is not appropriate in the current study. Eta squared is a correlation that is based solely on the data collected from the participant sample of a study. Eta squared values indicate how much of the variance in the dependent variable can be accounted for by the independent variable. This measure is used in designs with a single independent variable and is interpreted subjectively based on the context of the study and how the information about the dependent variable will be used (Gamst, Meyers, & Guarino, 2008). When two independent variables are of interest, eta squared does not differentiate between them and is not useful. Partial eta squared is commonly used in designs with two independent variables to focus exclusively on the effect and error of one independent variable at a time, the other variables being excluded from the calculation. The value is a proportion that ranges from zero to one and indicates the variance contributed by a
single factor with all other factors and error removed. The interpretation of partial eta squared is
different from eta squared and should be approached cautiously; the two values do not represent
the same portion of variance and should not be compared equally or interchanged (Cohen, 1973;
make the case that these measures of effect size are influenced by the design of a study,
including whether the variables are manipulated or measured, and cannot be compared as an
absolute measure of effect making generalization difficult and comparison across studies
inappropriate. To remedy this situation, Olejnik and Algina (2003) present generalized eta
squared (\(\eta_G^2\)) as a measure of effect size that accounts for all sources of variance and that can be
compared across studies. A description of generalized eta squared, its calculation procedures,
and a scale for interpretation are discussed in Olejnik and Algina (2003) and supported by
Bakeman (2005).

In the present study, the researcher reports generalized eta squared values of effect size
for all effects. In the between-subjects analysis, all levels of the independent variable are
manipulated factors resulting in equal partial eta squared and generalized eta squared values
(Olejnik & Algina, 2003; Bakeman, 2005). However, in the within-subjects analysis,
generalized eta squared would be less than partial eta squared (Bakeman, 2005). Therefore,
generalized eta squared is the only measure reported to allow for continuity and straightforward
comparison of all effects of interest. To interpret the magnitude of each pairwise comparison of
between-groups effects and within-groups effects, the researcher used the following scale as
suggested by Bakeman (2005), .02 is a small effect, .13 is a medium effect, and .26 is a large
effect. The effect of the short-term instructional intervention group when compared to the short-
term comparison group was in the medium range. There was also a medium effect size when the
long-term instructional intervention group was compared to the short-term instructional intervention group. When the long-term instructional intervention group is compared to the long-term comparison group, there was a large effect. In the within-subjects comparisons, the sizes of the pre- to posttest effects by the short-term and long-term instructional intervention groups are medium and large, respectively (see Table 4-3).

**Differential Effects on Extreme Groups**

To address the question of whether or not the instructional intervention affected students differentially based on initial vocabulary levels, the researcher divided each group into high- and low-initial vocabulary subgroups. High- and low- subgroups were determined by isolating the uppermost and lowest 25th percentile of each group based on PPVT-3 scores. This added a between groups factor to the crossed design and resulted in eight subgroups; the between groups factors were: condition (instructional intervention, comparison), initial vocabulary level (high, low), and implementation time (short-term, long-term) (see Table 4-4).

A three-way analysis of covariance was conducted to compare differences in the subgroups’ learning of targeted words. Condition (instructional intervention, comparison), initial vocabulary level (high, low), and implementation time (short-term, long-term) were the between-groups factors and the Coyne measure posttest was the dependent variable. Age in months, the PPVT-3, and the Coyne measure pretest scores were used as covariates. Adding the PPVT-3 as a covariate in this analysis was necessary because the researcher used that variable purposefully to divide the groups into non-equivalent subgroups. Using the grouping variable as a covariate will remove the variance from pre-existing sources and equate the groups in order to isolate the effects of the instructional intervention on those participants.

In this analysis, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was upheld making the Welch test unnecessary. The results showed no significant differences between subgroups for any
effects involving initial vocabulary level. There were no interactions between initial vocabulary level and the remaining independent variables, $F(1, 18) = .044, p = .837$, and there was not a significant main effect for initial vocabulary level, $F(1, 18) = .400, p = .535$. Pairwise comparisons for this analysis were unnecessary. Based on these results, there were no Matthew Effects present from the instructional intervention.

To examine each subgroup’s pre- to posttest word learning, a repeated measures, within-group factor (time of measurement: pretest, posttest) was added to the analysis. The overall interaction term between all the factors was not significant, $F(1, 19) = .040, p = .844$. Examination of pre- and posttest mean differences for each of the subgroups shows significant gains in the short-term, instructional intervention, high initial vocabulary subgroup, $F(1, 19) = 8.017, p = .011 (\eta_G^2 = .487)$; and in the long-term, instructional intervention, high and low initial vocabulary subgroups, $F(1, 19) = 12.323, p = .002 (\eta_G^2 = 1.068)$ and $F(1, 19) = 5.805, p = .026 (\eta_G^2 = .267)$, respectively (see Figure 4-2). The gains in the short-term, instructional intervention, low initial vocabulary subgroup were not statistically significant, $F(1, 19) = 3.558, p = .075 (\eta_G^2 = .145)$. None of the comparison subgroups made significant pre- to posttest gains. These results indicate that students with high initial vocabulary levels were able to make significant word learning gains in both the short-term and long-term instructional intervention groups. Students with low initial vocabulary levels only demonstrated significant learning gains in the long-term instructional group implying that the short-term rate of implementation was not potent enough for these students to make significant word learning gains. Despite the non-significant result however, the short-term, low initial vocabulary subgroup had a medium effect-size that shows these students were able to show improvement in their knowledge of the targeted words as a result of the instructional intervention.
Although, the ANOVA comparison found no significant differences between the subgroups, the effect sizes of each subgroup’s pre- to post-test leaning gains reveal a different conclusion concerning differential effects of the intervention. Each of the instructional intervention subgroups made learning gains, but the sizes of those gains appear to coincide with students’ initial vocabulary levels (see Table 4-5). Both the high initial vocabulary subgroups had a larger effect size than the low initial vocabulary subgroups suggesting that Matthew Effects may be present that were too small to be detected by the statistical comparison. Although there were not significant differences between the subgroups at the time of this study, the small differences that appear to be present could grow substantially over the course of the elementary school years, resulting in more extensive differences that may impact achievement.
Table 4-1. Group characteristics prior to instructional intervention.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Instructional Intervention</th>
<th>Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Short-term, ( n=14 )</td>
<td>Long-term, ( n=17 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age in months</td>
<td>59.21</td>
<td>2.966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPVT-3</td>
<td>105.57</td>
<td>12.960</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-2. Coyne measure posttest scores by group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short-term instructional intervention</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>15.960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term instructional intervention</td>
<td>45.59</td>
<td>17.766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term comparison</td>
<td>17.20</td>
<td>11.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term comparison</td>
<td>8.55</td>
<td>3.268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-3. Effect sizes of significant pairwise comparisons using \( \eta_G^2 \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>( \eta_G^2 ) *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short-term instructional intervention over short-term comparison</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term instructional intervention over long-term comparison</td>
<td>.619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term over short-term instructional intervention</td>
<td>.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term instructional intervention pre- to posttest difference</td>
<td>.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term instructional intervention pre- to posttest difference</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* .02, .13, and .26 are small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively.

Table 4-4. Extreme group conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Short-term</th>
<th>Long-term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional intervention</td>
<td>High initial vocabulary</td>
<td>Sub-group A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( n=4 ) scores ( \geq 115 )</td>
<td>( n=4 ) scores ( \geq 121 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low initial vocabulary</td>
<td>Sub-group B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( n=3 ) scores ( \leq 92.75 )</td>
<td>( n=4 ) scores ( \leq 100 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>High initial vocabulary</td>
<td>Sub-group E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( n=2 ) scores ( \geq 127.25 )</td>
<td>( n=5 ) scores ( \geq 107.5 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low initial vocabulary</td>
<td>Sub-group F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( n=2 ) scores ( \leq 96.25 )</td>
<td>( n=5 ) scores ( \leq 97.5 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4-5. Effect sizes of pre to posttest learning gains using $\eta^2_G$ for instructional intervention subgroups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>$\eta^2_G$ *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A-Short-term, high initial vocabulary</td>
<td>.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B-Short-term, low initial vocabulary</td>
<td>.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C-Long-term, high initial vocabulary</td>
<td>1.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D-Long-term, low initial vocabulary</td>
<td>.267</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* .02, .13, and .26 are small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively.
Figure 4-1. Mean raw scores on Coyne measure pre- and posttest by group. Measure equals 100 points total. ST – short-term; LT – long-term; II – instructional intervention; C – comparison.

Figure 4-2. Word learning gains displayed as raw score mean difference from pre- to posttest for high and low initial vocabulary subgroups.
The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of a structured framework for vocabulary instruction consisting of a combination of research-supported strategies and implemented for two varying periods. The strategies used in the intervention included multiple readings of a storybook, identifying and explaining the meaning of targeted words, active participation by the student through questioning and discussion, and integration into other classroom activities. The results indicate that the instructional intervention is an effective method of expanding young children’s vocabulary knowledge.

**Effectiveness of the Intervention**

The design of this study called for four group conditions: short-term instructional intervention, long-term instructional intervention, short-term comparison, and long-term comparison. The first two research questions sought information about the effectiveness of each instructional intervention condition over a comparison group of the same implementation period. The data show that the short-term instructional intervention group learned more of the targeted words taught directly than did the short-term comparison group. The same is true for the long-term implementation period, the instructional intervention group learned more words than the comparison group learned. Additionally, the long-term instructional intervention group had a larger effect size when compared to their comparison than did the short-term instructional intervention group. When compared to the standard early literacy curriculum in place in the classrooms, the instructional intervention was more effective for teaching the targeted vocabulary words. In addition, when compared to their own pretest baseline, each instructional intervention group made significant learning gains over the course of their implementation period. The short-term group made gains of a moderate effect size, while gains in the long-term
group were large. The comparison groups did not make significant learning gains of the targeted words.

Beyond determining effectiveness of the intervention when compared to a control, the third research question in this study sought evidence that one implementation period was more effective than the other and how that impacted children’s vocabulary learning. It is clear from the data that students in the long-term instructional intervention group learned more vocabulary than the students in the short-term instructional intervention group. The effect size for this comparison was moderate, although approaching the value for a large effect. There were two key differences between the short- and long-term instruction: the amount of repeated readings of the storybook (two versus four), and the amount extended instruction in using each word correctly and applying it to appropriate situations outside of the context of the book. The finding that the long-term instruction is more effective than the short-term implies that these differences are crucial instructional elements in teaching students how to apply word knowledge to situations. Being able to recite definitions of words is not enough to affect achievement outcomes; a student must be able to recognize appropriate situations in which to apply a word and be able to use it correctly. It seems the long-term implementation period is more effective in fostering this ability in young children.

An important objective of this study was to add clarification as to which combinations of instructional strategies are effective and for how long they should be implemented to see maximum learning outcomes from the students. This study confirms findings of Coyne, McCoach, & Kapp (2007) and Beck and McKeown (2007) in that instruction of targeted words is effective when implemented both during and immediately following a storybook read-aloud, but is even more effective when extended to subsequent days that include re-readings and
additional instruction and discussion about the words. These results quantify extended instruction, twenty-minute instructional sessions for two or four consecutive days, and show that more instructional time truly does generate increased learning.

**Differential Effects of the Intervention**

The fourth research question in this study examined differences in the effectiveness of the intervention on word learning in children with differing initial levels of vocabulary knowledge. There were no significant differences between groups when the participants were divided based on their prior vocabulary levels. That is, when comparing the word learning of students with high initial vocabulary levels to that of students with low initial levels, the intervention did not appear to affect the students’ learning differently.

When each extreme group of participants was examined individually, however, each instructional intervention subgroup did show some evidence of word learning. Both the instructional intervention, *short*-* and long-*term, *high* initial vocabulary groups showed significant learning gains when compared to their own pretest knowledge of the targeted words. These differences also carried a large effect size for both groups. The instructional intervention, *long-*term, *low* initial vocabulary group also made significant learning gains with a large effect size. The instructional intervention, *short-*term, *low* initial vocabulary group made learning gains evident by an increase in their pre- and post-test mean scores, but which did not reach statistical significance. Despite the lack of significance, the learning gains still carried a moderate effect size for the instructional intervention. The statistical results did not find any significant differences between high and low initial vocabulary subgroups that would indicate the presence of Matthew Effects. Close examination of the effect sizes, however, show that both instructional intervention, high initial vocabulary subgroups had larger effect sizes than both the low initial vocabulary groups. This observation suggests that there may be differential effects of
the instructional intervention present that were too small to be detected by the statistical analyses. It is important to note this possibility as those small differences could grow over time preventing the vocabulary gap from closing.

These results suggest that for students with high initial vocabulary levels, both the short-term and the long-term implementation periods are effective, but for students with low initial vocabulary, the long-term implementation makes a larger impact on vocabulary learning. This conclusion may be a key to increasing the rate of vocabulary learning that is crucial for at-risk students. It would take more instructional time to teach targeted words for four days instead of two, but knowing more words leads to increased incidental learning of words making the extra instructional time beneficial to long-term word learning and achievement.

**Implications for Practice**

The primary purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention for the purposes of applying that intervention to instruction in preschool classrooms. Evidence of positive learning outcomes supports the instructional intervention and offers to teachers a structure for storybook read-aloud sessions that addresses goals of an emergent literacy curriculum effectively. The instructional intervention is applicable to any narrative storybook and allows for teacher choice in word selection and application scenarios that would be meaningful to the students. In addition to positive effects on students’ learning, the instructional intervention has potential benefits for teachers as well. Successful implementation of the instructional intervention could have a positive impact on teachers’ practice that leads to improvement of overall quality.

There was a clear difference in the magnitude of the effects between the short-term and the long-term implementation of the intervention. Both were effective to an extent, but the long-term noticeably more so. This presents a decision for preschool teachers when planning to use
this instruction. The choice must be made to teach more words using the short-term implementation option or to teach fewer words using the long-term option, but gaining more complete knowledge of those words on the part of the students. Perhaps the most viable option is for teachers to create a balance using both implementation periods selectively according to the words chosen for instruction and the reasons for choosing those words. This conclusion supports the recommendation of Coyne, McCoach, and Kapp (2007) that a tri-level approach to vocabulary instruction would maximize word learning. In such an approach, teachers would rely on incidental exposure to teach some words, short periods of direct instruction to teach additional words, and longer periods of direct instruction to teach a selection of words that would be the most useful for students. The result would be word learning with both sufficient breadth and depth to support higher level reading outcomes throughout the school years. Teachers should base their decision on the needs of the students, particularly observations of their existing vocabulary knowledge, the likelihood of encountering words frequently in texts and conversations, and on the specific learning objectives for the curriculum.

The failure to find significant differential effects of the intervention indicates that this combination of strategies was effective for children with low initial vocabulary levels. Although it is important to recognize when an intervention affects children differentially, being more effective for students with higher initial vocabulary knowledge and less effective for students with lower initial levels, the most important consideration is whether or not the intervention is effective in any way for those students with greater need. It is not desirable to hold back the students with more vocabulary knowledge in order for the students who are learning at a slower rate to catch up to them. What matters is whether an intervention can help increase the rate at which the students with lower vocabulary knowledge are learning so that they can surpass their
existing trajectory. The real question then becomes, is the strategy successful enough for the students who need it the most? In the present study, both low initial vocabulary groups receiving the instructional intervention made learning gains; increases by the long-term group were statistically significant while the short-term group’s increases were not. There is no way to make a blanket statement that answers the “effective enough” question for all students. Instead, the demand falls to the teacher to compare learning gains, significant or not, to vocabulary learning induced by other instructional strategies. The answer to the question becomes subjective and may have a different answer for any individual child or group of students.

Finally, the feasibility of implementing this instructional intervention in a preschool classroom is an important implication to consider. Comments from the participating teachers during informal conversations with the researcher reveal teacher concerns about the instructional time required to implement the intervention in a curriculum that is already overloaded with policy requirements and standards. Additional concerns were expressed about the training time needed to be able to implement the intervention successfully. It is crucial to realize that the instructional intervention is designed specifically to meet the objectives of an emergent literacy curriculum and that the implementation time needed is worth the outcomes which meet emergent literacy goals for vocabulary and oral language instruction. However, if teachers modify the instructional intervention or the implementation period as it was tested in this study, the learning outcomes may change; the results presented here inform on the effectiveness of the intervention only under the circumstances described and do not account for modifications to the strategies.

Limitations of the Study

There are several important considerations to keep in mind when interpreting the results of this study. Primarily, the participant sample was very small, both in number of intact groups and in number of students within those groups. Due to the constraints on selection of the
participants, the data violated both the assumptions of independence and homogeneity of variances. Efforts were made to account for these violations throughout the statistical analyses, but the results should still be interpreted with caution. In addition, it is possible that the small sample size was a factor in failing to detect Matthew Effects in the data. A replication with a larger sample may provide a clearer picture of whether or not the intervention affected students differently.

