Changing Participation in Guided Interactive Shared Reading: A Study of Early Childhood Teachers' Implementation and Children's Engagement

Nanci Lynn Waterhouse

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Changing Participation in Guided Interactive Shared Reading: A Study of Early Childhood Teachers’ Implementation and Children’s Engagement

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M.Ed. Early Childhood Education

Submitted in partial fulfillment for the degree of

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Curriculum and Instruction and Literacy Studies at

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Abstract

Changing Participation in Guided Interactive Shared Reading: A Study of Early Childhood Teachers’ Implementation and Children’s Engagement

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In the context of a pilot project to implement program-wide change by integrating academic and behavioral supports through an early childhood multi-tiered system of support, one program was challenged to strengthen two process components of its model: 1) the implementation of an evidence-informed approach to shared reading as recommended in their newly adopted curriculum and 2) the provision of effective professional development (PD) in support of practice implementation. The embedded case study describes the impact of a PD model on two teachers’ attempts to integrate dialogic reading (Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998) and related strategies in a whole class setting through a guided interactive shared reading (GISR) routine in each of their classrooms.

The PD components included a combination of training, video observation, self-reflection and distance coaching. These components align with recommendations in the literature to: avoid a training only model; maintain a balance between knowledge and practice (Zaslow, Tout, Halle & Starr (2011); and use a relationship based approach to early childhood professional development (Howes, Hamre & Pianta, 2012). The question investigated in this study was: How did the PD effort shape teachers’ participation in GISR; and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation? I utilize Rogoff’s (2003) transformation of participation
perspective grounded in sociocultural theory to analyze the changing participation of teachers and children in the GISR sessions, and the changing dynamic of their interactions across the intervention period. Findings suggest the PD model influenced teacher’s implementation of GISR with regard to their prompt use and group engagement strategies. Subsequently, the amount and sophistication of children’s story related talk changed and they demonstrated higher levels of engagement.
Dedication

To my beloved children: Walker, Rhiannon and Tristan. Thank you for understanding, cheering me on, reluctantly following a chore chart, and being resilient. You are my heart, my joy, and passion. May you always reach for your dreams. May you find love, joy and happiness in all that you choose. I dedicate this labor of love to you. Hokšiye na c’unkši čhaŋt kiyapi, pila’maye.
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To Marcia Hansen, my first pre-school director, thank you for teaching me how to talk to kids so long ago. To those involved in the EC MTSS project and to the individuals in the program who took a chance on participating in this project, I am forever grateful and hopeful that our work added to your lives and the lives of the children in the program. And to all of the families and children I have had the opportunity to work with over the years, it has been an honor to be a part of your lives. Every child and every class has greatly influenced my life trajectory to this point and will continue to do so.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Context of the Study

Responding to changes in educational policy in recent years, states have increasingly engaged in system wide change using a tiered model (multi-tiered systems of support or MTSS) in an effort to more accurately identify and respond to children who are at risk either academically or behaviorally. The use and success of the tiered model is well documented in the research in both Response to Intervention (RTI) (Hoover, Baca, Wexler-Love, & Saenz, 2008) and Positive Behavior Supports (PBS) (Bradshaw, 2008; Sugai & Horner, 2006) and is beginning to take hold in early childhood programs (Bayatt, Mindes, & Covitt, 2010; Coleman, Roth & West, 2009; Duda, Dunlap, Fox, Lentini, & Cark, 2004). With parallel processes at play, efforts to more fully integrate systems and supports for academic development and social emotional development are underway, with some early documented successes.

The integration is especially critical in the early years, where it is well documented that early social emotional development is closely linked to academic outcomes, and even more crucial to ensure the implementation of MTSS is early childhood appropriate (NAEYC, DEC, NHSA, 2012; see also Greenwood, Bradfield, Kaminski, Linus, Carta, & Nylander, 2011). Despite the connections between academic and social emotional development, tiered systems of support have often reflected a siloed separation between the academic and behavioral realms. In the adoption of a tiered model, it may be valuable to illuminate components within particular evidence based strategies that inherently support social, emotional and academic (specifically early literacy) development to avoid compartmentalization. Identifying strategies that support both of these realms could help teachers be strategic in their efforts to support a wider range of child needs in day-to-day, whole group instruction, offsetting the need to implement intensive small group or individual instruction.
In an MTSS model, a team-based problem solving approach is used in conjunction with intentional, data informed decisions to determine how practices are impacting children academically and behaviorally. There are three tiers that provide a framework for the system. Tier one provides a strong foundation through high quality instruction, which includes a variety of developmentally appropriate learning formats and an evidence-informed curriculum delivered by high quality teachers (NAEYC, 2009). The purpose of tier one is to provide core or universal support through intentional teaching and thoughtful use of data to decrease the amount and intensity of interventions (DEC, NAEYC, & NHSA, 2013). Children for whom the tier one level instruction is not fully effective are provided with tier two, or targeted support. Finally, children for whom tier two supports are not fully effective are provided with more specialized and individualized support and related services (tier three). The intensity and individualization of the interventions increase with each tier in the model (Bayat, Mindes, & Covitt, 2010). Bayat, Mindes, and Covitt, authors of a case study on integrating PBS and RTI through MTSS (2010), suggest the emphasis of RTI in early childhood could be on “alleviating risk factors as they relate to social emotional competence” (p. 493). In other words, a MTSS in early childhood could emphasize prevention (Greenwood, Bradfield, Kaminski, Linas, Carta, & Nylander, 2011).

Early childhood (EC) programs working towards implementation of this model might consider the added risk factors associated with the impact of poverty on young children who are more likely to experience school difficulties with regard to language skills (Hart & Risley, 1995), academic skills (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998) and social emotional skills (CSEFL, n.d.) and the high prevalence of these risk factors (NICHD Early Childcare Research Network, 2002) with the children in their care. Accordingly, many students may need support in several realms, and in a group with children living in poverty, it is particularly important that these supports are implemented at the tier one level of instruction, as a part of the core curriculum. Pedagogies that
simultaneously support students’ academic learning and social-emotional development are therefore especially invaluable in such contexts.

The need for stronger universal (tier one) supports is documented by low scores nationally (Advisory Committee on Head Start Research and Evaluation, August 2012) not only in Head Start programs, but in early childhood programs as a whole, on the instructional practices domain of the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS) Pre-K (Pianta, LaParo, & Hamre, 2008). With much attention on providing strategic and intensive supports, teachers, coaches and administrators can feel like they are chasing their proverbial tails, trying to meet the needs of all of their children with limited staff and budgets. A deeper look at adapting interventions for large groups of students (primary interventions: Fox, Carta, Strain, Dunlap, & Hemmeter, 2009) may help programs build a stronger foundation for all children, without additional resources. With stronger foundational supports in place, the need to intervene with targeted or intensive supports should decrease.

Research suggests certain components contribute to the implementation of a multi-tiered system of support (leadership teams, program wide expectations, data-based decision making and more). Two of these components are pivotal in implementing program wide change: 1) the implementation of evidence-based (and developmentally appropriate) classroom practices and 2) professional development, which includes not only training, but support in the form of mentorship and coaching to implement the practices (Cimino, Forest, Smith & Stainback-Tracy, 2007; Coleman, Roth, & West, 2009; Fox & Hemmeter, 2009). Due to funding and time constraints, many early childhood programs find themselves unable to adequately provide the mentorship and support needed for teachers to fully and reflectively implement changes to their instructional practice. Creative approaches to providing support for early childhood teachers are
needed alongside knowledge of effective practices (Advisory Committee on Head Start Research and Evaluation, August 2012).

**Role of Reading Aloud with Young Children**

A widespread classroom practice in early childhood programs is the provision of multiple opportunities for reading aloud to children, often referred to as shared reading (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011). A few decades ago, simply the act of reading to a child was recommended as a benefit for young children’s early literacy development (Anderson, Hiebet, Scott & Wilkenson, 1985); more recent research on the benefits of interactive styles of shared reading indicate that inhibiting interaction during read aloud could potentially be detrimental to early literacy development (Burgess, 2002; Greene Brabham & Lynch Brown, 2002; Lawrence & Snow, 2011; Scarborough & Dobrich, 1994).

**Dialogic Reading**

Dialogic reading (DR) is a method for guiding shared and interactive small group reading sessions that embed the practice of repeated and interactive readings (What Works Clearinghouse, 2007). The method involves a flexible process (remembered by the acronym PEER which stands for *prompt, evaluate, expand and repeat*) to encourage vocabulary and concept development through dialogue. DR has been found to positively impact oral language and vocabulary development for young children (Whitehurst, Arnold, Epstein, Angell, Smith, & Fischel, 1994; Whitehurst, Epstein, Angell, Payne, Crone, & Fischel, 1994;).

Dialogic reading has been primarily used in one-on-one and small group settings, and thus, research on DR has also focused on these formats. In one study, Wasik & Bond (2001) implemented an interactive reading intervention with whole groups of children that was similar in nature to dialogic reading. The authors did not specify DR as the method being employed, but they utilized many DR elements (i.e. teaching, and using book vocabulary; asking open ended
questions; and providing opportunities to talk and be heard). Studying dialogic reading with whole groups of children has the potential to both impact policy in early childhood programs and to improve the literature base on effective read aloud practices.

**Guided Interactive Shared Reading**

Interestingly, the teacher moves embedded in the dialogic reading method parallel recommendations for facilitating teacher-child interactions and promoting child engagement, both of which are found to be predictors of later academic achievement and social emotional well being. These findings suggest dialogic reading, as an approach to interactive reading, has the potential to enhance and support teachers’ instructional practices, by guiding teachers toward positive interactions and promoting child engagement during whole group shared reading experiences.

Reaffirming this vision for shared reading, Cunningham & Zibulsky (2011) state:

“…we would be remiss not to highlight the fact that the quality of the attachment relationship between the adult and the child interacts with quantitative variables… As we discuss the skills required for reading acquisition, we should not lose sight of the fact that the shared reading experience is valuable not only for its potential to influence learning but also because it can be a vehicle for developing and sustaining interpersonal relationships, creating opportunities for shared discourse, and helping children see reading as an enjoyable and social process” (p. 399).

In the design of this study, I proposed that the components embedded in dialogic reading (DR) could be used in concert with other evidenced informed read aloud practices to help teachers intentionally reflect on the tools they used to guide dialogue, facilitate engagement and therefore improve children’s learning. Drawing on the work of Rogoff (2003), I emphasized change in participation as an indicator of learning and therefore drew attention to the tools that
facilitated participation and engagement in the sociocultural activity of Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR)—including components of DR.

**Perspective of the Researcher**

My personal interest in the intersection between social/emotional competence and literacy learning comes partially from my years spent as a teacher in both preschools and elementary schools serving children of varying backgrounds and experiences. The other part is from my perspective as a parent of a child on the autism spectrum, who first opened my eyes to the need to understand the complexities of our social world, and the role of communication, both verbal and non-verbal in our ability to participate in it.

For the past decade, I have studied both early childhood and literacy development first as a classroom practitioner, then as a college instructor of reading methods, and finally as a researcher. Coupled with my parenting experiences, these opportunities strengthened my belief in the pivotal role adults play in fostering language and literacy development in early childhood. The skills acquired during this formative period are foundational not only for success academically, but also socially and culturally, as they provide access through the sharing of communication and have great potential to even the playing field for children at risk due to poverty or other factors.

In my current work, I focus on building resiliency in young children, and providing training and technical assistance to child serving institutions. In service of this position, I am co-coordinator of an EC MTSS implementation project for the state, which placed me in the position to support one early childhood program in rural Western Montana’s implementation of a dialogic informed interactive reading method (GISR) to refine the program’s current practice of a daily read aloud routine and their initial attempts to embed repeated readings into this routine.
Purpose

This embedded case study documented the professional development that occurred through training, video-observation, self-reflection and distance coaching to implement Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR), an adaptation of dialogic reading for use in whole group read aloud routines, in two early childhood classrooms in a Head Start program. I proposed that teacher facilitated interactions with children are at the heart of learning during read aloud routines, and therefore, provide fertile soil for growth across both academic and social/emotional domains of learning. The purpose of the professional development was to support teachers in the use of tools during read aloud routines that could work in concert with the newly adopted curriculum, and ultimately influence children’s learning. This study was meant to document the changes that occurred for both teachers and children to better understand how the embedded tools mediated learning.

Participants

Two teachers and their classes of primarily four year olds became the study participants, nested within a Head Start Program in rural Western Montana. Each class became an embedded case with the potential to shed light on what change was occurring over time.

The Question

To better understand how the training tools and strategies embedded in GISR impacted learning, I asked the question: How did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR); and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation?

Organization of the Dissertation

In this first chapter, I provided an overview of the study by summarizing the importance of the work, establishing a context, introducing the purpose and the question that guided my
inquiry, and therefore my understanding of what changes occurred over time for both teachers and children implementing GISR in both case classrooms. In Chapter Two, I highlight key research and theoretical underpinnings that guided my thinking and decision making over the course of the study and throughout the analysis. Chapter Three contains two sections: the methods used to design and implement the professional development and collect data and a second section describing the methods of analysis. Chapter Four describes the findings regarding the changing participation of both teachers and children during the Guided Interactive Shared Reading sessions in both case classrooms.

I organize Chapter Five into two sections: Cross-Case Interpretations and Discussion. In the first section, I interpret the findings regarding the changing dynamic of the teacher-child interactions from a cross-case perspective. In the discussion section, I summarize the findings, assign meaning locally, discuss larger implications, and highlight future directions for study. It is my hope that by reading this dissertation you will understand not only the outcome of the study, but also the story of our experiences (mine as the researcher, trainer and coach; and the teachers’ in the case classrooms); and a little about the value added for the children in the program. Enjoy.
CHAPTER TWO: THE LITERATURE

The creation of Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR) as a model for conducting interactive read aloud sessions in early childhood classrooms, the professional development model implemented, and my understandings regarding the cases being described in this dissertation, are grounded in literature across several areas. Though diverse in topic, the research reviewed here is primarily drawn from the fields of psychology, education, and early childhood education. In this chapter I will provide a synthesis of areas of literature that most directly inform my research. Through this process, I elucidate the framework and rationale for this study.

According to Boote and Beile (2005), a quality literature review not only clearly synthesizes the literature relevant to the study, but also identifies specifically what will be excluded. In an effort to honor this guideline, I will briefly describe the exclusions as well. The chapter begins with a description of the theoretical underpinnings of the study, first summarizing sociocultural theory and then specifically Rogoff’s (2003) transformation of participation model.