A crucial piece of reliability for this study was teacher fidelity to the lesson plans during delivery of the instructional intervention. All teachers were observed for adherence to the plans in an effort to keep the instruction as close to identical as possible throughout the groups. There were no issues of fidelity with the teachers in the long-term instructional intervention groups. The teacher in the short-term instructional intervention group demonstrated some deviation from the lesson plan protocols, but remedied the situation after prompts and additional training from the researcher. All lessons were implemented in full, but the effect of the initial deviation on students’ word learning is unknown.

Also related to the teacher participants is the issue of varying background experiences, educational preparation, and overall teacher quality. All of the teachers in the study had the minimum required credentials to teach a VPK classroom, but some had additional training and experiences beyond the minimum. There was also some variability in scores on the measure of quality used to describe the classroom environments. The teacher with the lowest ELLCO score was in the long-term comparison group condition; there is no way to ascertain if those students’ learning would have been more comparable to the intervention group’s or if there still would have been such a significant effect if the teacher’s level of quality was higher.
Finally, the targeted vocabulary words in this study were presented and taught to students exactly as they are used in the storybooks, any derivational and inflectional affixes were intact and the meaning maintained throughout the instruction of the word. Biemiller (2001, 2003) asserts that vocabulary instruction should focus on direct teaching of root words and should include explicit instruction in creating multiple words using a common root and adding affixes. It is possible that different results would arise if the instructional intervention was adjusted to focus explicitly on root words and the formation of inflectional and derivational forms.

Implications for Future Research

The conclusions drawn from the results of this study generate several questions that can lead future research in a variety of directions. The first consideration should be replication. This specific combination of strategies was effective, but other combinations may be effective as well, or different combinations may be more effective for different groups of students. Replication studies should be conducted to verify the results with larger and varying samples of students. The instructional intervention should be tested with at-risk students and English language learners to ascertain the effectiveness with the unique needs of these groups. A longitudinal study of achievement outcomes arising from consistent long-term (four days) implementation of the intervention would help determine if the intervention would be effective for students on the lower end of the vocabulary gap. With samples of English language learners, it may be important to discover if any correlations exist with students’ level of proficiency in their native language.

The instructional intervention as used in this study draws heavily on the strategies used in Dialogic Reading (Whitehurst, Arnold et al., 1994; Whitehurst, Epstein et al., 1994; Whitehurst et al., 1999; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003) and Text Talk (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). Comparison studies of the instructional intervention and each of these established
methods implemented in their original form could provide further insight into the effectiveness of each strategy within the framework used presently. Results would inform on the efficacy of adjusting the original methods and would allow for comparison between several methods to identify which is the most effective for a particular group of students. Slight differences would allow flexibility and choices for teachers as they customize their teaching to the needs of their students.

Modifications could be made to the instructional intervention to validate the worth of each instructional element as a crucial piece of the framework. The intervention could be applied to expository read-alouds instead of narrative and content area achievement could be evaluated. In addition, the instructional intervention’s impact on other goals of an emergent literacy curriculum could be investigated, such as comprehension and phonological awareness.

In this study, the intervention was implemented in whole group arrangements in each classroom. Whitehurst and colleagues (Whitehurst, Epstein, Angell, Payne, Crone, & Fischel, 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003) claimed their dialogic reading approach was consistently more effective when delivered to small or individual groups of students. Coyne, McCoach and Kapp (2007) also suggest implementation in small groups with at-risk students. The instructional intervention should be evaluated when used with small groups to ascertain differences in outcomes and discern the most effective approach for increasing students’ word learning.

Future studies could also explore how this specific instructional intervention impacts students’ overall word consciousness. In the current study, simply by explicitly highlighting and teaching selected words, teachers noticed in their students an increase in awareness of those words and how and when they are used in both written and oral language. Investigations would
have to systematically measure word consciousness in students to obtain dependable results, but the implications of such results would add to increasing knowledge of how to increase the rate of vocabulary learning for students with low levels of word knowledge. It may be possible that such word consciousness stimulated by explicit instruction in targeted words would generalize to non-targeted words as well. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) include word consciousness as part of their robust vocabulary instruction and Stahl and Nagy (2006) assert that students need to learn many words on their own to maintain their rate of word-learning throughout the school years. It would be important to learn if this instructional intervention would contribute to such independent learning.

Finally, now that the instructional intervention has been evaluated and deemed effective under these circumstances, research should address teachers’ ability to implement this instruction on their own without the support of detailed lesson protocols. To increase the quality of classroom language and literacy environments and overall emergent literacy outcomes, teachers must be able to plan and deliver high-quality instruction on their own. Effective professional development training should be developed to teach preschool teachers how to apply this approach to read-alouds in their classrooms. To do so, wide variations in teacher background, preparation, and quality would have to be addressed and strategies to overcome such differences would need to be employed.

The overall conclusion in this study is that the instructional intervention, as it was implemented in the circumstances presented here, was effective for this sample of students. Research must continue to find ways to close the vocabulary gap instead of merely preventing it from widening. It is crucial to find ways to change the rate of the developmental trajectory of new word learning (Hart & Risley, 1995).
APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENT LETTERS

Teacher Participant Informed Consent
Protocol Title: Effects of Read-Aloud Strategies on Young Children's Vocabulary Learning

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Purpose of the research study:

The purpose of this study is to determine how well certain teaching strategies used during storybook read-alouds work to teach preschool children new vocabulary. The strategies will be taught in classrooms for two different lengths of time to see which period allows for the most learning and the best use of classroom instructional time.

What you will be asked to do in the study:

You will be asked to attend one initial meeting (about 45 minutes long) with the researcher to explain the study purpose and procedures. Then you will be asked to allow a researcher from the University of Florida to do an observation assessment in your classroom. The assessment includes a brief, 10-minute interview at the end. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. You will be asked to distribute parental consent letters to the parents of the students in your class for participation in the study as well. You will be asked to allow the researcher to give your students two vocabulary tests, once at the beginning of the study and once at the end. The vocabulary tests will take about 20 minutes per student. After this point you will be assigned randomly to one of two groups.

If you are in the first group, you will be asked to attend one, three-hour training session to learn and practice certain teaching strategies to be used in the study. The meeting and the training session will both occur at your center. After training, you will be asked to implement those teaching strategies during read-aloud sessions in your classroom four days a week for a period of either four weeks or eight weeks. The researcher will provide you with the books to read, detailed lesson plans to teach, and complete instructions. You will be asked to allow the researcher to observe you teaching those lessons up to three times.

If you are in the second group, you will be asked to distribute parental consent letters to the parents of the students in your class for participation in the study as well. You will be asked to allow the researcher to give your students two vocabulary tests, once at the beginning of the study and once at the end. Then you will be asked to read certain storybooks during read-aloud sessions in your classroom four days a week for a period of either four weeks or eight weeks. The researcher will provide you with the books to read and a schedule of when to read them. You will be asked to allow the researcher to observe you reading up to three times. At the end of the study, you will be asked to attend one, three-hour training session to learn and practice specific teaching strategies that can be used with storybook read-alouds.

Time required:

The entire study will span approximately 5 months, February 2009 to June 2009. The one-time, initial meeting will last up to 45 minutes. The researcher will need about two weeks to test the students in your class. The one-time training session will last up to three hours. The read-aloud lessons you will be asked to implement will be approximately 20 minutes long and will occur four days a week for either four or eight weeks. After all the lessons are complete, the researcher will need about two weeks to test the students in your class again.
Risks and Benefits:

There are no anticipated risks to participating in this study. You will benefit directly from the training in the instructional strategies (either at the beginning or at the end of the study) and will be able to use them in your classroom immediately after the training session. You will also build your knowledge about effective vocabulary teaching.

Compensation:

All the lesson plans will be yours to keep with the freedom to use them in your classroom throughout your career and to share them with colleagues at the end of the study. (If you are in the second group, you will receive the lesson plans at the end of the study.) You may also keep the books for your personal collection. At the end of the study, you will be presented with a gift card in the amount of $25.00 to your choice of either a bookstore or a restaurant.

Confidentiality:

Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Your information will be assigned an identification number. The list connecting your name to this number will be kept in a locked file in my faculty supervisor’s office. When the study is completed and the data have been analyzed, the list will be destroyed. Your name will not be used in any report and you will not be videotaped or audio taped at any point.

Voluntary participation:

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating and you do not have to answer any questions you do not wish to answer.

Right to withdraw from the study:

You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study:

Caitlin Gallingane, Graduate Student, School of Teaching and Learning, College of Education
2216 Norman Hall, phone: (352) 392-9191 ext. 249, email: caitling@ufl.edu

Dr. Christie Cavanaugh, Ph.D., School of Teaching and Learning, College of Education
2201 Norman Hall, phone: (352) 392-9191 ext. 285, email: clcavanaugh@coe.ufl.edu

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in the study:
IRB02 Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250; phone: 392-0433

Agreement:

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in Caitlin Gallingane’s study of vocabulary instruction and I have received a copy of this description.

Participant: ____________________________ Date: ________________

Principal Investigator: _______________________ Date: ________________
Dear Parent/Guardian,

I am a graduate student in the School of Teaching and Learning at the University of Florida, conducting research on vocabulary instruction with preschool children under the supervision of Dr. Christie Cavanaugh and Dr. Kristen Kemple. The purpose of this study is to determine how well certain teaching strategies work when used during storybook read-alouds to teach preschool children new vocabulary. The results of this study may help preschool teachers more effectively teach vocabulary when they read storybooks to their students. It may also help them make the best use of their classroom time that is available for instruction. These results may not directly help your child today, but may benefit future students. With your permission, I would like to ask your child to volunteer for this research.

Half of the participating children will be in classrooms in which I have trained the teacher to use specific strategies to teach vocabulary during regularly-scheduled storybook read-aloud sessions. The teachers will read 8 books to their students and use those strategies during the read-aloud sessions. The other half of the participating children’s teachers will read the same books during read-aloud sessions, but will not be taught the strategies until after the study is over. The books have been selected based on reviews and awards they have received, as well as the length and complexity of the story. The teachers will spend 20 minutes a day, four days a week, for either four weeks or eight weeks, reading the selected books to their students. Before the first book is read, I will ask the children to take two vocabulary tests, which ask them to tell me what they know about words and to point to pictures that represent word meanings. The tests take about 20 minutes total. After the last book is read, I will ask the children to take one of the vocabulary tests again. All of the instruction will be given in your child’s regular classroom by the regular teacher. The vocabulary tests will be given by myself or an early childhood education student whom I have trained to give the tests. They will take place in a quiet corner of your child’s classroom or in an adjoining room and your child will be able to complete all the activities they miss. The testing and the instruction will occur beginning in February and will last until June at the latest. Your child’s identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Their names will be replaced with code numbers on all testing forms and results will only be reported in the form of group data. Your child will not be videotaped or audio taped at any time. Participation or non-participation in this study will not affect the children’s grades or placement in any programs. Students who do not participate in the study will still receive the instruction as part of the regular classroom instruction, but will not participate in the vocabulary tests.

You and your child have the right to withdraw consent for your child’s participation at any time without consequence. There are no known risks or immediate benefits to the participants. No compensation is offered for participation. Group results of this study will be available in August upon request. If you have any questions about this research protocol, please contact me at 392-9191 ext. 249 or my faculty supervisors, Dr. Cavanaugh, at 392-9191 ext. 285, and Dr. Kemple, at 392-9191 ext. 250. Questions or concerns about your child’s rights as a research participant may be directed to the IRB02 office, University of Florida, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611, (352) 392-0433.

Thank you,
Caitlin Gallingane

I have read the procedure described above and I have received a copy of this description.

☐ I voluntarily agree to allow my child, _____________________, to participate in Caitlin Gallingane’s vocabulary instruction research study. My child’s birthday is: ________________________.

☐ I do not wish for my child, _____________________, to participate in Caitlin Gallingane’s vocabulary instruction research study.

________________________________________  _______________________________________
Parent / Guardian               Date  2nd Parent / Witness      Date
Dear Parent/Guardian,

I am a graduate student in the School of Teaching and Learning at the University of Florida, conducting research on vocabulary instruction with preschool children under the supervision of Dr. Christie Cavanaugh and Dr. Kristen Kemple. The purpose of this study is to determine how well certain teaching strategies work when used during storybook read-alouds to teach preschool children new vocabulary. The results of this study may help preschool teachers more effectively teach vocabulary when they read storybooks to their students. It may also help them make the best use of their classroom time that is available for instruction. These results may not directly help your child today, but may benefit future students. With your permission, I would like to ask your child to volunteer for this research.

The children in the pilot study group will be asked to take a vocabulary test which asks them to tell me what they know about words and to point to pictures that represent word meanings.

The vocabulary test will be given by myself or an early childhood education student whom I have trained to give the tests. They will take place in a quiet corner of your child’s classroom or in an adjoining room and your child will be able to complete all the activities they miss. The testing will be a one-time session lasting about 20 minutes, which will occur in February. Your child’s identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Their name will not be placed on any of the testing materials. The researcher will simply check their name on a class list to indicate that they took the test. Your child will not be videotaped or audio taped at any time. Participation or non-participation in this study will not affect the children’s grades or placement in any programs.

You and your child have the right to withdraw consent for your child’s participation at any time without consequence. There are no known risks or immediate benefits to the participants. No compensation is offered for participation. Group results of this study will be available in August upon request. If you have any questions about this research protocol, please contact me at 392-9191 ext. 249 or my faculty supervisors, Dr. Cavanaugh, at 392-9191 ext. 285, and Dr. Kemple, at 392-9191 ext. 250. Questions or concerns about your child’s rights as a research participant may be directed to the IRB02 office, University of Florida, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611, (352) 392-0433.

Thank you,
Caitlin Gallingane

I have read the procedure described above and I have received a copy of this description.

☐ I voluntarily agree to allow my child, ________________________, to participate in Caitlin Gallingane’s vocabulary instruction research study. My child’s birthday is: ________________________.

☐ I do not wish for my child, ________________________, to participate in Caitlin Gallingane’s vocabulary instruction research study.

________________________________________  _______________________________________
Parent / Guardian               Date  2nd Parent / Witness      Date
APPENDIX B
COYNE VOCABULARY MEASURE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Code #</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Test Administrator</th>
<th>Total Score (out of 100)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I’m going to ask you about some words.
If I said, “What is a cat?” you could say, “A cat is an animal that says meow.”
If I said, “What does a cat like to do?” you could say, “A cat likes to chase mice.”
Let’s try some.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response (verbatim)</th>
<th>Points Awarded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What does <em>morsel</em> mean?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you decide what a morsel is?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point to the morsel of food. (show stimulus sheet 2)</td>
<td>Cake</td>
<td>Plate of Stir-Fry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What does <em>prowling</em> mean?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What does prowling look like?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point to the one who is prowling. (show stimulus sheet 3)</td>
<td>Dog</td>
<td>Horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

97
3. What does **gathered** mean?

What did someone do if they gathered?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point to the person who gathered something. (show stimulus sheet 4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spilled Milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throwing Stone</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. What does **clutching** mean?

What are you doing if you are clutching something?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point to the person who is clutching something. (show stimulus sheet 5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child with Umbrella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roller Coaster</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. What does **smudged** mean?

What does something that is smudged look like?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point to the picture of something that is smudged. (show stimulus sheet 6)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stained Glass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What does <strong>remedies</strong> mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would you use remedies for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point to the remedies. (show stimulus sheet 7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**7. What does <strong>bulged</strong> mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What does something that has bulged look like?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point to the item that has bulged. (show stimulus sheet 9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**8. What does <strong>refused</strong> mean?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What did someone do if they refused something?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point to the person who just refused something? (show stimulus sheet 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. What does **wail** mean?

- What do you do when you wail?

| Point to the person who might wail. (show stimulus sheet 11) | Kids with Ice Cream | Laughing Boy |
| | Yelling Girl | Crying Girl |

10. What does **prefer** mean?

- What would you do to show what you prefer?

| Point to the person who is showing what they prefer. (show stimulus sheet 12) | Girl Choosing Book | Teacher with Student |
| | Group in Circle | Boy on Phone |

11. What does **scold** mean?

- What does someone do if they scold?

| Point to the person who is about to scold. (show stimulus sheet 13) | Clapping | Cheerleaders |
| | Mother Scolding Child | Discussion |
12. What does **crisp** mean?

What does something feel like if it is crisp?

Point to the item that could be crisp.  
(show stimulus sheet 14)  
| Puppy | Paper Airplane |
| Beach | Blanket |

13. What does **announced** mean?

What did someone do if they announced something?

Point to the person who has just announced.  
(show stimulus sheet 15)  
| Girl Reading | Boy on Bike |
| Girls Whispering | Man at Podium |

14. What does **stream** mean?

How do you know if something is a stream?

Point to the stream.  
(show stimulus sheet 17)  
| Stream | Glass |
| Lake | Mountain |
15. What does **suffering** mean?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swimming</th>
<th>Eating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crying</td>
<td>Yawning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why might someone be suffering?

Point to the person who is suffering. (show stimulus sheet 18)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swimming</th>
<th>Eating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crying</td>
<td>Yawning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. What does **drift** mean?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Runners</th>
<th>Innertubes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyclist</td>
<td>Water Skier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What does it look like to drift?

Point to the one that might drift. (show stimulus sheet 19)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Runners</th>
<th>Innertubes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyclist</td>
<td>Water Skier</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. What does **discouraged** mean?

How do you know if someone is discouraged?

Point to the person who is feeling discouraged. (show stimulus sheet 20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Squinting Girl</th>
<th>Girl Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woman with Head in Hands</td>
<td>Scared Girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. What does <strong>material</strong> mean?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you use material for?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bricks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. What does <strong>soared</strong> mean?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What did something do if it soared?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. What does <strong>examine</strong> mean?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would you do to examine something?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading to Class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Score: [ ]
APPENDIX C
INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTION BOOKS AND TARGETED WORDS


- prowling
- wail
- drift


- material
- scold
- clutching


- soared
- smudged
- crisp


- gathered
- prefer
- discouraged


- examine
- announced
- remedies


- suffering
- refused
- morsel


- stream
- bulged
APPENDIX D
INSTRUCTIONAL PROTOCOLS

Book 1: Carrot Soup

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day 1</th>
<th>Materials Needed:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word cards: gathered, prefer, discouraged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Picture cards: cake, ice cream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Box of manipulatives of any kind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Introduce the Book**

We have a new story that we are going to read and talk about all week. The title is Carrot Soup. The author *and* the illustrator is John Segal; he wrote the words *and* he drew the pictures for this story.

Now, I see a rabbit on the front of this book and that gives me an idea what this book might be about. What do you think might happen in this story?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

That’s a great idea! Does someone want to add to that?

What else might happen?

**Identify the Words**

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words.

1. The first word is ‘gathered’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘gathered’ with me. ‘Gathered’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘prefer’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘prefer’ with me. ‘Prefer’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

3. The last word is ‘discouraged’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘discouraged’ with me. ‘Discouraged’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘gathered, prefer, and discouraged,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

**Read the Book**

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

When asking questions during the story, accept answers from as many students as you can. Rephrase and repeat students’ answers to reinforce them. Ask follow-up questions to encourage extended thinking.
[pg. 6] What is Rabbit waiting for? What makes you think a plant is going to grow? What kind of plant will it be? What might Rabbit do with the carrots after they grow?

[pg. 8] I see a thumbs-up from [students’ names]! What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘gathered,’ great job! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘gathered’ in it]. Why does Rabbit need his tools?

[pg. 16] Does anyone have an idea what happened to the carrots? Why do you think that? Can someone add to that idea?

[pg. 20] I see thumbs-up again! Which word did you hear this time? You heard the word ‘prefer,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘prefer’ in it]. Which food do you like better, fish or carrots? Why do you like (fish/carrots) better?

[pg. 24] You heard our last word, what was it? Yes, you heard ‘discouraged.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘discouraged’ in it]. How is Rabbit feeling right now? Why does he feel that way? How do you know that?

[pg. 26] Here comes Rabbit! [point to Rabbit through the window]. What is he going to find when he opens the door? So, what happened to the carrots that were missing from the garden? Why did his friends take them?

[pg. 28] What does Rabbit think about the surprise from his friends? How does he feel now?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

**Teach the Words and How to Use Them**

1. This is the word ‘gathered’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘gathered’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Gathered’ means when someone has collected lots of things into one place. In our story, “Rabbit gathered his tools and his wheelbarrow, and off he went.”

He was going to pick the carrots that had grown in his garden and he needed a lot of tools to do that. His tools were probably all put away in his closet or his shed, so he needed to get them all and put them in his wheelbarrow to take to his garden. So, we could also say, Rabbit collected lots of his tools into one place and off he went.

I have gathered things before and you probably have too. If I was playing with these [manipulatives] and spilled them all over the floor, when it was time to clean up, I would collect them and put them all back into one place, their box. Then I could say I gathered them. [Demonstrate spilling some manipulatives and gathering them up back in their box.]
Another time I gathered something was when I was going to the library. I had to go all through my house and get all the library books that I had. Some were in the kitchen, some were in my bedroom and some were in the living room. I collected them and put them all into a bag so that I could take them back to the library. I gathered all the library books.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘gathered in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘prefer’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘prefer’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Prefer’ means that someone likes one thing better than another thing. When you make a choice and pick the thing you like the best, you are showing what you prefer. In our story, Duck says, “I prefer fish to carrots.”

Rabbit has asked Duck about the missing carrots, which are food that you can eat. Duck thinks that he doesn’t like carrots very much and that he likes fish a lot more. So when Rabbit asked him if he had seen the carrots, Duck shows what he likes the best and chooses fish instead of carrots. He does that by saying, “I prefer fish to carrots.”

I like to make choices too and show what I prefer. If you show me this picture of an ice cream cone and this picture of a piece of cake, I would choose the cake because that is what I like better. I would show that I prefer the cake by pointing to it. [Have 2 students hold the pictures for you and demonstrate making your choice.]

I had to go to the doctor’s office once and I had to wait to see her. I thought to myself, “what would I like to do while I’m waiting?” I like to read better than I like to listen to music, so I thought, “I prefer to read,” and I got book out of my bag.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘prefer’ in unison with the students.]

3. This is the word ‘discouraged’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘discouraged’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Discouraged’ describes how you feel when you’ve been trying really hard to do something and you can’t do it and so you give up. It can describe how you feel when you are hoping and hoping that something will happen, and then it doesn’t and you aren’t excited about it anymore. Sometimes you can feel very sad when you feel discouraged.

Our story says, “Discouraged and disappointed, Rabbit went home.” Rabbit was trying so hard to find his carrots and he hoped that his friends could help him, but no one did. So he gave up looking for the carrots and he wasn’t excited about making carrot soup anymore.
This is what you might look like when you feel discouraged. [Demonstrate a discouraged expression; sigh; hunch your shoulders forward; put your head in your hands.] Everybody show me what you look like when you are discouraged.

I was discouraged once when I lost a piece of one of my puzzles and I looked everywhere for it and I couldn’t find it, so I felt discouraged and I stopped looking. Another time, I was playing basketball and I kept trying to throw the ball in the basket and I missed every time. I felt very discouraged that day and I didn’t want to play anymore.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘discouraged’ in unison with the students.]

**Extend Throughout the Week**

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.

2. At the beginning of an art activity, say, “Let’s gather the materials we will need to do this project.

3. During center clean-up, say, “Please gather your toys and the materials you are working with and put them away.” If a student doesn’t want to clean up yet, say, “I know you wanted to finish what you were working on and you feel discouraged that you ran out of time. You can set it aside and work on it again this afternoon.”

4. When leaving the playground before lunch, say, “I just gathered all my children so we can go to the bathrooms and then go eat lunch together.”

5. At lunchtime, ask several students, “Which kind of sandwich do you prefer?”

6. In the writing center, suggest the students write a story about a time they were discouraged.
**Re-Introduce the Book**

Remember the book we read yesterday, *Carrot Soup*? Tell me something you remember from the story? Who was the story about? What was Rabbit doing in the story?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

**Re-Identify the Words**

Yesterday, we talked about three new words, ‘gathered, prefer, and discouraged.’

1. This is the word ‘gathered.’ Say ‘gathered’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘prefer.’ Say ‘prefer’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

3. This is the word ‘discouraged.’ Say ‘discouraged’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

**Re-Read the Book**

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 8] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘gathered.’ If Rabbit gathered his tools, what did he do with them? Where is he taking them?

[pg. 12] What happened to all the carrots? What is Rabbit going to do next?

[pg. 20] Yes, I see another thumbs-up from everyone! What word did you hear this time? Yes, you heard ‘prefer.’ What does Duck mean when he says, “I prefer fish to carrots?” Who did take all of Rabbit’s carrots? How do you know that?

[pg. 22] Where are all the carrots right now? What did the Rabbit’s friends do with them?

[pg. 24] I see more thumbs-up which means you heard our last word! What word was it? Yes, you heard ‘discouraged.’ Describe how Rabbit feels right now.

[pg. 26] How is Rabbit going to feel when he opens that door?
[pg. 28] What is Rabbit thinking now that he sees the surprise? Do you think he still feels discouraged? Why not?

Great listening! You noticed all three of our new words.

**Review the Words**

1. Here is the word ‘gathered’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘gathered’ means to pick up or collect lots of things into one place. In the story, Rabbit gathered all of his tools to take to the garden.

2. This is the word ‘prefer’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘prefer’ means that you like something better than something else. Duck says that he prefers to eat fish instead of carrots. He likes fish better.

3. Here is the word ‘discouraged’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘discouraged’ means that you feel like you want to give up on trying to do something, or that you’re disappointed that something isn’t going to happen. In the story, Rabbit felt discouraged when he realized he wasn’t going to get to eat carrot soup because all the carrots were missing.

Now, let’s talk about each of our words.

**Discuss the Words and How to Use Them**

1. Yesterday, I said that I gathered library books from all around my house when I needed to take them back to the library. Now, someone tell me about a time when you gathered something.

   [Ask follow-up questions based on the students’ answers as needed to make connections about the word for the students. Take answers from 3-4 students.]

   So what did you collect? Where did you put them? What were you going to do with them?

2. When we talked about the word ‘prefer,’ I said that I prefer cake instead of ice cream and I prefer reading instead of listening to music.

   Now you try it. I’ll say some things and you tell me which you would prefer to do. You can say, “I would prefer to…”

   Which would you prefer…
   … to go swimming or to get a shot?
   … to play with blocks or dolls?
   … to clean the house or go to the playground?
   … to eat an apple or a banana?
   … to watch a movie or ride your bike?
3. For the word ‘discouraged,’ I said that I couldn’t find a puzzle piece even though I’d been looking very hard; and I couldn’t make a basket when I was playing basketball. Those things made me feel very discouraged.

Now, I’ll say some things and if they would make you feel discouraged, say, “I’d be discouraged.” If not, don’t say anything.
  – losing the baseball game
  – watching a movie with your friends
  – dropping your cookie on the ground
  – hoping to go to the pool, but then it started raining
  – getting a card in the mail
  – missing the bus

* Now let’s think about all 3 of our new words: gathered, prefer, and discouraged.
  – Which word goes with “giving up?”
  – Which word goes with “making a choice?”
  – Which word goes with “pick everything up?”
  – Would you prefer to feel discouraged or excited?

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Day 3

Materials Needed: Word cards: gathered, prefer, discouraged
Picture cards: people gathering items

Re-Introduce the Book

Let’s read Carrot Soup again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘gathered’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘prefer’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
3. ‘discouraged’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word].

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘gathered / prefer / discouraged!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

Our first word is ‘gathered’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘gathered’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

The next word is ‘prefer’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘prefer’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]
And now the word ‘discouraged.’ Tell us what ‘discouraged’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.

Here are some pictures of people who gathered things. [Show each picture card and tell what each person is gathering in the picture.]

Now, tell me which of these things we could gather:
Could we gather…
... dishes? [For each of these possibilities, after the students answer ‘yes’ or ‘no,’ ask what might be happening or why we would be gathering those items.]
... toys?
... books?
... people?
... flowers?

When would you prefer to go swimming, when it’s hot or when it’s cold? Tell me why.
Do you prefer shoes with laces or Velcro? Tell me why.
Which sport do you prefer to play/watch? Why?

[Take comments from as many students as possible. Prompt students to say, “I would prefer…” in their answer.]

Now think about the word ‘discouraged.’ What would someone look like if they were discouraged? [Prompt students to demonstrate.] What would you say to someone who feels discouraged?

Excellent job talking about our words today!

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Today we are going to read Carrot Soup one more time.

Re-Identify the Words

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

Which of these things could be gathered by a squirrel?
- Acorns
- Pennies
- Candy
- Nuts
- Leaves
- Shoes

What are some things around our homes or our classroom that we could gather? [Take students’ suggestions.] What would you use them for?

Now, I’m going to ask you about what things you prefer, but I don’t want you to tell me, I want you to show me with a signal.
- If you prefer apples, touch your toes and if you prefer bananas, raise your hands over your head. Ready? Do you prefer apples or bananas?
- If you prefer swimming, touch your toes and if you prefer riding a bike, raise your hands over your head. Ready? Do you prefer swimming or riding a bike?
- If you prefer going to the movies, touch your toes and if you prefer going to the library, raise your hands over your head. Ready? Do you prefer the movies or the library?
Now think about the word ‘discouraged.’ Tell us about a time when you felt discouraged. What happened that made you feel that way? What made you feel better?

Let’s think about all of our words together.
- Is prefer more like giving or choosing?
- Would you say, “keep trying, I know you can do it,” to a person who was discouraged or a person who gathered?

Excellent work with our words today! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Introduction to Book

Our story today is *Doctor De Soto*. The author *and* the illustrator is William Steig; he wrote the words *and* he drew the pictures for this story.

This is Doctor De Soto on the cover of this book. Look at the things you see around him in this picture. What kind of Doctor do you think Doctor De Soto is? What kinds of problems do the people have who come to see him? What can Doctor De Soto do to help them?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Identify the Words

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words.

1. The first word is ‘suffering’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘suffering’ with me. ‘Suffering’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘refused’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘refused’ with me. ‘Refused’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

3. The last word is ‘morsel’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘morsel’ with me. ‘Morsel’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘suffering, refused, and morsel,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

Read the Book

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

When asking questions during the story, accept answers from as many students as you can. Rephrase and repeat students’ answers to reinforce them. Ask follow-up questions to encourage extended thinking.

[pg. 2] Why does Doctor De Soto need different ways of reaching his patients’ mouths? What were the ways he used?

[pg. 4] Why is he such a good dentist for very big animals?
I see a thumbs-up from [students’ names]! What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘refused,’ great job! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘refused’ in it].

Doctor De Soto doesn’t let in any animals that are dangerous to mice; that means any animals that might try to eat him or Mrs. De Soto. Which animals do they need to be worried about? [accept suggestions from students and confirm or correct their answers as needed; provide these additional examples if no students mention them: cats, owls, foxes, hawks]

I see thumbs-up again! Which word did you hear this time? You heard the word ‘suffering,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘suffering’ in it]. Why is the fox crying? Why won’t Doctor De Soto let him in the office?

You heard our last word, what was it? Yes, you heard ‘morsel.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘morsel’ in it]. If foxes like to eat mice and Doctor De Soto is standing in the fox’s mouth to fix his tooth, what is the fox probably thinking about? What are Dr. and Mrs. De Soto probably thinking about?

Why did Doctor De Soto put a pole in the fox’s mouth?

The fox is going to come back to the office tomorrow. What are Dr. and Mrs. De Soto worrying about? What could they do to keep the fox from eating them?

So, the fox is planning to eat Dr. and Mrs. De Soto; when is he going to do it?

Can the fox eat them now? What did Doctor De Soto do to keep the fox from eating them? Did it work?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

**Teach the Words and How to Use Them**

1. This is the word ‘refused’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘refused’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Refused’ is when someone does not do what someone else wants them to do. They say “No!” and sometimes cross their arms or turn away. Even if you try to talk them into it, they still say “no” and they won’t do it no matter what. In our story, “Doctor De Soto refused to treat animals dangerous to mice.”

Doctor DeSoto didn’t want to be near any animals that might eat him or Mrs. De Soto, so he decided that he was not going to let any of those animals come to his dentist office. He made that a rule and even wrote the rule on the sign by his door. So, we could also say, Doctor De Soto did not let in any animals dangerous to mice; he wouldn’t fix their teeth.
When you see someone who has refused to do something, you can usually tell just by looking at them. Someone might cross their arms or stamp their feet. They might have their lips pressed together very tightly and they could have a mad look on their face. Sometimes they might turn around and show their back to someone. [Demonstrate what refusing could look like.]

Some things that people might refuse to do are to eat certain foods, or to clean up their toys when they are supposed to. Those are times when it’s not okay to refuse something. Other times it can be okay to refuse. If someone wanted you to jump in the swimming pool with your clothes on, but you said, “no,” and you didn’t do it, then you just refused. If your stomach was stuffed full after dinner and dessert and someone wanted to give you another piece of cake and you said, “no thank you, I already ate one piece,” then you just refused.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘refused’ in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘suffering’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘suffering’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Suffering’ means that someone is feeling very, very sad or hurt. They might have a sore or a boo-boo that is painful or they could have hurt themselves very badly. They also might be feeling very sad for some reason. When someone is crying or if their face looks like they are hurting really badly, then they are probably suffering. In our story, the fox cries to Dr. De Soto and says, “I’m suffering!”

The fox has a tooth that is rotten and is hurting his mouth really badly. It is hurting so badly that the fox probably can’t eat anything and it’s probably making his whole head hurt. He is crying because it hurts so badly and he really wants Dr. De Soto to fix his tooth for him. So when Dr. De Soto says he can’t come in, the fox cries out, “I’m suffering!” to tell Dr. De Soto that his tooth is hurting very, very much.