Based on this conceptualization of learning, in this section, I describe relevant concepts from the research on early literacy and social-emotional development. It is not realistic to comprehensively address these, but an overview of both will be discussed, specifically with regard to their reciprocal impact on each other and on young children’s overall cognitive development and engagement. Indicators of children’s learning will be identified and defined from the engagement literature, but a comprehensive review of engagement literature is not included.

The third section of this chapter focuses on teachers’ participation, specifically in the context of teacher-child interactions. An intersecting point for literacy and social emotional development of young children is the importance of teacher-child interactions. The section will
define quality interactions and indicators that are being used broadly in the United States in an effort to increase the quality of our early childhood programs.

Next, I synthesize the literature on read aloud routines in early childhood, since it is the primary cultural activity under investigation in this dissertation. I also provide a summary of research on early childhood professional development, a cultural activity through which the teachers learn to take up the strategies embedded in Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR). I summarize the review provided in this chapter by explaining the influence of the literature on the design and analysis of the study.

**Theoretical Underpinnings**

In this section I explain the theoretical foundations for conceptualizing Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR), the development of the professional development activities, and the methods and analysis of this case study. The transformation of participation model (Rogoff, 2003) I highlight here is rooted in sociocultural theory (SCT). I first summarize my understandings regarding SCT and then describe the transformation of participation model.

**Sociocultural Theory: A Social Learning Perspective**

Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR) has strong roots in the social learning perspective, specifically SCT, with its emphasis on interactions (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Key points of inquiry when viewing literacy acquisition through a social learning perspective are focused on how students’ literacy learning is affected by their a) overall social community, b) social community in school settings, c) interactions with parents, d) interactions with peers, and e) interactions with teachers (Tracey & Morrow, 2006).

The theories that make up the social learning perspective vary slightly in their emphasis, but they all posit a conceptualization of literacy learning as a dynamic process that occurs via social interaction (e.g., Au, 1997; Rueda, 2011; Tracy & Morrow, 2007). Au (1997) explains
that sociocultural research on literacy learning “explores the teacher’s role as a mediator, the use of instructional scaffolding, and the social systems within which children learn” (p. 184). Vygotsky and other social constructivists posit that children’s learning is mediated by interactions with either adults or knowledgeable peers (Au, 1997; Rogoff, 1990).

Within this rich social context, children’s academic learning cannot be separated from their emotional experience, social development, or language (Gee, 2001; Rogoff, 1990). Intentional teaching incorporates observation and reflection of these in concert with each other. Careful, thoughtful, sometimes minute, decisions are made that influence children’s participation and responses—ultimately supporting the co-construction of learning through verbal and non-verbal interactions. Rogoff (1990) refers to this as guided participation.

Guided participation names the activity that occurs during interactions between children and in the context of this study: teachers, working collaboratively in an iterative learning process. The teacher’s role in the process is to build “bridges from children’s present understanding and skills to reach new understanding and skills” and to arrange and structure “children’s participation in activities, with dynamic shifts over development in children’s responsibilities” (Rogoff, 1990, p. 8). In other words, adults guide children’s learning through a scaffolding process and increasingly release responsibility for activities to them. Through guided participation, children participate in social and cultural activities, relying on “social resources for guidance—both support and challenge—in assuming increasingly skilled roles in the activities” (Rogoff, 1990, p. 8).

The Transformation of Participation Model

Rogoff’s work is especially helpful in conceptualizing an often broad and nebulous topic: children’s learning. She posits that traditional conceptions of children’s learning, in an attempt to isolate the variables that influence learning, isolate the child from the context of their learning
(2003). By thinking of learning as an event that occurs within the context of the cultural activities we participate in, it is feasible to imagine that learning can be observed through the level of involvement, or participation, an individual has in the activity and with the other participants.

Guided Participation occurs at the interpersonal plane of these activities, whereas individuals (the children and teachers independently) are also learning. Rogoff (2003) describes this personal level in terms of the action, or participation that changes, calling this participatory appropriation. In addition, an individual’s active participation in an activity is directly related to the process with which they gain facility over it. Rogoff states: “Learning is seen as a function of ongoing transformation of roles and understanding in the sociocultural activities in which one participates” (1994, p. 210).

Transformation of participation, or the change in how we interact and engage, then, is the indicator of development for individuals in an interpersonal context. In other words, one’s learning shapes and is shaped by the activities within which it occurs and with whom it occurs—it is therefore not an internal process occurring in isolation from its cultural context (Rogoff, 2003).

Within this model for understanding learning and development, Rogoff also identifies ways in which researchers can examine learning without isolation. By foregrounding, highlighting, or “zooming in” on what is occurring through different planes of analysis, researchers are better able to examine variables impacting learning. For example, one has the opportunity to foreground the personal plane and examine participatory appropriation with a teacher, maintaining the influence of the activity and relationship with the children in the background. Similarly, one can foreground the children’s participation with a teacher or peer at an interpersonal level while maintaining awareness of the personal plane of learning in the
background. The opportunity also exists to foreground the cultural-institutional plane, analyzing the processes and experiences of a school or organization, or broader community. At this level of analysis, from a transformation of participation perspective, the interpersonal and personal planes would not be excluded, just deemphasized for a particular analytic purpose.

It is through the transformation of participation model that this case study was designed and is described. I focus on learning that is occurring for both teachers and children in the context of their early childhood classrooms during GISR, a sociocultural activity. I foreground the personal plane of learning occurring for teachers in the context of their ongoing experiences during GISR, and then shift focus to the participation of children at the interpersonal plane to examine the learning occurring during the reading sessions. To further understand these experiences, I now synthesize key findings regarding early literacy and social emotional development that are relevant in the context of this model as it relates to the case study.

The Interwoven Nature of Literacy and Social-Emotional Development

The transformation of participation model can be helpful in recognizing the interrelatedness between children’s growth and development across the domains of literacy learning and social and emotional learning. The following sections will synthesize literature from both fields to highlight their overlap—especially with regard to language and communication.

Early Language and Literacy Development of Young Children

Leaders in the field of early literacy (e.g., Morrow, Tracey, & Del Nero, 2011) recognize the influence of sociocultural theory in early literacy learning, noting Marie Clay’s description of the interwoven nature of early literacy skills. Children’s literacy development begins long before they enter a classroom, starting with the initial sounds of speech in utero, then the communications they overhear and are directed toward them as infants and toddlers. Adults
respond to children’s early attempts at communication in a plethora of ways. The children learn to weed out their initial attempts that are not rewarded and are encouraged to continue communications that are rewarded. In short order, young children are using verbal and non-verbal cues with their adult partners, and soon speak in sentences similar, to their caregivers (Fernald & Weisleder, 2011). These early milestones are closely tied to children’s later literacy development where they learn that communication can occur in print as well as with speech (Morrow, Tracy & Del Nero, 2011; NELP, 2008).