I remember a time when I was suffering. I fell down and twisted my ankle. It hurt so badly that I started to cry. My ankle swelled up and it got so big that I couldn’t put my shoe on. It hurt a lot and I couldn’t walk on my foot for a week! I had to sit in a chair with my foot up on a stool. I was really suffering from my twisted ankle. You could tell I was suffering because my face looked like I was hurting and I was crying. I also reached down and held my ankle after I fell because it was so sore. [Demonstrate what you might look like when you are suffering.]

Another time, I saw someone suffering because her mom had to go on a trip and she had to stay with a babysitter. She was very sad and she missed her mom a lot. The whole time her mom was gone, she had a sad look on her face and sometimes she cried. I could tell she was suffering because she looked so sad.

Now show me what you might look like if you were suffering.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘suffering’ in unison with the students.]
3. This is the word ‘morsel’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘morsel’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Morsel’ is a piece of food that is very small, just small enough to be one bite. You could put the whole thing into your mouth at once because it is so small. And usually a morsel is a piece of food that would taste very good, like a treat.

Our story says, “…he had a tasty little morsel in his mouth and his jaw began to quiver.” While Dr. De Soto was in the fox’s mouth, the fox started thinking that he likes to eat mice and that’s a treat to a fox. Dr. De Soto is very small compared to the fox and the fox could probably eat him in one bite. So, since Dr. De Soto would be a very small piece of food for the fox and because he would be a treat for the fox to eat, the story says that Dr. De Soto is a tasty little ‘morsel’ and that the fox’s jaw starts to quiver because he wants to eat him.

When we think about a morsel of food would be for us, we need to think of something small, just one bite or crumb, and something that would taste very good. These are some pictures of morsels of food. [Display each picture card as you name them.] This is a cookie, a small piece of break, some M&M’s and some chocolate chips. Each of these could be called a morsel. This is a big piece of cake. Could you eat this in one bite? No, this is not a morsel.

I was looking for a snack yesterday after school and I just wanted a morsel of something, so I decided to have some raisins because they are small and taste sweet.

What was the word we are learning about? [Say ‘morsel’ in unison with the students.]

Extend Throughout the Week

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.

2. After center clean-up time, say, “thank you for cleaning up; I am happy that no one refused to put away their materials.”

3. During lunchtime, ask the students to show you one morsel of what they are eating. Ask them to imagine what morsel they would like to have for dessert.

4. In the writing center, prompt the students to write a story about someone who is suffering and how they could help them.
Re-Introduce the Book

Remember the book we read yesterday, Doctor De Soto? Tell me something you remember from the story? Who was the story about? What was wrong with the fox?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Yesterday, we talked about three new words, ‘refused, suffering, morsel.’

1. This is the word ‘refused.’ Say ‘refused’ with me.  [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘suffering.’ Say ‘suffering’ with me.  [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

3. This is the word ‘morsel.’ Say ‘morsel’ with me.  [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

Re-Read the Book

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 5] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘refused.’ Why wouldn’t Dr. De Soto treat animals who were dangerous to mice? What would he say to them?

[pg. 8] Yes, I see another thumbs-up from everyone! What word did you hear this time? Yes, you heard ‘suffering.’ Why does the fox say that he is suffering? What do you see that shows that the fox is suffering?

[pg.13] I see more thumbs-up which means you heard our last word! What word was it? Yes, you heard ‘morsel.” Why would Dr. De Soto be a morsel for the fox?

[pg. 18] Doctor De Soto is thinking about the fox coming back tomorrow to get his tooth fixed. He is planning to let the fox come in again. Should he change his mind? Why or why not?

[pg. 22] Do you think the fox should eat Dr. De Soto? Why or why not?
Great listening! You noticed all three of our new words.

Review the Words

1. Here is the word ‘refused’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘refused’ means that someone will not do what someone else wants them to do. In the story, Doctor De Soto refused to take care of animals who were dangerous to mice. He wouldn’t let them in because he didn’t want them to hurt him.

2. This is the word ‘suffering’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘suffering’ means that you are hurting a lot, maybe because you hurt yourself and are in pain, or because you are very sad. The fox is suffering because his rotten tooth hurts so bad that his whole head hurts.

3. Here is the word ‘morsel’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘morsel’ means a very small piece of food that is really good. It is a piece that you could eat in just one bite that would be a treat. In the story, the fox thinks that Doctor De Soto is a morsel because he is small enough for the fox to eat in one bite and the fox thinks that he would be really yummy.

Now, let’s talk about each of our words.

Discuss the Words and How to Use Them

1. If you refused something, that means that you would not do it, no matter what. Which of these things would you refuse to do? Answer by saying, “I’d refuse” or “I would do that.”

   – go to the playground
   – eat a bug
   – wear a dress [note the different answers students may give for this one]
   – walk in the rain
   – take a bath
   – go to the grocery store with your mom

[discuss whether or not it’s okay to refuse each of these things]

2. When we talked about the word ‘suffering,’ I said that if someone is suffering, they are hurting a lot or they are really sad. Tell me why or why not you think these kids are suffering:

   ~ Beth was suffering outside in the snow because…
   ~ Alex was suffering through the long car ride because…
   ~ Javon was suffering through the long, boring concert because…
   ~ Nalani was not suffering at the toy store because…
3. For the word ‘morsel,’ I showed you pictures of a cookie, some M&M’s and some chocolate chips. Those were all very small, yummy pieces of food.

Now, I’ll say some things and if they would be a morsel too, say, “That’s a morsel.” If not, don’t say anything.
- one cheerio
- a turkey dinner
- a cookie crumb
- a scoop of mashed potatoes
- a pitcher of lemonade
- a strawberry

* Now let’s think about all 3 of our new words: refused, suffering, and morsel.
- Which word goes with “small?”
- Which word goes with “saying no?”
- Which word goes with “hurt?”
- Would you prefer to eat a morsel or a vegetable?

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
**Re-Introduce the Book**

Let’s read *Doctor De Soto* again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

**Re-Identify the Words**

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘refused’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘suffering’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
3. ‘morsel’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word].

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

**Re-Read the Book**

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘refused / suffering / morsel!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

**Review and Discuss the Words**

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

1. Our first word is ‘refused’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘refused’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

2. The next word is ‘suffering’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘suffering’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]
3. And now the word ‘morsel.’ Tell us what ‘morsel’ means.
   [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.

1. If you refused means you said no and would not do something. Tell me why you might refuse to do these things:

   Why would you refuse to…
   … walk in the snow with your bare feet?
   … pick up all the toys by yourself?
   … wear a sweater in the summer?
   … stop reading your book in the middle?
   … lay in the grass?
   … eat cold spaghetti noodles?

2. Let’s talk about the word ‘suffering.’

   – Is suffering a way you might feel or a way you might move?
   – Is suffering more like being really cold or being really happy?
   – If your sick, are you more likely to be floating or suffering?

   What is something you could say to someone who is suffering?

   Now tell me about a time when you were suffering. What happened? What made you feel better? [Take comments from as many students as possible and give feedback as needed.]

3. Now think about the word ‘morsel.’ What are some other things that are a morsel of food? [take suggestions from students] Good!

   Now, finish my sentences for me:

   ~ Jasmine’s mother wasn’t worried about her eating a morsel before dinner because…
   ~ Luis wouldn’t eat just one more morsel because…
   ~ Danny and Sara wanted deserts that were different sizes, so Danny took a morsel and Sara took …

   Excellent job talking about our words today!

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
**Re-Introduce the Book**

Today we are going to read *Doctor De Soto* one more time.

**Re-Identify the Words**

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?  
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

**Re-Read the Book**

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

**Review and Discuss the Words**

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

1. Finish each sentence:
   - Maria refused to pick up the wet leaves in the yard because…
   - My mom gave me a choice: I could either refuse to go to the store with her or I could…
   - Jacob could not refuse the present from his brother because…
   - Ming-Ju refused to eat her dinner so she…

2. Would you be suffering if you…
   - … got a high-five?
   - … gave someone a hug?  *Why or why not?*
   - … had a headache?
   - … scraped your knee?
   - … were at a party?
   - … broke your leg?
   - … lost your dog?
   - … ate too much food?
3. Now think about the word ‘morsel.’ If you could have just one morsel of something for dessert, what would it be? Would you rather have just a morsel of your favorite dessert or a whole plateful of something else?

Excellent work with our words today! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Day 1 Materials Needed:  Word cards: soared, smudged, crisp  
Picture cards: eagle, airplane, parachute, potato chips, celery  
Paper and pencil OR white board and dry erase marker

**Introduce the Book**

Our story today is *dear juno*. The author is Soyung Pak, she wrote the words for this story. The illustrator is Susan Kathleen Hartung, she drew the pictures.

This is Juno on the cover of this book. What is he holding in his hand? Who could the letter be from? Who has another idea? What are some reasons we would send a letter to someone?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

**Identify the Words**

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words.

1. The first word is ‘soared’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘soared’ with me. ‘Soared’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘smudged’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘smudged’ with me. ‘Smudged’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

3. The last word is ‘crisp’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘crisp’ with me. ‘Crisp’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘soared, smudged, and crisp,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

**Read the Book**

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

When asking questions during the story, accept answers from as many students as you can. Rephrase and repeat students’ answers to reinforce them. Ask follow-up questions to encourage extended thinking.

[pg. 1] I see a thumbs up from [students’ names]. What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘soared.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘soared’ in it.] What does Juno see up in the sky at night? What are airplanes for? Seoul is a city in Korea; that’s a country in Asia that is very far away.
I see thumbs-up again! Which word did you hear this time? You heard the word ‘smudged,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘smudged’ in it]. The letter has special markings on it that shows that it came from another country. Who sent the letter to Juno?

Look very closely at the words written in the letter. [Hold the book close to the students so they can see the print.] Why can’t Juno read the letter?

How did Juno know that his grandmother has a new cat? Did he read the letter? How did he know that she has red and yellow flowers in her garden?

Juno brought the letter from his grandmother to school. What was he thinking about all day? Why did he decide to write a letter back to her?

What do you think Juno should tell his grandmother in his letter? What will the leaf from the tree tell her about Juno’s home?

Here is Juno’s grandmother opening his letter. What is she thinking when she sees the leaf and his drawings? Do you think she will send another letter back to him?

What was in the letter that made Juno think that his grandmother will come to visit? What does the toy airplane tell you?

You heard our last word, what was it? Yes, you heard ‘crisp.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘crisp’ in it]. Juno is thinking about his grandmother far away in Korea. Do you think he misses his grandmother? Why do you think so?

Here is Juno’s grandmother again; she is thinking about Juno far away in America. Do you think she misses him? What do you think the weather is like for her in Korea in this picture? How can you tell that from this picture?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

Teach the Words and How to Use Them

1. This is the word ‘soared’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘soared’ [students repeat in unison].

If something ‘soared’ it flew through the air very fast and very easily.

When Juno is outside watching the sky, he sees the red and white lights that are on airplanes. Airplanes fly very fast up in the air and it’s very easy for them to fly because of their wings. The book says, “Juno watched as the red and white blinking lights soared across the night sky.” So, we could also say, Juno watched as the red and white blinking lights flew very fast and very easily across the night sky.
There are many kinds of things that can soar through the air. Here is an eagle. [Show the picture card.] An eagle has very large wings and he can fly very fast. When he holds his wings still and lets the air carry him through the sky, we can say he ‘soared.’

Here is an airplane. [Show the picture card.] An airplane has big wings and engines that help it fly very easily and fast. When we see airplanes up in the sky, we can only see them for a minute or two before they are gone because they are flying so fast. We can say the airplane ‘soared’ through the sky.

This is a man using a parachute. [Show the picture card.] The parachute catches the air and helps him fly through the air so that he doesn’t fall straight to the ground. We could say that the man with the parachute ‘soared’ through the air.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘soared’ in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘smudged’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘smudged’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Smudged’ means that something has dirty marks or spots on it or that it is smeared. If something looks blurry, not very clean or clear, then we can say it is smudged.

In our story, Juno got a letter in the mail. The story says that the envelope was long and white and smudged. The envelope had to come a long way from Korea and a lot of people probably held it and maybe someone dropped it. It was probably in an airplane and then a truck and a big bag filled with other letters, all before it got to Juno’s house. It probably got dirty somewhere on its way. So we could also say, “it was long and white and had smeared, dirty spots.”

Sometimes when we’re writing with a pencil and paper, our hand might rub on the paper where we wrote. That can make our writing smear and look dirty. [Demonstrate this with a piece of paper and a pencil, or with a dry erase marker on a whiteboard.] When that happens, we could say that the writing is smudged.

At my house, we have a back door that is made of glass. My little brother always goes up to the glass to look out in the back yard. When he does, he puts his face and his hands on the glass and leaves fingerprints and other blurry marks on it. That makes it look dirty and not very clear, so we can say the glass is smudged.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘smudged’ in unison with the students.]
3. This is the word ‘crisp’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘crisp’ [students repeat in unison].

‘Crisp’ describes air that is very cold and stings your skin OR something that feels stiff and scratchy and might break easily. You can say the air feels ‘crisp’ when it’s very cold outside, and you can say the leaf feels crisp after it fell to the ground and dried out. Nothing that is very soft, or bends very easily can be called crisp.

Our story says, “the cool air feels crisp against her cheek.” In Korea, where Juno’s grandmother lives, it can get very cold. When you go outside, you can feel the cold air and wind on your face. Sometimes it can make your nose or your cheeks sting a little because it is so cold. That’s what we call ‘crisp.’ So, we could say, the cool air feels cold and stings her cheek.

Our story also says, “crisp enough to crackle… like the golden leaves.” Juno is thinking about the leaves that have fallen into his grandmother’s garden. When leaves are in a tree, they are usually green and soft and they bend easily. But, when the leaves fall down to the ground from a tree, they start to dry inside. Then they turn brown or yellow and they get very stiff. They don’t bend easily anymore, instead they break. We could think of them as scratchy or crunchy. So, we could say, stiff and scratchy enough to crackle… like the golden leaves.

We sometimes talk about food as being crisp. Any kind of food that is crunchy and can break easily is called crisp. Potato chips are crisp. Celery is crisp. [Show picture cards.] When we bite them, we can feel how crisp they are. They are almost sharp and scratchy.

Paper can also be crisp because sometimes it is stiff and scratchy. [Show a piece of construction paper.] We can fold it and it stays that way because it is stiff. If we rub the edges on our skin, we would feel that it is very scratchy; it might even give you a paper cut!

So, there are a lot of ways to use the word ‘crisp’. What was the word we are learning about? [Say ‘crisp’ in unison with the students.]

Extend Throughout the Week

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.

2. In the art center, make smudged paintings using finger-paint or tempura paint with sponges.

3. Collect some objects from around the classroom [a ball, a piece of paper, a crayon, a block, an article of clothing from the housekeeping center]. Take them out to the playground and test them to see which can soar through the air quickly and easily. (Closely supervised of course!)

4. At lunchtime, ask the students to sort the food they have into a ‘crisp’ pile and a ‘not crisp’ pile.
Re-Introduce the Book

Remember the book we read yesterday, dear juno? Tell me something you remember from the story? Who was the story about? What did Juno and his grandmother say in their letters?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Yesterday, we talked about three new words, ‘soared, smudged, crisp.’

1. This is the word ‘soared.’ Say ‘soared’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘smudged.’ Say ‘smudged’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

3. This is the word ‘crisp.’ Say ‘crisp’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

Re-Read the Book

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 1] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘soared.’ Juno sees the lights of an airplane up in the sky. What is the airplane doing? How is it moving?

[pg. 2] Yes, I see another thumbs-up from everyone! What word did you hear this time? Yes, you heard ‘smudged.’ What do you think the letter looks like? What might have happened to it to make it look that way?

[pg. 8] How did Juno know those things about his grandmother even though he couldn’t read her writing in the letter?

[pg. 18] What will the drawings tell Juno’s grandmother about him? [If this question is too general for the students, use these prompting questions to guide their thinking.] The first one is a picture of his parents and his house; what does that tell you? The next one is a picture of Juno’s dog, Sam; what does that tell you? The last one is a picture of Juno and an airplane; what does that tell you about him?
[pg. 22] Do you think it is easy for Juno’s grandmother to read his letter? Why?

[pg. 27] I see more thumbs-up which means you heard our last word! What word was it? Yes, you heard ‘crisp’.

[pg. 28] Why did Juno say the air was crisp at his grandmother’s house in Korea?

Great listening! You noticed all three of our new words.

**Review the Words**

1. Here is the word ‘soared’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘soared’ means that something flew through the air very easily and very fast. Juno was watching the lights on an airplane flying very fast up in the sky. The airplane soared through the sky.

2. This is the word ‘smudged’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘smudged’ means that something has dirty marks or smears on it; it’s not very clean or clear. The letter that Juno got from his grandmother had gotten dirty on it’s way from Korea to America. It had dirt smeared on it, it was smudged.

3. Here is the word ‘crisp’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘crisp’ describes the way something feels. It can mean that something is very cold and stings a little, or that something is hard and stiff and could be crunchy or scratchy. The air in Korea was so cold that it felt crisp on Juno’s grandmother’s skin. The leaves on the ground were dry and crisp, so they felt scratchy and would break very easily if you stepped on them.

Now, let’s talk about each of our words.

**Discuss the Words and How to Use Them**

1. If something soared, it flew through the sky very fast. Which of these things could have soared? Answer by saying, “That soared!”
   - a bird
   - a balloon
   - a kite
   - a jet / airplane
   - the moon
   - bubbles
   - a baseball
   - rain

2. Let’s think about the word ‘smudged.’ Is ‘smudged’ more like...
   - … clean or dirty? … smeared across the page or inside the lines?
   - … clear or blurry? … a spot or a tear?
3. When we talked about things that are crisp, we talked about some foods, like celery and potato chips. If something is hard and crunchy and breaks easily, then it is crisp.

Now, I’ll say some foods and if they could be crisp, say, “That’s crisp.” If not, don’t say anything.
- a hamburger
- a cracker
- scrambled eggs
- a spaghetti noodle
- a carrot
- a pretzel

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Let’s read dear juno again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘soared’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘smudged’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
3. ‘crisp’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word].

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘soared / smudged / crisp!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

1. Our first word is ‘soared’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘soared’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

2. The next word is ‘smudged’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘smudged’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]
3. And now the word ‘crisp.’ Tell us what ‘crisp’ means.

[Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.

1. Which of these words can go with ‘soared’ because they are almost the same?
   – fly
   – float
   – glide
   – crawl
   – jump
   – roll
   – zoom

   Confirm students’ answers by saying, “Yes, _______ and soared are almost the same.”

   If students are having trouble, prompt them by saying, “‘soared’ means to fly very fast through the sky. If you are _______ are you flying very fast through the sky?”

2. Let’s talk about the word ‘smudged.’

   – Is ‘smudged’ a way you might feel or a way something might look?
   – Is ‘smudged’ something that can happen to your hair or to your painting?
   – If your window was smudged, would you be happy or mad? What would you do?
   – Would you want to wear a shirt that was smudged? Why not?

3. Now think about the word ‘crisp.’ Which of these things would you like better:

   ~ a crisp breeze or hot air?  
   ~ a fuzzy blanket or crisp sheets?  
   ~ a crisp piece of paper or a piece of fabric?

   [It is okay if the students do no choose the ‘crisp’ answer, but they should give an explanation of why to ensure they understand the meaning.]

Excellent job talking about our words today!

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
### Day 4

**Materials Needed:** Word cards: soared, smudged, crisp

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**Re-Introduce the Book**

Today we are going to read *dear juno* one more time.

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**Re-Identify the Words**

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

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**Re-Read the Book**

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

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**Review and Discuss the Words**

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

1. Let’s talk about the word ‘soared.’
   - If you wanted to soar, would you go in a boat or an airplane?
   - What would you do if a bird soared right above your head?
   - If a baseball soared, what did someone probably do with it?

2. Finish these sentences that use the word ‘smudged:’
   - Jonathan’s glasses were smudged and so he...
   - Sophia wanted to smudge the chalk she was drawing with and so she...
   - When Danisha picked up the blanket that was in the garden, she saw that it had gotten smudged because...

3. Now think about the word ‘crisp.’
   - Why would you need a crisp piece of paper to make a paper airplane?
   - Why would you not want to eat crisp celery in a quiet room?
   - Why would you worry about the crisp leaves all over the yard?
* Now let’s think about all 3 of our new words: soared, smudged, and crisp.
  – If someone wiped some dirt from their hands onto their shorts, are their shorts soared or smudged?
  – If the potato chip broke when I bit into it, was it smudged or crisp?
  – If I was jumping on a trampoline, could you say I was crisp or I soared?

Excellent work with our words today! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Book 4: The Umbrella

**Day 1**  
**Materials Needed:**  
Word cards: prowling, wail, drift  
Picture cards: prowling animals

**Introduce the Book**

Our story today is *The Umbrella*. Jan Brett is the author and the illustrator; she wrote the words and drew the pictures for this story.

There are some animals on the cover of this book. Look at the area around them and tell me where you think they might live.  
[Confirm S’s responses and/or guide them to answer “jungle” or “rainforest”]

How do you know that’s where they live? What do you think it’s like to live there? What is the weather like? What do the animals do all day there?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

**Identify the Words**

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words.

1. The first word is ‘prowling’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘prowling’ with me. ‘prowling’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘wail’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘wail’ with me. ‘wail’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

3. The last word is ‘drift’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘drift’ with me. ‘drift’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘prowling, wail, drift,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

**Read the Book**

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

When asking questions during the story, accept answers from as many students as you can. Rephrase and repeat students’ answers to reinforce them. Ask follow-up questions to encourage extended thinking.

[pg. 1] This boy, Carlos, probably lives in South America. There is a very large rainforest in South America and many people there speak Spanish. Carlos says that he’s going to the “cloud forest,” or rain forest today. Why is he going there? [take comments from students] Yes, he wants to see some of the animals. A jaguar, a monkey, a toucan, a kinkajou, and a tapir are all names of animals that live in the rainforest. Why might Carlos need an umbrella to go there?
How does a puddle form in the umbrella? Why does the frog like being in the puddle by himself?

I see a thumbs up from [students’ names]. What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘prowling.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘prowling’ in it.] Why does the frog want the other animals to leave? Do you think they are going to? What might happen instead?

I see thumbs-up again! Which word did you hear this time? You heard the word ‘wail,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘wail’ in it]. The monkey threw the umbrella with all the animals into the water. Why are the animals worried about that? Why did they think they would sink?

Now a jaguar has jumped into the umbrella too! Is there room for any more animals to get in the umbrella? What could happen?

The animals are all telling the hummingbird to go away. Why? The hummingbird isn’t very big. Will it matter if he lands in the umbrella?

What happened?!

You heard our last word, what was it? Yes, you heard ‘drift.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘drift’ in it].

How did the umbrella get back to where Carlos left it? Did he see any animals while he was up in the tree?

What does the frog think about the puddle in the umbrella now? Why?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

Teach the Words and How to Use Them

1. This is the word ‘prowling’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘prowling’ [students repeat in unison].

If someone or something is ‘prowling,’ they are wandering around, walking very slowly and quietly and they are looking for something. Usually, if someone or something is prowling, they are trying to keep it a secret so they can sneak up on someone. They might crouch down low or crawl and they don’t want anyone to see them.

The book says this about Kinkajou, “After prowling around all night for food, he’s found just the right place to rest.” Kinkajou spends the nighttime looking for food. In order to catch small animals and bugs to eat, Kinkajou has to wander around through the rainforest. He has to be
very quiet and sneaky so that he can catch the animals or bugs before they run away from him. He goes very slowly and crawls or bends down very low. So, we could also say, “after wandering around, slowly and quietly, all night looking for food, he’s found just the right place to rest.”

This is what it might look like to go prowling. [Act out what prowling looks like for the students.] Now you try it – show me what it looks like to go prowling around for something. [Prompt the students to act it out also. If this could create mass chaos with the kids, then ask a few volunteers to demonstrate for all to see instead of having everyone do it.] Good! Remember, if you’re prowling, you’re going slow and carefully; you are not running or trying to hurry if you’re prowling.

Other animals go prowling for food also. Here are some pictures of other animals that walk around, very slowly and quietly, so they can catch food before it runs away. [Show picture cards of other prowling animals and point out how they look while they are prowling.] This is a lion. See how she is crouching down as if she’s ready to jump out and catch something. [Continue with other pictures: cheetah, wolf, fox.]

It is also possible for people to go prowling too. A bad guy who might want to steal something could go prowling around looking for something he wants. He would go slowly and quietly so that no one sees him and figures out what he’s going to do. But, a police officer can go prowling too. A police officer can walk through the neighborhood very slowly and quietly, carefully looking around to make sure that no one is doing the wrong thing; he would be ready to catch them if they do.

What was the word we are learning about? [Say ‘prowling’ in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘wail’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘wail’ [students repeat in unison].

If someone ‘wails’ they whine in a way that sounds like a long, loud cry. Usually they wail because their sad, or because they want to complain about something.

In our story, the animals are not happy that more animals keep getting into the umbrella. They get mad at Monkey when he puts the umbrella in the water because they are worried they will sink. Some of the animals want to complain about Monkey so they wail out loud. The book says, “We will sink for sure! Toucan, Kinkajou, Baby Tapir and Quetzal wail together.” So we could also say, “the animals whined together in a way that sounds like a long, loud cry.”

When someone wants to wail, they might say words that would sound like this. [Say, “I don’t want to!” in a loud, whiny, drawn out voice.] Or they might just make a crying sound that could sound like this. [Demonstrate a sobbing, crying sound without words.] Lots of people wail when they cry and babies wail a lot when they are hungry or sleepy. Animals can wail too. My dog starts to wail when she wants me to play ball with her and I can’t because I’m cooking dinner. Remember that someone usually is about to wail if they are sad and crying, or because they want to complain about something.
What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘wail’ in unison with the students.]

3. This is the word ‘drift’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘drift’ [students repeat in unison].

When something ‘drifts’ it is carried along by wind or water. It moves very slowly and it has no control over where it’s going – it goes wherever the wind or water takes it. The wind or the water is the only thing that pushes it. “Float” is another word to say ‘drift.’

In our story, after the animals fall out of the umbrella, the book says, “the umbrella pops to the surface and drifts back to shore.” That means the umbrella was floating on top of the water and the water carried it back to the edge of the river. The water pushed it along wherever it went until it got back to the ground.

Anything that floats in air or water can drift as long as only the air or water pushes it. A raft can drift on the water, but a boat that has a motor does not. The wind can push a balloon, but it can’t push a car – so, a balloon can drift, but a car cannot.

When I went to the beach one time, I let my raft drift in the ocean. I just laid on it and let the water and the waves carry me all around wherever they wanted to. It was very relaxing because the water moved very slowly and softly.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘drift’ in unison with the students.]

**Extend Throughout the Week**

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.

2. During a transition, tell the children to move to the next area as if they were prowling.

3. On the playground, set up a water table or fill a tub with water and experiment with object from the classroom to see which will drift across the water. Once students find some objects that will float, they can experiment with making them drift faster or slower, or in certain directions using a fan or blowing on them.

4. In the writing center, suggest the students draw a picture and write or dictate a short story about something that happened that made them wail (or something that would make them wail if it happened.)
Day 2 Materials Needed: Word Cards: prowling, wail, drift

Re-Introduce the Book

Remember the book we read yesterday, The Umbrella? Tell me something you remember from the story? Who was the story about? What did Juno and his grandmother say in their letters?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Yesterday, we talked about three new words, ‘prowling, wail, drift.’

1. This is the word ‘prowling.’ Say ‘prowling’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘wail.’ Say ‘wail’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

3. This is the word ‘drift.’ Say ‘drift’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

Re-Read the Book

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 3] Why does Carlos have to put his umbrella down before he climbs the tree? Why does he want to climb the tree? What is going to happen to his umbrella while he’s in the tree?

[pg. 9] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘prowling.’ Kinkajou has been prowling all night looking for food. Why do you think he’s tired and wants to rest in the umbrella?

[pg. 15] Yes, I see another thumbs-up from everyone! What word did you hear this time? Yes, you heard ‘wail.’ Why are the animals upset with the monkey? What might it sound like when they wail?

[pg. 17] All the animals are yelling at each other! What is causing all the problems in the umbrella?
I see more thumbs-up which means you heard our last word! What word was it? Yes, you heard ‘drift.’ How did the umbrella get back to the ground? Do you think that happened very quickly or very slowly?

Carlos says, “No animals today… I wonder where they all are?” He didn’t see any animals when he was up in the tree. Where were the animals he was looking for?

Do you think Carlos will see any animals if he goes back to the rainforest tomorrow?

Great listening! You noticed all three of our new words.

**Review the Words**

1. Here is the word ‘prowling’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘prowling’ means that someone or something is wandering around, walking very slowly and quietly, and they are looking for something. They might be trying to sneak up on someone.

2. This is the word ‘wail’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘wail’ means to whine in a way that sounds like a long, loud cry. Usually someone will wail because they are sad, or because they want to complain about something.

3. Here is the word ‘drift’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘drift’ means to move only by the wind or water carrying you along. It is very slow and only the wind or water pushes you.

Now, let’s talk about each of our words.

**Discuss the Words and How to Use Them**

1. Which of these animals might go prowling for food? Answer by saying, “that goes prowling” or “that does not go prowling!”

   - a tiger
   - a raccoon
   - an elephant
   - a cat
   - an ant
   - a goldfish
   - a bear
   - a penguin

Great! Now show me what the tiger might look like when he goes prowling. [Allow students to demonstrate individually or the whole class at once, depending on your preference.] Wow, you would sneak up on somebody! Look at how slowly and quietly [student’s name] is prowling.

Now show me what the bear might look like when he goes prowling. Great!
2. Which of these words can go with ‘wail’ because they are almost the same?
   - bark
   - whine
   - scream
   - whisper
   - fuss
   - moan
   - sing
   - sneeze
   - howl
   
   Confirm students’ answers by saying, “Yes, ________ and ‘wail’ are almost the same.”
   
   If students are having trouble, prompt them by saying, “‘Wail’ means to make a noise that sounds like a long, loud cry. If you are ________, are you making that kind of noise?”

3. Now think about the word ‘drift’ to answer my questions.
   
   ~ Is drift a way something moves or the way something looks?
   ~ Would you drift in a race?
   ~ If you let a bunch of balloons go and they went up in the sky to drift, would they all come down in the same place?
   ~ If Jennifer wanted to run, and Pedro wanted to drift, and Meriel wanted to ride her bike, who would get to the library first?

You’ve all done a wonderful job discussing our new words today!

**Extend Throughout the Week**

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Let’s read The Umbrella again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘prowling’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘wail’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
3. ‘drift’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word].

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘prowling / wail / drift!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

1. Our first word is ‘prowling’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘prowling’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

2. The next word is ‘wail’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘wail’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]
3. And now the word ‘drift.’ Tell us what ‘drift’ means.
   [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.

1. Let’s talk about the word ‘prowling.’ We know that animals will go prowling for food. What are some other reasons a person or an animal might go prowling?
   [Take comments from students and provide feedback for their answers. Use these questions to guide them to appropriate answers or to encourage them to elaborate on their answer.]

   Would an animal need to go prowling if her cubs/babies were close by? Why?
   Would you be worried if you saw a man prowling on your street at night? Why?
   Might a policeman be prowling?

2. Let’s think about the word ‘wail.’ I want you to clap your hands to tell me how much you would wail for each of these things. If you would wail a lot, clap a lot. If you would only wail a little bit, clap only once or twice. If you would not wail at all, don’t clap at all.

   How much would you wail if...
   – you dropped your ice cream?
   – you Grandmother was coming to visit?
   – you were going to the playground?
   – your favorite movie ended?
   – you were having a party at school?
   – you fell off your bike?
   – it was raining and you had to stay inside?
   – your mom made brownies for dessert?
   After each question, ask a student to tell you why they would wail that much or that little.

3. I’ll say some things and if they could drift, say “That could drift.” If it would not drift, don’t say anything.

   ~ a balloon ~ an innertube ~ leaves
   ~ a brick ~ an elephant ~ a door
   ~ clouds ~ a tree trunk ~ bubbles
   ~ shells ~ seaweed ~ a slide

Excellent job talking about our words today!

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Day 4  
Materials Needed: Word cards: prowling, wail, drift

Re-Introduce the Book

Today we are going to read The Umbrella one more time.

Re-Identify the Words

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?  
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

1. Can anyone think of a time you went prowling for something? You may have been looking for something or trying to sneak up on somebody. Tell us what you were doing and how you looked while you were prowling.

2. Finish these sentences that use the word ‘wail:’

   ~ Brady was about to wail because he couldn’t find his tennis shoes so I…
   ~ I heard someone wail at the playground and so I thought that…
   ~ I saw the baby bottle in the kitchen and I heard the baby wail in her crib, so I knew it must be time to…

3. Try these sentences with the word ‘drift:’

   – I decided to use my paddle instead of letting the boat drift because…
   – Lauren knew the boat would drift if she left it in the water, so she…
   – Trey was upset that the string to his kite broke because now the kite would drift and…
   – We saw pieces of a boat drift onto the beach and knew that…
   – My dad spent a lot of time raking all the leaves in our yard and he didn’t want them to drift, so he…

* Now let’s think about all 3 of our new words: prowling, wail, and drift.
– Which word goes with ‘whine’?
– Which word goes with ‘float’?
– Which word goes with ‘sneak’?
– Why might you wail if your boat drifted out in the ocean?
– Would you want to wail if you were prowling? Why not?
– Could you drift and be prowling at the same time? Why not?

Excellent work with our words this week! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Day 1
Materials Needed: any crayon
Word cards: material, scold, clutching

Introduce the Book

Our story today is Jamela’s Dress. Niki Daly is the author and the illustrator; he wrote the words and drew the pictures for this story.

This is Jamela on the cover of this book. She has something wrapped around her; it looks like cloth. I wonder what she’s going to do with it. What do you think?