Hart and Risley (1995), in their pivotal study on talk between young children and their caregivers, discovered socioeconomic status to have a notable impact on language development in young children. The authors led a study of the amount and variety of talk in the homes of 42 families spanning demographics and socioeconomics across the first three years of children’s lives. They were then able to longitudinally follow up with half of those families and their children during their elementary schooling. The results demonstrated a 30 million word gap for the children raised in homes in extreme poverty versus children with parents in professional positions (Hart & Risley, 1995). This disparity in oral language is not just in quantity, but in quality-through the development of vocabulary and syntax as well (Hart & Risley, 1995; Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011). The significance of this disparity is great considering the notable body of research documenting the impact of early oral language on later academic achievement (Lonigan, Burgess, & Anthony, 2000; NICHD Early Childcare Research Network, 2002; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

In 2008, the National Institute for Literacy released a report created by the National Early Literacy Panel (NELP) synthesizing the research on early literacy development and practices. In this report, Developing Early Literacy, the authors document that early literacy skills are predictive of later outcomes for young children. These early skills include: receptive and
expressive oral language, knowledge of the alphabetic code (including alphabet knowledge, phonemic and phonological awareness), use of invented spelling, print knowledge (including recognizing environmental print, concepts of print and name writing), and related skills such as rapid naming of letters and numbers, visual memory and visual perceptual abilities (NELP, 2008; Morrow, Tracy, & Del Nero, 2011).

Thoughtful use of read aloud routines in early childhood classrooms has the potential to impact each of these areas, with well documented research regarding the impact on expressive and receptive language, a precursor to later reading comprehension (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). This longstanding classroom routine is one venue for approaching complex cognitive tasks in a developmentally appropriate manner (Harris, Golinkoff, & Hirsh-Pasek, 2011) that honors the interwoven nature of early literacy.

**Social Emotional Development of Young Children**

The Head Start Child Development and Early Learning Framework, created in alignment with the National Education Goals Panel, indicates that pre-school children from three to five years old are developing skills regarding social relationships, self-concept and self-efficacy, self-regulation and emotional and behavioral health (DHHS, ACF, & OHS, 2010).

Because of this, social-emotional development is a key domain within the framework that guides instruction and practice in Head Start centers. The connection between healthy social development and cognitive and academic outcomes is highlighted by the National Child Traumatic Stress Network (National Child Traumatic Stress Network Schools Committee, 2008), who document and disseminate research on children affected by traumatic stress. In response to the deleterious effects of traumatic stress on children, network members Dr. Margeret Blaustein and Kristin Kinneburgh (2010) developed the ARC model, a treatment framework to counteract
the effects of adverse experiences on young children and build resiliency through the development of Attachment, self-Regulation, and Competency.

According to Blaustein & Kinneburgh (2010), attachment provides a foundation, which allows children to develop their ability to identify emotions, modulate, and safely express their emotions, each important components of self-regulation. These regulation skills are foundational in the development of competency. Therefore, the ability to form healthy attachments is necessary in the development of competence, which includes executive functioning skills (comprised of reasoning and problem solving—another key domain in the Head Start framework).

**Interrelated Effects of Social-Emotional and Cognitive Development**

Executive functioning, a key component of social competence, has been found to impact literacy development (Blair, Protzco, & Ursache, 2011). Executive Functioning is defined as: “the cognitive processes associated with holding information in mind in working memory, inhibing automatic responses to stimulation, and flexibly shifting attention between distinct but related pieces of information or aspects of a given task” (Blair et al., 2011, p. 22). This is specifically relevant to children’s abilities to take on and process new information, problem solve, or flexibly shift to accommodate knowledge that conflicts current understandings (Blair et al., 2011; Blaustein & Kinneburg, 2010). Brain imaging has provided researchers with the ability to identify cognitive processes involved in learning to read. Interestingly, as children develop as readers, there is a shift in the area of the brain needed for processing reading tasks that very generally moves from the anterior to posterior area of the brain. Blair, Protzco, and Ursache (2011) state, “overall, the inference from cross-sectional studies is that the neural basis for development of reading ability is characterized by a slow to fast anterior dorsal to posterior ventral shift in neural activity” (p. 21). This is relevant because executive functioning is linked to the shift from learning new information to it becoming automatic.
Distinct from the area of the brain that handles phonological processing, neural activity in the frontal regions control attention, executive functions and working memory, areas that have more impact on later literacy development “due to [their] role in reading comprehension” (Blair et al., 2011, p. 23) and linked to fluid intelligence (“reasoning ability and processing of novel information”) versus crystallized intelligence (“acquired and acculturated intelligence…factual and general knowledge”) (p. 24). Due to these factors, executive functioning may be a stronger indicator of later literacy success than phonemic awareness, letter knowledge or oral language (Bulotsky-Shearer & Fantuzzo, 2011). In fact, multiple studies (Blair & Razza, 2007; Welsch et. al., 2010; Howse, Caulkins & Anastoupolis, 2003; Raver, 2002 as cited in Blair et. al., 2011) on inhibition, self-regulation and emotion attention have been documented to undergird the “development of self-directed learning and academic achievement” (p. 23).

Executive functioning is built on strong self-regulation and modulation skills (Blaustein & Kinneburg, 2010). Low socio-economic status may be associated with more incidences of child stress and child traumatic stress as well as the potential to disrupt caregiver attachments (Blair et al., 2011; Blaustein & Kinneburg, 2010; National Child Traumatic Stress Network Schools Committee, 2008). Knowing that attachment is foundational to the development of executive functioning, and that executive functioning is closely linked to academic achievement, it is understandable that the stress of poverty is considered to have an impact on reading and academic achievement (Blair et al., 2011; Ponitz, Rimm-Kauffman, Grimm, & Curby, 2009). Therefore, it is especially important for teachers and caregivers of children who may be impacted by poverty to have practices in place that support social competence and early literacy development through healthy teacher-child interactions, which include instructional interactions.

Although it is common to parse out development domains in young children to understand what parts make a whole, it is valuable to remember that there is overlap between
them; both domains may share indicators of growth and strategies to support growth. Language and communication are core components from social and emotional perspectives as well as a literacy perspective. One could argue that activities that emphasize language and communication between teachers and children are mutually supportive, and therefore, powerful learning tools.

**Measuring Learning through Participation and Engagement Indicators**

As stated in an earlier section, one way children’s learning can be measured is through their participation in social and cultural activities; in this case, GISR. In thinking about indicators of children’s participation that are identifiable and measurable, findings from engagement research are informative. Engagement is also considered to be an observable indicator of emotional competence (McWayne & Cheung, 2009; Ponitz, Rimm-Kaufman, Grimm, & Curby, 2009; Ridley, McWilliams & Oates, 2000). Engagement can be defined as “attention to or active participation in classroom activities as reflected by manipulation of objects, vocalization, visual fixation, approach, or affective expression” (Ridley, McWilliams, & Oates, 2000, p. 139). Further, Ponitz & colleagues (2009) add that engagement “is a correspondence between the child’s observable behavior and the demands of the situation” (p. 104). This includes exercising self-control and persistence, qualities indicative of self-regulation, and executive functioning, referenced earlier.

A study conducted by Ponitz and colleagues (2009) used structural equation modeling to examine the extent to which behavioral engagement is a moderator for literacy achievement. Controlling for children’s prior literacy skills and sociodemographic risk in 171 kindergarten students, the authors demonstrated an indirect link between classroom quality and reading gains “through a positive association with behavioral engagement” (p. 115). R.A. McWilliam and Amy M. Casey (2008) also identified connections between young children’s engagement and their
academic outcomes. They further acknowledged the impact higher levels of engagement can have on behaviors in the classroom.