Look at Jamela’s face. What could she be thinking about? How is she feeling right now?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Identify the Words

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words.

1. The first word is ‘material’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘material’ with me. ‘material’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘clutching’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘clutching’ with me. ‘clutching’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

3. The last word is ‘scold’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘scold’ with me. ‘scold’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘material, clutching, scold,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

Read the Book

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

[pg. 1] I see a thumbs up from [students’ names]. You heard one of our words on the very first page! What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘material.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘material’ in it.] Jamela’s mama is buying some new material.

[pg. 3] Why did Mama need to wash the new material? Why did she hang it on the clothesline? What is Jamela supposed to do while the material is hanging on the clothesline?

[pg. 6] Why does Jamela like the material so much? What is she doing with it?
[pg. 10] Is Jamela taking good care of her Mama’s material? Why not? What might happen to it?

[pg. 12] I see thumbs-up again! Which word did you hear this time? You heard the word ‘clutching,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘clutching’ in it].

[pg. 14] Why did Archie want to take a picture of Jamela? What does the material look like now? Do you think Mama can still use it to make a dress for the wedding?

[pg. 15] You heard our last word, what was it? Yes, you heard the word ‘scolded,’ which means the same as the word ‘scold,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘scold’ in it]. What is Thelma saying to Jamela?

[pg. 16] Why is Mama upset and mad at Jamela? How do you think Jamela feels? What should she do next?

[pg. 18] Archie’s picture of Jamela was so good that he won a prize for it! But Jamela isn’t happy about it; she’s crying instead. Why is she crying?

[pg. 20] Archie and Jamela are looking in the window of the fabric store where Mama bought her material. What do you think Archie and Jamela are going to do with Archie’s money?

[pg. 24] Do you think Mama is still mad at Jamela? Why not?

[pg. 26] Mama used the material to make a dress for Thelma’s wedding, but what else is she making?

[pg. 30] What do you notice about Mama and Jamela’s dresses?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

Teach the Words and How to Use Them

1. This is the word ‘material’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘material’ [students repeat in unison].

Material is something you can use to build or make something. In this story, it is cloth or fabric. Any cloth or fabric that you can cut and sew to make something can be called ‘material.’ Material can be any color or have lots of different colors. It can be soft or scratchy, or it can feel smooth or rough. It can be thin and cool, or it can be thick and warm. You can make lots of things besides clothes out of material. You could make blankets or curtains for your windows. You can make covers for your furniture or placemats for the table. You can make towels or sheets for your bed.
In the book, Mama was happy with the new material she found. She bought the material and took it home to sew a new dress to wear for the wedding. The material she bought is orange, with yellow leaves outlined in green. It looks like it is summertime in this story, so I think the material she bought was probably thin and not very heavy. It would keep her cool in the summer. We could also say, Mama was happy with the new cloth she found at the store.

Let’s look at the material our clothes are made out of. First let’s look at the colors. The material of my clothes is... [describe the colors of your clothes]. What color is the material of your clothes today? [take students’ comments]

Now, let’s feel the material our clothes are made out of. My clothes are... [describe whether your clothes are thin or thick, smooth or rough]. Tell me how the material of your clothes feels. [take students’ comments]

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘material’ in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘clutching’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘clutching’ [students repeat in unison].

If someone is clutching something, they are holding it with their hands very, very tightly. Usually they are clutching something because they don’t want to drop it or they don’t want someone to take it away. Or they could be clutching something because they are afraid of letting go. To be clutching something, you have to hold it very tightly.

In our story, Archie comes running out of the building clutching his special camera. The camera probably cost a lot of money and Archie didn’t want it to get broken. Since he was running, maybe he was afraid he would drop it. So, we could say he was holding the camera very tightly so he wouldn’t drop it while he was running.

If you are clutching something, you are holding something very tightly. [Hold a crayon in your hand very tightly.] I am holding this crayon in my hand and I’m squeezing it very tightly. I am clutching this crayon.

[Now lay the crayon across your open palm.] Now, I am still holding the crayon, but I’m not squeezing it very tightly, it is just laying in my hand. Now I’m not clutching it.

Any time you are holding something very tightly so you won’t let go, you are clutching it. Last time I went to the grocery store, they put too many groceries in my bag and it was very heavy. When I took them to my car, I was clutching the heavy bag so that I wouldn’t drop it on the ground while I walked.

Another time, I was carrying my cat from the car into my house. I was worried she would run into the street, so I picked her up and was clutching her tightly so that she couldn’t run away.
Remember that someone is clutching something when they are holding it tightly so that they won’t drop it or let it go.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘clutching’ in unison with the students.]

3. This is the word ‘scold’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘scold’ [students repeat in unison].

If someone ‘scolds,’ they are telling someone that they did something that they were not supposed to do. Sometimes they will yell at the person or put them in time out. Usually if someone scolds, they are very angry at the person who did something wrong. You can tell they are angry because their face looks mad and their voice sounds mad. Sometimes the one who scolds points their finger at the person.

In our story, Jamela did not take good care of her Mama’s material and she let it get dirty and torn. That was something she was not supposed to do and her mother and Thelma were angry at her. The book says that Thelma scolded Jamela. She pointed her finger and said that her Mama was going to be very upset. So we could also say that Thelma yelled at Jamela and told her she did something that she wasn’t supposed to do.

I have a friend who has a little boy. One time, we were having a picnic at the park. My friend told her little boy not to climb a tree because he might fall and get hurt. But he climbed up a tree anyway and he fell and tore his pants. When my friend saw the hole in his pants, she scolded him because he climbed the tree even when she told him not to.

Remember, a person who is about to scold usually is angry and points their finger. Show me what you would look like if you were about to scold. [Demonstrate with the students what it looks like to scold.]

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘scold’ in unison with the students.]

Extend Throughout the Week

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.
2. In the art center, use scraps of material and glue them on cardboard or construction paper to design clothing. The students can also make collages with material of different designs and colors by cutting them into various shapes.
3. On the playground, have students identify toys or games in which they need to be clutching something to play. Have them act out what they would do (baseball, tug-of-war, swings, monkey bars). Talk about what there is to do on the playground without clutching something (slide, duck duck goose, basketball).
4. In the writing center, make a list of some things that you would get scolded for and post them as reminders to follow the rules and have good manners.
**Re-Introduce the Book**

Remember the book we read yesterday, *Jamela’s Dress*? Tell me something you remember from the story? Who was the story about? What did Jamela do with her mother’s material?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

**Re-Identify the Words**

Yesterday, we talked about three new words, ‘material, clutching, scold.’

1. This is the word ‘material.’ Say ‘material’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘clutching.’ Say ‘clutching’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

3. This is the word ‘scold.’ Say ‘scold’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

**Re-Read the Book**

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 2] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘material.’ What is Jamela’s Mama going to do with the material she buys? What do you think this material feels like?

[pg. 8] What is Jamela thinking about as she walks down the street with Mama’s material? How does she feel right now? What do all the people in town think?

[pg. 11] What happened to ruin the material?

[pg. 12] Yes, I see another thumbs-up from everyone! What word did you hear this time? Yes, you heard ‘clutching.’ Who is clutching something? Why?
[pg. 15] I see more thumbs-up which means you heard our last word! What word was it? Yes, you heard ‘scolded, or scold.” What did Thelma say to Jamela? How did she sound when she said it?

[pg. 17] What happened to the picture that Archie took of Jamela? Why did it win the contest?

[pg. 22] How did Jamela get more material for her Mama? What did Mama think when she saw the picture of Jamela that Archie took?

[pg. 24] Do you think Mama is still angry at Jamela? How do you know?

Great listening! You noticed all three of our new words.

Review the Words

1. Here is the word ‘material’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘material’ is something that you use to make something. To make clothes, you use material that is fabric or cloth. There are many different kinds of material.

2. This is the word ‘clutching’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘clutching’ means to hold something very tightly so that you won’t drop it or lose it.

3. Here is the word ‘scold’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘scold’ means to tell someone that they did something they were not supposed to do. Usually someone who scolds will be angry and their face and voice show that they are mad. They might yell at the person and put them in timeout.

Now, let’s talk about each of our words.

Discuss the Words and How to Use Them

1. To make a blanket for your bed, would you prefer material that…

   … is scratchy or soft?
   … keeps you cool or warm?
   … is thin or thick?
   … is one color or many colors?
   … is smooth or rough?
   … has polka dots or stripes?

   Answers will vary based on students’ personal preference.

   Show students a hand signal to use to indicate the first choice and a different signal to use to indicate the second choice. All students can answer using the signal, and the teacher can choose students individually to share their answer with the class. Prompt students to share their answer by saying, “Material that is __________.”
2. Think about the word ‘clutching’ to finish my sentences.

~ Juan was clutching the dog’s leash so that…
~ Julia was clutching her jacket around her shoulders because…
~ Since he couldn’t swim very well, Darius was in the pool clutching the inner tube because…

3. I’m going to show you pictures of two people. You point to the one who looks like they are about to scold someone.

[display 5 sets of 2 pictures; give students feedback on their choices]

You’ve all done a wonderful job discussing our new words today!

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Let’s read Jamela’s Dress again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘material’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘clutching’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
3. ‘scold’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word].

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘material / clutching / scold!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

1. Our first word is ‘material’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘material’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

2. The next word is ‘clutching’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘clutching’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]
3. And now the word ‘scold.’ Tell us what ‘scold’ means.
   [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.

1. If you wanted to buy material, would you go to a fabric store or a gas station?
   If you were going to make a skirt or a pair of shorts, what would the material you’d choose look like?
   [Take comments from as many students as possible and prompt them to describe the material they would choose as fully as possible.]

2. Let’s think about the word ‘clutching.’ Tell me why you would be clutching…
   – a baseball bat
   – the string of a balloon
   – the railing on the stairs?
   – your mom’s hand in the parking lot
   – the branches of a tree

3. For which of these things would your mom scold you for? Answer by saying, “she would scold me.”
   ~ jumping on the bed
   ~ eating all your dinner
   ~ cleaning up your toys
   ~ going in the street by yourself
   ~ drawing on the wall
   ~ helping carry in the groceries
   ~ pushing your brother or sister
   ~ saying “Thank you” for a present

Excellent job talking about our words today!

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Today we are going to read Jamela’s Dress one more time.

Re-Identify the Words

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

1. What kind of material would you need for your clothes…

   … in the summer?
   … in the winter?
   … on rainy days?
   … on sunny days?
   … to go swimming?
   … to play at the playground?
   … to play on a sports team?

2. Think about the word ‘clutching.’

   ~ Would it hurt to be clutching a pinecone or a cotton ball? Why?
   ~ Would it be difficult to be clutching a teddy bear or a bubble? Why?
   ~ Which would break if you were clutching it, an egg or a book? Why?
3. Which words describe someone who is about to scold?

− angry
− whisper
− crying
− scared
− laugh
− frustrated
− hugging
− yell

* Now let’s think about all 3 of our new words: material, clutching, and scold.

− Which word goes with ‘grab’?
− Which word goes with ‘sewing’?
− Which word goes with ‘in trouble’?

− If you are holding the material, are you clutching it or scolding it?
− Would your mom scold the material? Why not?
− Why would someone scold you for clutching an egg?
− If you didn’t want someone to take your teddy bear, would you be clutching it or scolding it to keep it from them?
− If you wanted to make a skirt for your doll would you use material or scold?

Excellent work with our words this week! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Introduce the Book

Our story today is *Dot & Jabber and the Mystery of the Missing Stream*. Ellen Stoll Walsh is the author and the illustrator; she wrote the words and she made the pictures for this story.

[Point to the mice on the front of the book.] This is Dot & Jabber. They are mice and they try to figure out why certain things happen. Think about the title of our story, “the mystery of the missing stream.” What do you think might happen in this story?

[Confirm S’s responses and/or guide them to answer “something’s missing; they can’t find the stream!”]

I wonder what happened to it. We’re going to have to read the book to find out!

Identify the Words

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words. [only 2 for this book]

1. The first word is ‘stream’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘stream’ with me. ‘stream’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘bulged’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘bulged’ with me. ‘bulged’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘stream, bulged,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

Read the Book

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

When asking questions during the story, accept answers from as many students as you can. Rephrase and repeat students’ answers to reinforce them. Ask follow-up questions to encourage extended thinking.

[pg. 1] I see some thumbs up! Our first word is on the first page of the story! What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word, ‘stream.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word
‘stream’ in it. Why are there leaves and branches all over the ground? What are Dot and Jabber going to go do?

[pg. 2] I see thumbs up again! Which word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘stream’ again. Good listening!

[The students will hear the word ‘stream’ on many pages of the book. After the second time, when the students show you a thumbs up for this word, simply acknowledge them by nodding your head and giving your thumbs up, but continue reading.]

[pg. 5] Dot and Jabber were expecting to see a lot of water in the stream, but it was empty. Where do you think the water went?

[pg. 9] Dot and Jabber found a puddle filled with minnows, which are very small fish. Why are the minnows bumping into each other in the puddle? Why don’t they go somewhere else?

[pg. 12] How could the sticks be clues about where the water went? What should Dot & Jabber do next to find the water?

[pg. 16] Tell me about the dams that beavers make.

[pg. 21] What did Dot and Jabber figure out about the sticks and leaves? How are they stopping the water? How can they get the water back?

[pg. 22] I see a thumbs up from [students’ names]. What word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘bulged.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘bulged’ in it.] Why do Dot and Jabber need to get out of the way fast?

[pg. 26] Is the water back where it should be now? Did Dot and Jabber figure out the right answer to the mystery? Now, how are they going to get back to the other end of the stream to go home?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

**Teach the Words and How to Use Them**

1. This is the word ‘stream’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘stream’ [students repeat in unison].

A stream is a very small river. It usually is very shallow and not very wide. You could probably stand in it and the water would not even come up to your knees. It might be thin enough that you could jump over it to the other side. A stream will have water running, or moving, in it. A stream is different from a pond, a lake, or a swimming pool.
The book says, “‘I bet the stream is really full’, said Jabber. ‘Let’s go float some sticks.’” Dot and Jabber were talking about the storm and the rain that happened during the nighttime. Since a stream is a little river, then it has water in it already and it’s not very deep. If it rained a lot, then the rainwater would come down into the stream and fill it with more water until it was really full, maybe almost overflowing. This is what a stream might look like. [Show the picture cards of streams.]

We can use the word ‘stream’ anytime we see water moving in a line. When we pour water in to a cup, the water moving in a line is called a stream. [Demonstrate pouring a slow stream of water from one cup to the other for the students to see.]

When we turn on the faucet in the bathroom sink, the water comes out in a stream. When we use a hose in the garden, we turn it on and the water comes out in a stream – the water is moving in a line.

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘stream’ in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘bulged’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘bulged’ [students repeat in unison].

When something has ‘bulged’, it has gotten so full of something that it looks like it is about to burst. Sometimes it looks like it’s overflowing or part of it is sticking out.

In our story, Dot and Jabber find that so many sticks had fallen into the stream that they made a dam and trapped the water. The water behind the sticks was really strong and it was pushing on the sticks trying to get back into the stream. They were pushing so hard on the sticks that they were about to burst open and the water was about to overflow. The book says, “The dam bulged and groaned.” So we could also say, “The dam was so full of water that it looked like it was about to burst.”

When something has bulged it is so full that you can’t fit any more in. I usually think of something round when I hear the word ‘bulged.’

Some things that can be bulged are: 
[show (set 1) picture cards for each]

– a balloon with a lot of air in it
– my cheeks if I hold my breath [demonstrate]
– a basketball when it is full of air

A thing is not bulged if it is flat or empty. What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘bulged’ in unison with the students.]
Extend Throughout the Week

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.

2. During morning circle time, ask the students, “What is the word that means, “water is moving in a line? What is the word that means, “pushing or sticking out? What is the word that means a small river?”

3. On the playground, set up a water table and encourage the students to experiment with pouring water in a stream. Encourage them to use the word while they pour.
Re-Introduce the Book

Remember the book we read yesterday, Dot & Jabber and the Mystery of the Missing Stream? Tell me something you remember from the story? What were Dot and Jabber looking for? Where did they find the water?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Yesterday, we talked about two new words, ‘stream, bulged.’

1. This is the word ‘stream.’ Say ‘stream’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘bulged.’ Say ‘bulged’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

Re-Read the Book

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 1] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘stream.’ Dot and Jabber want to go to the stream and float sticks in the water. Why would the stream be really full on this morning? How did the storm make the stream full?

[pg. 5] How are Dot and Jabber going to find the water that should be in the stream? Who are they going to ask for help?

[pg. 13] Can one stick make the water go away? What has to happen instead? How can lots of sticks together make the water go away?

[pg. 14] Why are all the animals worried about the missing water?

[pg. 21] How is the water going to get out from behind the dam?

[pg. 22] Yes, you heard our other word; you heard the word ‘bulged.’ If the dam has bulged, what is going to happen next?

Great listening! You noticed both of our new words.
Review the Words

1. Here is the word ‘stream’ [show word card]. Remember that a ‘stream’ is a small river, or creek. It also means any water that is moving in a line.