In an effort to understand how to measure engagement and participation in young children during GISR sessions, I adopted McWilliam and McCa...
Teacher-Child Interactions

In this section, I describe teacher-child interactions as they pertain to strategies and tools teachers can use to guide children’s participation during GISR. In a previous section, I note the impact of executive functions on early literacy outcomes. Research has demonstrated the importance of the relationship between teachers and children and particularly the quality of teacher-child interactions in supporting these two parallel processes (Pianta, 2006). Effective early childhood teachers not only support children’s conceptual growth through meaningful activities, but also develop strong relationships with children (Howes & Tsao, 2012). High quality teacher-child relationships have been found to support the development of a range of interconnected early literacy skills. For example, relationships support the development of oral language through conversation as well as the development of the co-regulation of attention, arousal, interest and motivation through emotional experiences. Summarizing the research with regard to the interconnected, yet distinct skills, Pianta states:

Research examining teacher–child relationships and children’s literacy outcomes provides fairly clear evidence that literacy skills are improved when children are exposed to adult-child interactions that are characterized by warmth, emotional support, and sensitivity in combination with modeling, direct instruction, and feedback—in other words, intentionality. (Pianta, 2006, p. 158)

Pianta (2006) goes on to explain that intentionality is closely linked to improvements in social and academic functioning, based on the recognition that responsive teachers lead to secure attachments, which support regulated relationships and interactions. Children then, are “more attentive, cooperative, and able to benefit from what the teacher offers them” (p. 158). Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that one of the characteristics embedded in well-researched read aloud routines is the role of intentionality around teacher-child interactions.
Embedded in quality teacher-child interactions is the frequency and quality of discourse between teachers and children. Lawrence and Snow (2011) explain the difference between defining oral discourse “as a skill accomplished by a learner, or as a context for learning” (p. 322), preferring it as a context for learning. Extended oral discourse is defined as: “frequency of engagement in cognitively challenging talk during group activities such as book reading or morning circle time” (p. 324). Correlational studies have closely linked frequency and quality of book reading to vocabulary outcomes in preschool. However, Lawrence and Snow (2011) purport that oral discourse development is inclusive of more than vocabulary development; it also includes acquiring the skills necessary to participate in complex, topic focused conversations that require an understanding of not just vocabulary, but grammar and pragmatics (p. 323).

When considering the variability in children’s language skills in preschool (Vasilyeva & Waterfall, 2011), it is no wonder that children with more developed discourse skills comprehend more from dialogue with both peers and teachers as they use grammar, syntax, pragmatics and existing vocabulary to further their comprehension. This further compounds the vocabulary gap that already exists between children (Harris, Golinkoff, & Hirsh-Pasik, 2011) and highlights the need for the intentional development of extended discourse skills, including but not limited to vocabulary development.

Particular types of teacher talk with intentional, strategic conversation ‘moves’ appear to be consistent across strategies based in oral discourse (Lawrence & Snow, 2011). Lawrence and Snow reviewed some of these key strategies including dialogic reading, (Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998); text talk (Beck & McKeown, 2001; McKeown & Beck, 2006), and others. The consistent components that emerged with regard to developing oral discourse skills were: modeling thinking aloud; direct explanations of words and strategies; marking student responses by
making specific connections back to the text; and verifying and clarifying student understandings by re-voicing or restating a child’s response, checking in with regard to the child’s intent or meaning, and supporting the child to clarify and expand on their comments (Lawrence & Snow, 2011).

Additional components and characteristics recommended by Harris, Golinkoff and Hirsh Pasek (2011) are: frequency of word usage; child-centered interactions; a responsive and interactive approach; and an emphasis on word learning in context (p. 52) with the use of explicit, child friendly definitions (Lawrence & Snow, 2011). These components provide observable indicators of quality of talk during the read aloud sessions under examination.

Read Aloud Routines

The practice of reading aloud has been a hallmark of reading instruction in the United States over the past century but has gained momentum both in frequency of use and increased interactions during reading within the past fifty years (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002). Read aloud can be defined as a “reading strategy that includes an adult or skilled reader and a child or group of children reading together” (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011, p. 397).

Classroom read alouds have been shown to afford several learning benefits. Multiple studies done on variations of read aloud strategies such as repeated readings, interactive readings, shared reading and dialogic reading have the potential to promote literacy learning for children (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011; Trivette & Dunst, 2007; Trivette, Simkus, Dunst & Hamby, 2012; Wasik & Bond, 2001; What Works Clearing House, 2007). Summarizing findings on read alouds, Gunning (2010) suggests: “…Being read to develops children’s vocabulary, expands their experiential background, makes them aware of the language of books, introduces them to basic concepts of print and how books are read, and provides them with many pleasant associations with books” (Gunning, 2010, p. 127).
The impact of the rituals and routines associated with variations of reading aloud has been observed with both parents and teachers and has been measured to determine a variety of outcomes for students including vocabulary, oral language, print concepts and phonological awareness (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011; Evans & Saint-Aubin, 2011; Justice, et. al., 2010; Justice & Piasta, 2011; Lonigan, Shanahan & Cunningham, 2008; McKeown & Beck, 2001; Whiterhurst, et. al, 1998; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). However, great variability exists between read aloud sessions (Lonigan, Shanahan, & Cunningham, 2008), and multiple factors have been found to differently affect student outcomes, including: book selection; adult interaction characteristics, which include child engagement, adult responsiveness, and questioning techniques; characteristics of the reading sessions, including length and number of sessions with each book (Trivette, Simkus, Dunst & Hamby, 2012) and number of children being read to. Cunningham and Zibulsky (2011) organize the variables typically measured in studies of variations of read aloud strategies by “…quantity (e.g., frequency and duration) and quality (e.g., type of discourse, degree of autonomy afforded to child, and nature of the interaction between adult and child) of the reading experience” (p. 397).

Given the variability across types of read aloud formats, for conceptual clarity, it is useful to clearly define and differentiate several of these formats. Thus, I will briefly describe shared book reading, interactive shared book reading, repeated reading, and dialogic reading.

**Shared book reading**

Shared book reading is defined as “an adult reading a book to one child or a small group of children without requiring extensive interactions from them” (Trivette & Dunst, 2007, p. 2). Most important in understanding the definition of shared reading, is that it becomes more nuanced than reading aloud due to the shift from adult control and direction of a storybook reading, to reading with a child, hence the term “shared” reading (Cunningham & Zibulsky,
2011). According to Trivette and Dunst’s (2007) analysis of the interrelated effects of shared book reading, interactive reading and dialogic reading, no positive effects with regard to either linguistic processing or print related outcomes were found based on Z scores for 57 outcome measures for shared book reading. This is most likely due to the broad definition of shared book reading and variability of teacher interaction levels during shared book reading sessions.

**Interactive Shared Book Reading**

Interactive shared book reading is defined as involving “an adult reading a book to a child or a small group of children and using a variety of techniques to engage the children in the text” (Trivette & Dunst, 2007). The variety of techniques associated with interactive shared book reading include: language interaction with discussion before, during and after reading (Lamb, 1986 as cited in Trivette & Dunst, 2007); adult interaction (Mautte, 1991 as cited in Trivette & Dunst, 2007); book recitation; prediction making; modeling; and pointing to pictures and McCormick & Mason, 1989 as cited in Trivette & Dunst, 2007).

In one study of special interest (Wasik & Bond, 2001), researchers implemented a whole class intervention utilizing interactive shared book reading to increase vocabulary development with four-year-old children. The intervention included the use of props to elicit book related vocabulary. Positive effects were found for expressive and receptive language with children included in the interactive reading intervention. This study demonstrated the potential for using interactive reading strategies as a universal (tier one) strategy (Fox et al., 2003; Wasik & Bond, 2001); this is unique when compared to other studies, most of which include shared interactive reading with students in small groups (Lonigan, Shanahan & Cunningham, 2008).

**Repeated Readings**

The repeated reading of the same text has developed as a recommended practice during read aloud sessions. This approach is founded on oral-story telling traditions and researched with
regard to its impact on children’s oral language and early literacy development. Unlike dialogic reading (yet to be described) the repeated reading strategy does not have an explicit level of interaction with children. However, it has been studied regarding “specific types of adult-child interactions strategies on the enhancement of children’s language development and story comprehension” (Trivette, Simkus, Dunst, & Hamby, 2012, p. 1). This description of repeated readings overlaps with practices of shared reading, interactive shared book reading and dialogic reading.

The Center for Early Literacy Learning conducted a meta-analysis of 16 studies to analyze the effects of repeated readings on children’s outcomes which included: children’s expressive language, story-related vocabulary, and story related comprehension (Trivette et al., 2012, p. 3). The meta-analysis studied both quality and quantity of readings as suggested by Cunningham & Zibulsky (2011), by analyzing the relationships between “adult interaction characteristics of the repeated reading episodes” and “relationships between book reading characteristics and repeated reading episodes” and the outcome measures (p. 4). The meta-analysis determined that there was a significant relationship between the interventions and “differences in the three outcome categories [story related vocabulary, story related comprehension, and expressive language]” (Trivette et al., 2012, p. 3). The results suggest a relationship between the repeated reading sessions and child outcomes with regard to the number of attempts made by adults to “promote child engagement, adult responsiveness to child behavior, and efforts to encourage child participation through the use of questions” (Trivette et al., 2012, p. 3).

These characteristics mirror the definition of interactive shared book reading, making it reasonable to suggest that the utilization of repeated readings is one of several interrelated teacher engagement actions impacting the effectiveness of interactive shared reading and
dialogic reading. Another recent CELL review analyzed an intervention on story retelling which employed visual aids; manipulatives; asking for predictions; open-ended questions; prompting children’s responses; and repeated readings (Dunst, Simkus & Hamby, 2012) to elicit engagement. These actions overlap substantially? with other read aloud interventions (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011), including but not limited to the sequence and prompts used in dialogic reading.

In summary, the read aloud as a teaching method has historically been linked to positive reading outcomes for young children, but not all types of read aloud strategies have been found to be equal (Scarborough & Dobrich, 1994). Studies have been conducted not only to analyze the impact of the read aloud sessions on children’s literacy outcomes, but also to define the particular characteristics that make read aloud sessions successful (Beck & McKeown, 2001; Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2011). Even with great variability between the studies and the strategies employed, positive outcomes are associated with increased levels and types of engagement with children during read aloud sessions. With regard to read aloud interventions in preschool children, much emphasis has been placed on interventions with parents and small groups of children in classroom settings. Dialogic Reading’s PEER Sequence and CROWD prompts uniquely capture the multifaceted process of interactive reading, but still primarily from a small group and individual perspective. The following sections will seek to clarify this procedure as a systematic way of approaching shared interactive reading.

Using Dialogic Reading’s PEER Sequence and CROWD Prompts to Create a Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR) Routine.

Dialogic reading is a specific type of shared interactive reading that has the potential to support teachers during whole group reading because of its specificity. One of the researchers who has studied the impact of this process, Dr. Whitehurst (1992), explains: “...during the
shared reading practice, the adult and child switch roles so that the child learns to become the storyteller with the assistance of the adult who functions as an active listener and questioner” (n.p). The model, created by Whitehurst and colleagues (Whitehurst, 1994a & Whitehurst, 1994b) with the Stony Brook Learning Project, has been primarily implemented with individual students and their parents, and in small groups of 3-5 children, but is beginning to be explored within the broader context of interactive shared reading.

Using a book specifically selected for its quality, an adult reads with a child or a small group of children, with increasing engagement over the course of several reading sessions with the same text. Reading sessions range in time from 15-30 minutes but studies have shown that shorter sessions are associated with greater outcomes (What Works Clearinghouse, 2007).

Dialogic Reading sessions guide teacher/parent engagement with children through a sequence known by the acronym, PEER, which stands for prompt, evaluate, expand and repeat. PEER facilitates a systematic, yet succinct interaction between an adult and a child. First, adults prompt children to say something about the book being read. Next, they evaluate the child’s response and expand that response by rephrasing, or adding information on to it. The recommendation here is to expand the child’s comments by one or two words. For example, the child might say “a bird” and the adult would repeat “Yes, a flying bird” (Paulson & Moats, 2010). Finally, the adult repeats the expanded response in an effort to facilitate the acquisition of the new language, or prompts the child to repeat the expansion. The role of the adult as the facilitator of the reading sessions is gradually reduced during reading sessions as the child takes more and more responsibility for the reading of the story. Therefore, the first reading is primarily adult driven, and the final reading is primarily child directed, with less and less reading of the written word over the course of the reading sessions.
Lonigan and Flynn (2012) describe how teachers gradually release responsibility for the narrative to the child by explaining three levels to dialogic reading. In the first level, the teacher moves and prompts are directive as children are familiarizing themselves with the story line and vocabulary. Adults start with simple identification questions, evaluate the responses, and then ask extending questions about characteristics or actions associated with the object of question. The goal of level one is to encourage labeling and gradually talk about the illustrations more. This level can occur for multiple reads with increasing levels of engagement from the children (Lonigan & Flynn, 2012).

Level two includes two additional goals for the read aloud sessions: 1) for children to come up with their own descriptions of pictures and 2) for children to start using longer phrases when responding. Teachers start to integrate open-ended questions at this level. It is also necessary to add in expansions of the children’s responses with opportunities for child repetition of expanded phrases. As children become more familiar with these types of questions, teachers can encourage them to expand their responses with prompts like: “Tell me more,” or “Tell us your thinking about…” (Lonigan & Flynn, 2012).

In the final phase of dialogic reading, the goal evolves from children using vocabulary to identifying objects in the illustrations to using the vocabulary to talk about the story line and make connections to their background experiences. In this stage, the teacher acts as a facilitator of dialogue and interaction about the text, related concepts, and related experiences (Lonigan & Flynn, 2012).

To facilitate these interactions and scaffolding of independence by students, the acronym CROWD is used to guide the creation and selection of verbal prompts for children. Completion prompts are the first type. With a completion prompt, a pause is left at the end of a sentence or a phrase for a child to fill in with a word. These prompts are particularly useful with books that
include repetition of text, rhyme and rhythm. For example, when reading the story *Chicka Chicka Boom Boom* (Martin & Archembault, 1989), the adult might say: “Chicka, chicka boom,_______! Will there be enough _______!”, allowing the children to fill in *boom* and *room* at the end of each sentence.

Recall prompts are queries that elicit responses from children regarding details from a part of the story that has already been read. This type of prompt encourages listening comprehension and understanding of story plot by helping children to sequence events. Adults can use recall prompts at any point in the story, including at the beginning of a reread to elicit discussion regarding what a child remembers from the day before.

The next type of prompt in CROWD is “open-ended.” Open ended prompts are particularly useful with books that have detailed and rich illustrations. An open ended prompt can sound like, “Tell me what is happening on this page.” Whitehurst (1992) states that open-ended prompts support young children’s fluency of expression and depth of detail.