2. This is the word ‘bulged’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘bulged’ means that something is so full that it looks like it is about to burst open or overflow.

Now, let’s talk about both of our words.

Discuss the Words and How to Use Them

1. Think about the word ‘stream’ and answer these questions:
   - Is ‘stream’ something you do or something you see?
   - Can you swim in a stream?
   - Would a ship fit down a stream? Why not?
   - Could you jump over a stream? Why?
   - Would you need a bridge to cross a stream? Why not?
   - What lives in a stream, fish or bears?

2. Which of these pictures show something that has bulged? If it does, say, “that’s bulged.” If it does not, don’t say anything. [Display the second set of pictures for ‘bulged’ one at a time.]
   - Bags of cans
   - Flat tire
   - Garbage bag
   - Mouse
   - Empty bowl
   - Blue stuffed cushion

You’ve all done a wonderful job discussing our new words today!

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Let’s read Dot & Jabber and the Mystery of the Missing Stream again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘stream’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘bulged’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘stream / bulged!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

1. Our first word is ‘stream’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘stream’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

2. The next word is ‘bulged’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘bulged’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.
1. Tell me which of these words could tell what a stream is like:

− thin
− fast
− wet
− wide
− loud
− slow
− sandy
− dry
− quiet
− huge
− cold

* For each word, ask one or two students to explain why after giving their answer.

2. Let’s think about the word ‘bulged.’ How can we finish these sentences:

~ Adam was going to the store with his money to buy a new game and his pockets bulged because…
~ While Lindsey was eating grapes for lunch, her mom noticed that her cheeks bulged because…
~ When Ayana squeezed the water balloon, it bulged and … because…

Excellent job talking about our words today!

Extend Throughout the Week

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Today we are going to read Dot & Jabber and the Mystery of the Missing Stream one more time.

Re-Identify the Words

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

1. Think about the word ‘stream’ and finish these sentences;
   ~ My mom saw a stream of tears on my face and she knew that… and she said…
   ~ Alejandro poured a stream of water out of the watering can so that…
   ~ Tammy wanted to splash her feet in the stream so she…
   ~ It hasn’t rained in a long time, so Jin-Sang worried that the stream would…

2. Think about the word ‘bulged’ and answer these questions:
   o To play basketball, does the ball need to be bulged?
   o If you’re going roller skating, do you want the ground to be bulged?
   o If you want to go swimming, do you want your raft to be bulged?
   o If your stomach was bulged, would you be hungry?
   o If you squeezed a balloon until it bulged, what could happen?
   o Would you want your pillow on your bed to be bulged?
* Now let’s think about both of our two new words: ‘stream’ and ‘bulged’.

  – Which word goes with ‘running water’?
  – Which word goes with ‘full’?
  – Which word goes with ‘sticking out’?
  – Which word goes with ‘small’?

Excellent work with our words this week! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]*
Book 7: A Bad Case of Stripes

Day 1

Materials Needed: magnifying glass
Word cards: examine, announced, remedies
Picture cards: butterflies

Introduce the Book

Our story today is A Bad Case of Stripes. David Shannon is the author and the illustrator; he wrote the words and drew the pictures for this story.

This is Camilla on the cover of this book. She’s laying in bed with a thermometer in her mouth. What else do you notice about her? What do you think is going on with her? What kind of sickness do you think she has?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Let’s read the book and find out what’s wrong and how she got that way.

Identify the Words

Now, while I’m reading this story, I want you to listen for some new words.

1. The first word is ‘examine’ [show printed word on card]. Everybody say ‘examine’ with me. ‘examine’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

2. The next word is ‘announced’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘announced’ with me. ‘announced’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

3. The last word is ‘remedies’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘remedies’ with me. ‘remedies’ [students say word with teacher in unison].

Great job! While I’m reading this story, listen for those words, ‘examine, announced, remedies,’ and when you hear them, show me a thumbs-up [demonstrate a thumbs-up].

Read the Book

Let’s read this story. [Begin reading].

[pg. 2] Where do you think those stripes came from? Would your mom be worried if you woke up one morning covered in stripes?

[pg. 4] I see a thumbs up from [students’ names]. Which word did you hear? Yes, you heard the word ‘examine.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘examine’ in it.] Dr. Bumble is going to try to try to figure out where the stripes came from.
Why are all the kids laughing at Camilla? How do you think that makes her feel?

What does Camilla want to make her feel better? But, why won’t she say that she wants lima beans?

I see thumbs-up again! Which word did you hear this time? You heard the word ‘announced,’ good listening! [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘announced’ in it]. The new doctors told Camilla’s parents what they think might be wrong with her, but they are not sure if they’re right.

You heard our last word, what was it? Yes, you heard the word ‘remedies.’ [Repeat the sentence from the book with the word ‘remedies’ in it]. Lots of people are trying to help Camilla get better and they keep trying different things. Did anything work?

Do you think this woman might be able to help make Camilla’s stripes go away? What will she try?

What made Camilla’s stripes go away? Why do you think the lima beans worked?

Is Camilla still worried about eating lima beans? Why not?

You did a great job listening carefully for our three new words from this story; now let’s talk about them.

Teach the Words and How to Use Them

1. This is the word ‘examine’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘examine’ [students repeat in unison].

When someone examines something, they look at something very closely and carefully. They are usually trying to study it or figure out something about it. Sometimes, the person who examines something using a magnifying glass to help them see better.

In the book, Dr. Bumble comes over to examine Camilla. He’s trying to figure out where her stripes came from and how to make them go away. To examine her, Dr. Bumble looks very closely at the stripes and checks Camilla to make sure nothing else is wrong. He checks everything he can think of, like her mouth, her ears, and her heart, to try to figure it out. So we could also say, Dr. Bumble came over to look at Camilla very closely and carefully to figure out where her stripes came from.

Now, I have some pictures of butterflies and I want to examine them to try to find all the colors they have in them and what their wings are made of. To examine the butterflies, I’m going to use a magnifying glass and look very closely at them. [Demonstrate examining the pictures.]
You can examine lots of different things. Last week, I took my car to the shop because it was broken and the repair man had to examine the engine to figure out what was wrong. He looked very carefully at it and studied it until he found the problem. Then he could fix it.

What was the word we are learning about?  [Say ‘examine’ in unison with the students.]

2. This is the word ‘announced’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘announced’ [students repeat in unison].

If someone announced something, they stood up and said something that everybody needed to know in a loud, clear voice. If someone announced something, it is usually news or something important that they need to tell everyone. The person will stand up where everyone can see them and sometimes they will use a microphone.

In our story, the expert doctors are trying to figure out where Camilla’s stripes came from. Dr. Gourd has an idea what it might be and he wants to tell the other doctors and Camilla’s parents. So, he tells them in a loud, clear voice that the stripes might be a virus. Camilla’s parents and the other doctors need to know this so they can help her get better. So, we could say that Dr. Gourd said some news that everyone needed to know in a loud clear voice.

In our classroom, when it is time to clean up and get ready for lunch, everybody needs to know that. So, I stand up and say in a loud clear voice, “it’s time to clean up your centers to get ready for lunch!” [Demonstrate this announcement.] Sometimes I ring a bell too. Nod your head if you have heard me announce that before.

What was the word we are learning about? [Say ‘announced’ in unison with the students.]

3. This is the word ‘remedies’ [show printed word on card]. Say ‘remedies’ [students repeat in unison].

Remedies are things that make you better when your sick, usually medicine. They can also be something that makes you better if you got hurt, like an ice pack, or a cast. You can also use remedies to fix something that is broken.

In our story, Camilla is sick and everyone is trying to figure out how to make her better. Lots of doctors and other people keep trying different things – those things are called remedies. Some of the things they tried were medicine, crystals, berries, and feathers. Finally, the remedy that worked was the lima beans! So we could say that the Creams were swamped with all kinds of thing to make Camilla better while she was sick with the stripes.

One time at the beach, I got a sunburn and it hurt a lot. To make my skin feel better, I put a special gel, called “aloe,” on it. The remedy that made me feel better was aloe.
Another time, by dog broke a vase of flowers in my living room. To fix it, I needed a remedy that would help me put the pieces back together. The remedy that worked was glue!

What was the word we are learning about?
[Say ‘remedies’ in unison with the students.]

**Extend Throughout the Week**

1. Post the word cards and make tally marks each time someone uses or hears the words throughout the week.

2. In the science or art center, place the butterfly pictures and the magnifying glass out with some paper, pencils and crayons. Encourage the students to examine the butterflies and make notes about the colors in their wings. They can also draw a picture to record what they find.

3. During transition times, choose various students to make an announcement to the class about what the next activity is. Say, “thank you, [student’s name]. She announced that so we would know where to go next” (or something similar).

4. In the writing center, prompt the students to write about a time they needed a remedy to fix something and to draw a picture of what happened.
Re-Introduce the Book

Remember the book we read yesterday, A Bad Case of Stripes? Tell me something you remember from the story? Who was the story about? Why did Camilla get sick with stripes?

[take comments from students and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Yesterday, we talked about three new words, ‘examine, announced, remedies.’

1. This is the word ‘examine.’ Say ‘examine’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

2. This is the word ‘announced.’ Say ‘announced’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

3. This is the word ‘remedies.’ Say ‘remedies’ with me. [show printed word on card and repeat word in unison with students.]

Great! While I’m reading, show me a thumbs-up every time you hear one of those words.

Re-Read the Book

[Begin reading.]

[pg. 4] [Student’s name] is giving me a thumbs-up; what word did you hear? Great! You heard the word ‘examine.’ Dr. Bumble is going to examine Camilla. What is he trying to figure out? What would a doctor use to examine you?

[pg. 16] Yes, I see another thumbs-up from everyone! What word did you hear this time? Yes, you heard ‘announced.’ Who announced something? What did he say? Why did he have to announce it instead of whisper it?

[pg. 21] I see more thumbs-up which means you heard our last word! What word was it? Yes, you heard ‘remedies.’ Who gave the Creams remedies to try? Did they work? Why not?

Great listening! You noticed all three of our new words.
**Review the Words**

1. Here is the word ‘examine’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘examine’ is something that you do when you want to study something to figure something out. You look very closely and carefully at the thing you want to examine.

2. This is the word ‘announced’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘announced’ means that someone stood up and said something in a loud clear voice that everyone needed to hear. Usually something that is announced is very important news or information.

3. Here is the word ‘remedies’ [show word card]. Remember that ‘remedies’ are things that make you better when you are sick or hurt. They can also be something that fixes something that is broken.

Now, let’s talk about each of our words.

**Discuss the Words and How to Use Them**

1. Why might you want to examine:
   - a painting?
   - a puzzle?
   - a map?
   - your hands?
   - a broken machine?

2. Think about the word ‘announced’ to answer these questions:
If someone announced that there was free ice cream at the park, what would happen?
If your Mom announced that it was time to go to the pool, what would you do next?
If your friend announced that you were late, how would you feel?

3. Which of these things would you need a remedy for:

- a broken leg
- to ride your bike
- a sore throat
- to call your grandfather on the phone
- if you had an earache
- to go shopping
- if you had a fever
- to climb a tree

You’ve all done a wonderful job discussing our new words today!

**Extend Throughout the Week**

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Let’s read *A Bad Case of Stripes* again today. Who can remind me what happens in our story?

[prompt students to retell the story and give feedback]

Re-Identify the Words

Here are our words to listen for:

1. ‘examine’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
2. ‘announced’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word],
3. ‘remedies’ [show printed word on card and signal students to repeat the word].

Good! What are you going to do when you hear one of the words while I’m reading? Yes, show me a thumbs-up.

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]

[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them and re-read the sentence with the word.]

Yes, you heard the word ‘examine / announced / remedies!’ Let’s read that sentence again.

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s remember our words and what they mean.

1. Our first word is ‘examine’ [show word card]. Someone remind me what ‘examine’ means. [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

2. The next word is ‘announced’ [show word card]. Who can tell me what ‘announced’ means? [Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]
3. And now the word ‘remedies.’ Tell us what ‘remedies’ means.
[Prompt students to explain the meaning in their own words, giving feedback and support as needed.]

Great job remembering those words! Now let’s think about those words and talk about how we can use them.

1. Think about the word ‘examine’ to finish my sentences:
   ~ Mom said she was going to examine our hands before dinner because…
   ~ The doctor said he was going to examine my eyes to make sure that…
   ~ Because we were new to this town, we examined the map so that…

2. Which of these things should be announced? Answer by saying, “that should be announced!”
   – That school will be closed next month
   – That you forgot to bring your jacket
   – That you ate pizza for dinner last night
   – That the bus will be late
   – That the sky is blue
   – That it’s raining outside and we should stay in the classroom

3. Here are some more sentences to finish for the word “remedies:”
   ~ Carlos needed a remedy for his brother’s headache, so he called… and asked…
   ~ Jane knew her mother would be mad that she broke the picture frame so she looked for a remedy to…
   ~ My best friend was feeling sick, so I looked for a remedy that would…

Excellent job talking about our words today!

*Extend Throughout the Week*

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
Re-Introduce the Book

Today we are going to read *A Bad Case of Stripes* one more time.

Re-Identify the Words

Who can tell me what words we are going to listen for?
[As students say each word, repeat it and show the word card.]

Re-Read the Book

[Read the book straight through today, stopping for questions if students initiate them.]
[When students signal that they heard one of the target words, acknowledge them by asking which word they heard.]

Review and Discuss the Words

Let’s practice our words one more time today.

1. Which of these things could help you examine something?
   - a magnifying glass
   - binoculars
   - a brush
   - glasses
   - a mirror
   - a cookie
   - shoes
   - a microscope

2. Think about the word ‘announced’ to finish my sentences:
   ~ When I saw that the basketball had a hole in it, I announced that…
   ~ When the man announced that the plane was going to be late taking us to my grandmother’s house, I knew that…
   ~ When I saw some kids playing near the tree with a beehive in it, I announced…

3. What kind of remedy would you need if you…
… skinned your knee?
… burned your finger?
… broke a toy?
… stubbed your toe?
… had a runny nose?
… had a toothache?

* Now let’s think about all 3 of our new words: examine, announced, remedies.

- Which word goes with ‘fix’?
- Which word goes with ‘look at’?
- Which word goes with ‘say loudly’?

~ If your brother announced that he bumped his head, what kind of remedies would you give him?
~ If your mom announced that she needed to examine the garden, what might she do next?
~ If you wanted to figure out how a grasshopper jumps would you examine his legs or remedies his legs?

Excellent work with our words this week! Try to use them at home tonight and tell us about it tomorrow.