“Wh-“ prompts are common types of prompts for teachers. These include questions that begin with who, what where, when, how and why. The intention is to ask questions that elicit responses regarding the illustrations in the book. For example, the adult might ask, “Who is the person on the cover of the book?” (note: this is also a recall prompt).

The final letter in the CROWD acronym stands for “distancing.” Distancing prompts require children to access experiences and background knowledge from outside the text. Adults draw from known experiences of the child to frame these questions. For example, when reading *The Relatives Came* (Rylant, 1985), teachers might say, “Last week Tania told us her cousins came to stay with her. We talked about how many of you have had relatives stay at your house. What relatives have come to visit you?”
The dialogic reading method incorporates features that support the development of extended oral discourse (Lawrence & Snow, 2011), expressive and receptive language and developmentally appropriate vocabulary instruction (Harris, Golinkoff, & Hirsh-Pasik, 2011). Likewise, features described in research on quality teacher-child interactions, and the development of social competence overlay the literacy features. Some recommended practices that are not embedded in the DR model could be used to enhance the quality of the sessions that support both emotional competence and literacy development. Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR) was developed to modify the method of dialogic reading for use in order to engage large groups (ten to twenty) of pre-school children. These modifications include recommendations from the literature described in this chapter.

For example, Wasik and Bond (2001), found that the use of objects related to vocabulary words in the selected stories used as props during story-telling was an adaptation that supported vocabulary learning in whole group interactive reading sessions. The use of props during storytelling can also provide an opportunity for increasing motivation to participate and potentially impact engagement behaviors. Other adaptations for GISR sessions in a whole group include pauses and wait time, thinking out loud, verbal feedback, gestures and movement activities (arm wave, foot stomp etc.); visual and verbal cues (hand to ear, point etc.); redirection; and expressive intonation (Dixon-Krauss, Januzka, C. & Chan-Ho Chae, 2010; Dunst, Simkus & Hamby, 2012; Trivette & Dunst, 2007; Trivette, Simkus, Dunst & Hamby, 2012). The full list of these strategies can be found in the Reflection Log in Appendix A.

In order to implement the GISR sessions, an understanding of effective early childhood professional development was necessary. The following section describes the research that influenced the model used with the program.
Early Childhood Professional Development

There is a challenge for early childhood programs as well as pre-service programs to affect change in teacher practices (Howes & Tsao, 2012). In fact, in a recent study to improve practices in preschool interactive reading through professional development, Kindle (2013) discusses the variability that can exist in teachers’ implementation of practices. Further, it is well known that adoption of an evidence based curriculum does not automatically lead to quality teaching or improved learning (Howes & Tsao, 2012; Kindle, 2013). Quality and fidelity of implementation can be affected due to a myriad of factors (Howes & Tsao, 2012; Kindle, 2013; Zaslow, Tout, Halle, & Starr, 2011).

In their chapter in the Early Literacy Handbook, Zaslow, et al. (2011), challenge the traditional conceptualizations of PD and describe a framework for more effective early childhood PD. Applying findings from research, the framework moves away from only a knowledge focused approach to PD, to an emphasis on both knowledge and practice, including mentoring, coaching, technical assistance and practice focuses woven into training. As an example of a professional development that embraces a practice based approach, the online Connect Modules developed by the Frank Graham Porter Child Development Institute and the Center to Mobilize Early Childhood Knowledge (2012) have embedded video examples into their training modules for trainees to observe, reflect and evaluate the quality of the practice. The need for this shift from knowledge focus to practice focus exists in both pre-service and in-service PD.

Further, the reason early childhood PD is being identified separate from other teacher professional development models, is the disparity that exists in teacher training at the early childhood level. Teachers’ education levels range from a few hours of training to bachelors or Master’s level programs; and studies find mixed results between teacher’s education levels and
child outcomes, as well as between professional development and child outcomes (Kelley & Camilli, 2007; Ritblatt et al., 2013, Zaslow, Tout, Halle, & Starr, 2011).

However, effective early childhood PD has been linked to improved outcomes for young children. This field of study has been finding footing in the last five years, and the challenge is now determining what practice-focused approaches are most beneficial and why they work (Zaslow in Howes, Hamre and Pianta, 2012). What is clear is that PD approaches “must target evidence-based teaching practices specifically” (Hamre & Hatfield, 2012, p. 216). In concert with an emphasis on teaching practices, early childhood PD should also: focus on specific and clearly articulated objectives; include active participation from classrooms and programs; take into account the content of the PD to determine appropriate intensity and duration; prepare teachers to integrate assessment into practice; and ensure the PD is appropriate for the organization’s context and aligned with standards of practice (Hamre & Hatfield, 2012, p. 217).

Knowledge is currently quite limited in the area of early childhood professional development, though certain studies are beginning to place more emphasis on the role of PD in quality early childhood programing (Howes, Hamre, & Pianta, 2012). A practice-focused approach that supports teachers and programs beyond a one time only training is recommended. Next steps in the field include more specificity regarding the common elements described above, and ways to overcome barriers to large scale PD efforts with an emphasis on merging research, policy and practice (Hamre & Hatfield, 2012).

**Putting It All Together**

The rationale and theoretical frame for this study is rooted in the current literature in early educational theory, practice, and implementation. I conceptualize learning through a sociocultural lens, leaning specifically on Rogoff’s model of transformation of participation (2003). When designing the intervention utilized in this study, I combined this definition of
learning with current research in children’s literacy and social emotional learning to engage in conversation around children’s engagement and participation in storybook reading. I took up empirically informed recommendations on quality teacher-child interactions and discourse during read alouds (including dialogic reading), to develop GISR. Guided Interactive Shared Reading provides a strategy specific, focused model for interactive reading in whole group settings in an effort to elicit high levels of participation and ultimately improve academic and social-emotional gains for young children in the context of their early childhood classrooms. Through a professional development model that is also based on key findings from research literature, I supported one program (and specifically, the two case teachers) in implementing this model towards that end. The following chapter describes in depth this model, as well as the empirical effort that was designed to investigate its effectiveness.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Introduction

In this embedded case study I proposed that teacher facilitated interactions with children are at the heart of learning during read aloud routines with young children. This familiar context of shared reading provided a stage for growth in both social emotional and literacy development when teachers have the tools and strategies to facilitate interactions, build engagement, and use them in a reflective, intentional manner. To better understand the potential of a guided interactive shared reading experience between teachers and children, I employed a sociocultural framework (Rogoff, 2003). Two teachers and their classes of primarily four year olds became the study participants nested within a Head Start program in Montana. The program implemented a professional development model that included training, consulting, video self-observation and reflection, and distance coaching during the spring of 2013. The case study was designed to answer the question: how did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR); and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation?

Rationale for Case Study

In today’s policy and research climate, only studies that utilize experimental and quasi-experimental designs with pre/post comparisons of student outcomes (these often require control groups) are included in certain syntheses (NELP, 2008). However, Yin (2009) argues that while experimental studies might document whether a particular intervention has impacted students academically, experimental research does not often explain how the process has made an impact. In the current study, the question of how the professional development process and the process of guided interactive shared reading (GISR) shaped learning in the two head start classrooms was the focus. Case studies are a logical design choice when: the phenomenon for study is embedded
within a real life context; the boundaries between the context and phenomenon may not be clear; there are more variables than data points; and when the study is benefited by a theoretical framework that guides the collection and analysis of data (Yin, 2009). All of these are true in this case.