**Extend Throughout the Week**

[Continue extension prompts and activities throughout the week.]
### APPENDIX E
### IMPLEMENTATION OBSERVATION FORM

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<th>Teacher and School:</th>
<th>Group Condition:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
<td>Group Condition:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Observer:</td>
<td>Book and Day in Lesson Series: (Day 1 – 4)</td>
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<th>The teacher delivered each instructional element:</th>
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<tr>
<td>* Introduced story and targeted words</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Read story</td>
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<td>* Asked questions before and during reading</td>
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<td>* Defined targeted words</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Provided visual demonstrations of words</td>
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<td>* Provided additional examples in other contexts</td>
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<td>* Guided discussion activities about the words</td>
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<td>* Prompted students to say targeted words</td>
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</table>

| Other observations:                             |      |      |         |      |           |

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APPENDIX F
COMPARISON MATRIX OF STUDIES REVIEWED
## Frequency of Exposures to Words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Authors</th>
<th>Age of Participants</th>
<th># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beck, Perfetti, &amp; McKeown (1982)</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; grade</td>
<td>NOT a read-aloud study; Some exposures vs. many exposures (many = 16-22 additional exposures); Whole class</td>
<td>More exposures resulted in higher increases in learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKeown, Beck, Omanson, &amp; Perfetti (1983)</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; grade</td>
<td>NOT a read-aloud study; no exposures vs. some exp. vs. many exp. (0 vs. 10-18 vs. 26-40); Whole class</td>
<td>At least 10 exposures necessary for building vocab knowledge and comp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKeown, Beck, Omanson, &amp; Pople (1985)</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; grade</td>
<td>NOT a read-aloud study; 0 vs. 4 vs. 12 exposures; Whole class</td>
<td>Successive increase in learning with increase in exposures; more always better than fewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stahl &amp; Fairbanks (1986)</td>
<td>Meta-analysis; participants in included studies ranged from 2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; grade to college; majority were intermediate elementary grades</td>
<td>Range from 1-2 to multiple; Mix of group and indiv.</td>
<td>Found that 1-2 exposures not enough, more than 2 exposures had more effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eller, Pappas, &amp; Brown (1988)</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>2 books, 3 readings each; Individual sessions</td>
<td>Found increase in vocab use over subsequent readings; no info about how many exposures is optimum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elley (1989)</td>
<td>7-8 yr olds</td>
<td>1 book, 3 readings; Whole class</td>
<td>found 15% increase in vocab scores; multiple repetitions of words in the book contributed to learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Authors and Year</td>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sénéchal &amp; Cornell (1993)</td>
<td>4-5 yr olds</td>
<td>1 reading; Individual sessions</td>
<td>Even a single reading increased receptive vocab; higher increases for 5 year olds than 4 yr olds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbins &amp; Ehri (1994)</td>
<td>5-6 yr olds</td>
<td>2 readings; Individual sessions</td>
<td>Moderate, significant increases in receptive vocab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sénéchal, Thomas, &amp; Monker (1995)</td>
<td>4 year olds</td>
<td>2 readings in 2 days; Individual sessions</td>
<td>Increases in receptive vocab for those with higher initial vocabs only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brett, Rothlein, &amp; Hurley (1996)</td>
<td>4th grade</td>
<td>1 reading; Whole class</td>
<td>Found no effects on vocab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sénéchal (1997)</td>
<td>3-4 yr olds</td>
<td>1 and 3 readings; Individual sessions</td>
<td>3 readings had higher impact on both receptive and expressive vocab than 1 reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penno, Wilkinson, &amp; Moore (2002)</td>
<td>5-8 yr olds</td>
<td>3 readings; Small groups</td>
<td>Accuracy of retelling and ability to use targeted vocab words increased after each successive reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coyne, Simmons, Kame’enui, &amp; Stoolmiller (2004)</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>2 readings;</td>
<td>Exposure to vocab through reading a story with no additional instruction was not effective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Justice, Meier, &amp; Walpole (2005)</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>10 books, 4 readings each; small groups (3-6)</td>
<td>Words that were only encountered incidentally in story reading sessions resulted in minimal gains in vocab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biemiller &amp; Boote (2006)</td>
<td>Kindergarten – 2nd grade</td>
<td>2 vs. 4 readings; Whole class</td>
<td>K and 1st had increases in vocab with 4 readings; 2nd only had increases with 2 readings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coyne, McCoach, &amp; Kapp (2007)</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>3 readings; Small groups (3-4)</td>
<td>No differences in knowledge of target words taught only through incidental exposure in storybook</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Simple Instruction – Repeating Text and Explaining Meanings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Age of Participants</th>
<th># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</th>
<th>Explanations or Definitions</th>
<th>Repeating Words, Sentences, Student Speech</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>McKeown (1993)</td>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>NOT a read-aloud study; Whole class</td>
<td>revised definitions vs. dictionary definitions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Revised definitions more effective for S’s in understanding word meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elley (1989)</td>
<td>8 yr olds</td>
<td>3 readings in one week; Whole class</td>
<td>Reading with explanations of words vs. reading with no explanations vs. no reading control</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Increases in vocab in both treatment groups, higher increases in reading with explanations group, learning maintained 3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sénéchal &amp; Cornell (1993)</td>
<td>4-5 yr olds</td>
<td>1 reading; Individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Recasting – repeated sentence replacing target word with synonym vs. repeating – exact repetition of sentence with target word</td>
<td>Repeating or recasting sentences containing target words did not increase vocab more than reading without instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dickinson &amp; Smith (1994)</td>
<td>4 yr olds</td>
<td>1 reading; Whole class</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Comparison of reading styles that included: Analytic talk vs. choral reading and repeating vs. follow-up retell and making connections</td>
<td>Choral repetition of phrases did not contribute to learning vocab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Explanations or Definitions</td>
<td>Repeating Words, Sentences, Student Speech</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sénéchal, Thomas, &amp; Monker (1995)</td>
<td>4 yr olds</td>
<td>2 readings; Individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Sentences containing target words were repeated during book reading</td>
<td>Little effect on vocab when only adult repeated the target words during the reading session</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brett, Rothlein, &amp; Hurley (1996)</td>
<td>4th grade</td>
<td>2 books, 1 reading each; Whole class</td>
<td>Story read with explanations of target word and example of use</td>
<td>Repeating sentence containing target word was included in the explanation</td>
<td>Higher vocab scores after story reading session and 6 weeks later than students who only heard the story and control group who did not hear story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penno, Wilkinson, &amp; Moore (2002)</td>
<td>5-8 yr olds</td>
<td>2 books, 3 readings each; Small groups</td>
<td>Explanations of 10 target words within context of story during reading vs. no explanation control group</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Found increases in vocab for students in explanations group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Han, Roskos, Christie, Mandzuk, &amp; Vukelich (2005)</td>
<td>Head Start</td>
<td>NOT a read-aloud study; Whole class</td>
<td>General classroom instruction included defining and explaining words, and pointing out features of a word</td>
<td>General classroom instruction included prompting students to repeat words</td>
<td>Students in classes with teachers using these instructional features produced more language and higher vocabulary scores</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Explanations or Definitions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Justice, Meier, &amp; Walpole (2005)</td>
<td>Kindergarten 10 books, 4 readings each; Small groups (3-6)</td>
<td>Upon hearing them in story, 30 target words defined and used in example sentence vs. 30 additional target words only heard in story with no elaboration</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Significant vocab gains for elaborated words compared to minimal gains for words with only incidental exposure; effects were strongest for low initial vocab S’s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biemiller &amp; Boote (2006)</td>
<td>Kindergarten, 1st grade, 2nd grade 2 vs. 4 readings; Whole class</td>
<td>During subsequent re-readings of books, target word meanings were explained or reviewed during reading of story</td>
<td>Instruction included repeating sentence containing target word</td>
<td>Found large increases in vocab knowledge with effects still present 4 weeks later</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coyne, McCoach, &amp; Kapp (2007)</td>
<td>Kindergarten 3 readings; Small groups</td>
<td>“embedded instruction” included definitions of target words during story reading “embedded instruction” included repeating sentence containing target word and replacing the word with its definition</td>
<td>Found minimal increases in word learning with only “embedded instruction”</td>
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</table>
### Active Participation by the Child

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Age of Participants</th>
<th># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</th>
<th>Explanations or Definitions</th>
<th>Repeating Words, Sentences, Student Speech</th>
<th>Questioning</th>
<th>Discussion</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sénéchal &amp; Cornell (1993)</td>
<td>4-5 yr olds</td>
<td>1 reading; Individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>One condition included the adult repeating the sentence containing the target word and substituting a synonym</td>
<td>One condition included the adult asking “what” and “where” questions about target words; One condition included adult repeating the sentence with the target word</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>No increases in vocab in any condition except book reading with no instruction; in this case, active participation did not influence vocab learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dickinson &amp; Smith (1994)</td>
<td>4 yr olds; Low SES</td>
<td>Story reading sessions in classroom spanning entire year; Whole class</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Comparison of reading styles that included: choral reading and repeating (didactic-interactional)</td>
<td>Comparison of reading styles that included: Simple recall questions (didactic-interactional)</td>
<td>Comparison of reading styles that included: Analytic talk (co-constructive) vs. follow-up retell and making connections (performance-oriented)</td>
<td>Simple recall questions did not effect vocab; teacher and peer discussion and analytical talk about the story and words used effected substantial increases in vocab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sénéchal, Thomas, &amp; Monker (1995)</td>
<td>4 yr olds</td>
<td>2 readings; individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>One condition included adult repeating the sentence containing the target word</td>
<td>One condition included adult asking student to point to pictures depicting the target word; One condition included adult asking labeling questions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Children who answered pointing or labeling questions had higher receptive vocab than those who only heard the story; children who answered labeling questions had higher expressive vocab than all others – indicates that the child saying the word may be important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Explanations or Definitions</td>
<td>Repeating Words, Sentences, Student Speech</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sénéchal (1997)</td>
<td>3-4 yr olds 1 or 3 readings; individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Conditions included single reading only vs. 3 readings only vs. 3 readings with labeling questions</td>
<td>Comments from children neither encouraged or discouraged</td>
<td>Repeated readings had effect on receptive and expressive vocab; active participation through labeling questions was beneficial to expressive vocab, but not to receptive; again, the child pronouncing the word seems to be important</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hargrave &amp; Sénéchal (2000)</td>
<td>3-5 yr olds 10 books, 2 readings each; Small groups (8) in schools and individual at home</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Teacher behavior during read-alouds included repeating S’s speech 7x more often than T’s in control group</td>
<td>Teacher behavior included “wh” questions 12x more than T’s in control group</td>
<td>T’s and Parents trained in dialogic reading techniques that include open ended questions and discussion of children’s comments</td>
<td>Found no differences in receptive vocab, but significant gains in expressive vocab for dialogic reading group; found the “wh” questions to most used aspect of dialogic reading strategy; noted that this small group size was effective for strategy implementation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walsh &amp; Blewitt (2006)</td>
<td>3 yr olds 3 books, 2 readings each; Individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Eliciting questions (prompt student to answer using target word) vs. non-eliciting questions (target word not required to answer question) vs. no questions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Found asking questions during reading effective for increasing vocab knowledge; type of question (eliciting vs. non-eliciting) did not matter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Explanations or Definitions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whitehurst et al., (1988)</td>
<td>21-35 months</td>
<td>Read 3-4 x/week for 4 weeks, each book one time; One-on-one sessions with parent</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Parents trained to give feedback to child about their language use by repeating, extending, and elaborating the child’s speech</td>
<td>Parents trained to use questions that encourage children to talk more rather than give one word or yes/no answer</td>
<td>Parents trained to encourage child to talk about the book and to increase their expectations for language as the child develops</td>
<td>Found that increasing these interactions during shared story reading accelerated children’s language development and prompted child to produce more language (higher MLU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitehurst, Arnold et al., (1994)</td>
<td>3 yr olds</td>
<td>10 minutes daily; small groups</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Teacher’s used Dialogic Reading structure that uses both questioning and discussion with the goal of eliciting more language and increasing student’s active participation</td>
<td>Found dialogic reading at home and school to be effective for increasing vocab and language development; effects still present at posttest 6 months later</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitehurst, Epstein et al., (1994)</td>
<td>4 yr olds</td>
<td>2+ readings, 3-5 x/week; small groups in classroom, one-on-one at home</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Dialogic Reading</td>
<td>Found increases in language skill only in group experiencing both home and school dialogic reading sessions; indicates that one-on-one interactions are important, small groups may not be sufficient during PreK years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitehurst et al., (1999)</td>
<td>Head Start</td>
<td>2+ readings, 3-5 x/week; small groups in classroom, one-on-one at home</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Dialogic Reading*</td>
<td>*intervention also included an in-school curriculum emphasizing phonemic awareness and the alphabetic principle</td>
<td>Found increases in emergent literacy skills including both receptive and expressive vocab; increases remained at end of K, but no longer evident in reading achievement scores at end of 1st or 2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reese &amp; Cox (1999)</td>
<td>4 yr olds</td>
<td>32 books, 6 weeks; individual sessions</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Comparison of reading styles that included: Describer – questions and discussion that focused on labeling descriptions of pictures Comprehender – questions and discussion that focused on making predictions and inferences about plot and characters Performance-oriented – questions and discussion before/after reading (not during) focused on child responses and relating experiences</td>
<td>Found describer style overall most effective for building receptive vocab; style interacted with initial vocab levels – S’s with low initial vocab gained most from describer style while S’s with higher initial vocab gained most from perf.-oriented style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brabham &amp; Lynch-Brown (2002)</td>
<td>1st and 3rd grade</td>
<td>2 books, 3 readings each; whole group</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Comparison of reading styles that included: – just reading – no comments or questions – performance – questions and comments about words in the story and story details and events, before and after reading only – interactional – questions and comments about words in the story and story details and events throughout reading session</td>
<td>All styles had an effect on vocab, interactional had highest effects; concluded that most gains occurred when discussions about words occurred during the reading, not at the end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKeown &amp; Beck (2003)</td>
<td>Kindergarten, 1st grade</td>
<td>25 book reading sessions; whole class</td>
<td>Teachers used Text Talk as an instructional framework for structuring read-aloud sessions; strategies included explaining word meanings, questioning, elaborating and extending student responses, discussion</td>
<td>Found T’s ask many more open-ended questions when using Text Talk; these questions prompt longer responses from S’s and more original thinking/less reliance on the text</td>
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<tr>
<td>Beck &amp; McKeown (2007)</td>
<td>Kindergarten, 1st grade; low SES</td>
<td>36 books, 10 weeks; whole class</td>
<td>Text Talk (&quot;rich instruction&quot; condition)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>S’s who participated in Text Talk lessons learned more words than comparison group; Text Talk allowed S’s to gain deeper level of knowledge about the words, their meanings, and uses</td>
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</table>
“Rich…, Extended…, Robust…” – Combinations of Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Studies</th>
<th>Age of Participants</th>
<th># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</th>
<th>Explanations or Definitions</th>
<th>Repeating Words, Sentences, Student Speech</th>
<th>Questioning</th>
<th>Discussion</th>
<th>Using Context</th>
<th>Rich Instruction</th>
<th>Extended Instruction</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weizman &amp; Snow (2001)</td>
<td>5 yr olds; Low SES</td>
<td>5 language interactions: toy play, reading storybooks, mealtime, magnet play, reading informational books; Mother/child pairs</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Found that book reading sessions contained talk with most wpm and most sophisticated vocab; vocab at 5 yrs strongly related to amount of sophisticated words exposed to and how much interaction/instruction about those words the child received; predicted vocab scores in K and 2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKeown, Beck, Omanson, &amp; Pople (1985)</td>
<td>4th grade</td>
<td>High (12) vs. Low (4) vs. No (0) encounters with each word</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Found all types of instruction better than no instruction, but no differences between types; richness of instruction better for integrating words in context; extended instruction better for faster processing times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beck &amp; McKeown (2007)</td>
<td>Kindergarten – 1st grade; low SES</td>
<td>Ratio of 5 vs. 20 exposures to each word for rich instruction vs. more rich instruction 10 weeks</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Found extended instruction to be most effective; S’s learned words at a faster rate than S’s receiving only initial rich instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study</td>
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<td>Questioning</td>
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<td>Rich Instruction</td>
<td>Extended Instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wasik &amp; Bond (2001)</td>
<td>4 yr olds</td>
<td>1-2 readings each book; whole class</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Found S’s learned more words when T’s offered rich contexts for learning word meanings and multiple opportunities to hear and use the words when compared to just reading the book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wasik, Bond, &amp; Hindman (2006)</td>
<td>2–4 yr olds; low SES</td>
<td>2 readings each book; whole class</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Found children in intervention group had larger vocab at posttest than children in control group – both receptive and expressive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coyne, Simmons, Kame’enui, &amp; Stoolmiller (2004)</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>2 books, 2 readings each over 6 days; whole class</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Storybook reading intervention found to be effective; S’s with low initial receptive vocab learned more explicitly taught vocab than S’s in control group (but groups the same on untaught vocab); concluded that this intervention can help S’s with low initial vocab knowledge catch up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Participants</td>
<td># of Readings / Exposures, Group Size</td>
<td>Explanations or Definitions</td>
<td>Repeating Words, Sentences, Student Speech</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Using Context</td>
<td>Rich Instruction</td>
<td>Extended Instruction</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coyne, McCoach, &amp; Kapp (2007)</td>
<td>Kindergarten, 3 readings; small groups</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>found substantial effects for this type extended instruction both when compared to incidental exposure through reading and simple instruction embedded within reading; also found differential effects for S’s with higher and lower initial vocab scores meaning for S’s with higher initial vocab scores, instruction was more beneficial/effective than it was for S’s with lower initial vocab scores</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Incidental exposure vs. Embedded instruction vs. Extended instruction

Embedded instruction – consisted of explaining simple definitions of target words while reading story, S’s pronouncing the word, T. rereading sentence replacing target word with definition

Extended instruction – included embedded instruction during story reading AND activities after reading including discussion of the word and meaning, creating sentences with the word, how to use/not use the word, open-ended questions, corrective feedback, frequent exposures to the word and opportunities to use the word
LIST OF REFERENCES


BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Caitlin Gallowe was born in 1976 in North Canton, Ohio. Moving at age five, she grew up in Jacksonville, Florida and graduated from Mandarin High School in 1994. She then began her undergraduate education at the University of Florida where she entered the Unified Early Childhood Education Program. Caitlin graduated from UF in 2000 with a Master of Education. After graduation, Caitlin taught kindergarten for four years in two public elementary schools: North Sumter Primary School, in Wildwood, Florida, and Charles W. Duval Fine Arts Academy, in Gainesville, Florida. In 2004, Caitlin returned to the University of Florida to pursue a doctoral degree in early childhood education.

Upon graduation in August of 2009, Caitlin will begin the fall semester as an instructional faculty member in the College of Education at UF where her responsibilities will include teaching reading methods courses to early childhood and elementary preservice teachers. Her research interests include emergent literacy development and early literacy curriculum, particularly vocabulary, phonological awareness, and reading aloud to children. Caitlin is a member of several professional organizations dedicated to improving education for all children, including the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the Council for Exceptional Children, the International Reading Association, and the American Educational Research Association.

Caitlin is blessed with a loving and close relationship with her family. She lives with her husband, Robert, and their three-year-old daughter, Danielle, in Gainesville, Florida. She spends time frequently with her parents, Mary Lou and Bob Porteus, and her brothers, Bobby and Andrew.