The remainder of this chapter is organized into two sections. The first section will describe the design of the study and include the organization of the study, important study activities and procedures. The second section will provide a detailed description of the analytic methods employed to answer the research question.

**Design of the Study**

In this subsection of the methods chapter, I will explain how the study was designed, who participated, my role in the study, what professional development and instructional activities occurred before, during and after implementation, and how the data was collected.

**Sampling**

The Head Start program was purposefully selected from six pilot programs that were participating in a statewide project to 1) implement a multi-tiered system of support in early childhood programs and 2) to further understand the professional development needs of such programs. The program was chosen as a case for its unique role in a statewide early childhood pilot project to implement multi-tiered systems of support for both academics and behavior in early childhood programs. Of ten teachers and five classrooms, two embedded cases were selected. As previously mentioned, I partnered with the Head Start site already involved in a pilot project to build their academic and social/emotional supports for children around a multi-tiered system. The education coordinator, Keith\(^1\), had been guiding the program for two years in

\(^1\) All names in this dissertation are pseudonyms.

\(^2\) The assistant teachers conducted video recordings and self-observation for their own professional growth, but were not included in the case study.
this process and was now in the third year of the pilot project. As a part of this change process, the program adopted the newest version of the *Opening Worlds of Learning* (Schickendaz & Dickenson, 2011) curriculum, which embedded a repeated, interactive reading routine into daily instruction. During the early fall of 2012, the entire staff had received a three-hour training to teach them how to implement the curriculum. Keith had expressed some concerns that the teachers may not necessarily know how to implement the reading components, or see the value in reading the recommended stories more than once. A retired principal from his local school district, Keith was familiar with the role data collection could play in monitoring teacher and child growth. He shared the results of the school's autumn CLASS scores, which measures classroom quality by looking specifically at teacher-child interactions (Pianta, La Parro, & Hamre, 2008). At one of our project meetings, Keith shared his concern with the program's scores in the areas of Language Modeling and Instructional Practices (Pianta, LaParro, & Hamre, 2008) wondering what professional development we could do to support change in these areas. I recommended that we address the quality of language interactions during one routine within the school day: shared interactive reading time.

The program had limited community resources. To support the national Head Start goal of school readiness, they partnered with the local school district to share the resource of a special education teacher. Students with identified special needs were included and supported in the participating program. The program also trained a former classroom teacher as a site based coach. The coach worked half time to support the teachers in strengthening their instructional practices and in implementing the adopted curriculum. The education manager provided full time support for teachers and students and led the effort towards implementing a multi-tiered system of support in the program. Finally, the Head Start Director oversaw the management team described above as well as the daily operations of the center.
The selected program for study implemented the multi-tiered system across all five classrooms (each other site were implementing in only one or two), had funded the instructional coach and was implementing the project with fidelity and enthusiasm, making them a somewhat unusual example. The program was also chosen because they expressed a need for professional development that supported 1) their fledgling repeated reading practice embedded in the recently adopted *Opening Worlds of Learning* Curriculum (Schickendaz & Dickenson, 2011), 2) their program action plan to improve the Instructional Practices Domain scores on the CLASS assessment scoring system (Pianta, La Parro, & Hamre, 2008), and 3) the project goal of integrating practices for academic and social emotional development.

The Head Start program included five classrooms, one of which is located in a nearby town. Each classroom supported up to 18 children and included one head teacher and one assistant teacher. In this study, we focused on the practices in two classrooms in the program. The two classes were purposefully selected for their homogeneity. They were the only two classes in the same building, with similar aged students (primarily four year olds), for the same length of time (half day, four hour programs). I made the choice to control for age, length of instruction, and environment to eliminate a few variables from an already dynamic setting. For example, one classroom was in a separate community, another had primarily three year olds and yet another class had a full six-hour day for students with two different lead teachers.

The participants in the study were two head teachers for the classes described above. One teacher was in her first year teaching pre-school but came to the program with experience teaching in elementary schools. She had a teaching degree in Elementary Education and a Master’s degree in School Counseling. This teacher had returned to her home community in the hopes of eventually teaching at the local elementary school. Her position with the program was
half time, so the other half of the day she worked for the after school program with the local school district.

The second teacher was a Head Start parent before she was a Head Start teacher. During the study, she was taking 12 credits towards her Associates Degree in Early Childhood Education online and had already earned a Child Development Associate (CDA). Like the first teacher, she also worked for the program half time and had a second job.

**Role of the Researcher**

In my role as co-coordinator of the early childhood project to build multi-tiered systems of support, I had developed a rapport with the education manager, Keith. He obtained access for the study through the program director, necessary components for implementing a qualitative case study (Creswell, 2007). The director determined that the proposed professional development plan was in keeping with the goals of the program, allowing permission for me to not only train, but to visit the classrooms and teachers as needed. I completed a background check and submitted the appropriate paperwork to the director to this end.

As a project coordinator, I hadn’t had opportunities to visit the program or classrooms prior to the study and had only worked with Keith in a meeting format. Upon my first visit to the school, he immediately took me on a tour of each classroom in the program, including in the nearby town. I became an observer and participant in the classrooms and programs. Keith then showed me the work that they had been doing to make program improvements and my role shifted to one of technical assistance again. I was the sole trainer during the PD sessions, and finally, I also played the role of literacy coach throughout the five weeks of the study.

As I took on different roles to support the program, I accessed a wide array of my background experiences. As a project coordinator I had an investment in the success of the programs implementation of MTSS. As a trainer, I had assumptions and biases about the quality
of the professional development as well as the quality of coaching I was providing. I also realized that my experiences sitting on the board of directors for another Head Start program in the state had an impact on how I viewed the workings of the program. From the perspective of a literacy specialist, I was invested in the potential of the adapted intervention I was training the teachers in. Finally, as a participant researcher, I was aware of the impact of my presence in the program and on the direction of the professional development.

**Description of the Activities**

The intent of the professional development, was to help the program accomplish their goals to: continue their integration of academic and social emotional supports at the universal level; improve teacher-child interactions and eventually their CLASS scores; and support teachers’ understandings of the evidence base behind the recommended practices in the new curriculum. For the study I focus in on a few of these variables within the context of the programs overarching goals. Table 1 provides an overview of the activities that occurred in order to reach these goals. In the following sections, I will describe the activities that occurred during the preparation (baseline) phase, staff workshop, implementation phase, and the follow up after implementation.

Table 1. Overview of Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Read Aloud Sessions</th>
<th>Professional Development Plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Meeting with Implementation Team Train on Video Observation Protocol (See Appendix A) (audio record)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Establish Baseline</td>
<td>Video Observations of regular read aloud sessions conducted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Establish Baseline</td>
<td>Video Observations of regular read aloud sessions. Train in Dialogic Informed Read Alouds. Met with case study teachers to train on video observation and reflection protocols.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3–4</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td>Teachers conducted approximately 15 minute GISR sessions on Tuesdays and Thursdays (Assistant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teachers may have conducted these on alternate days. GISR sessions were recorded with both audio and video. Teachers viewed their videos and completed their self-reflection logs. Education Manager stored videos via private YouTube Channel. Literacy Coach/Researcher viewed videos in preparation for coaching calls. Teachers participated in 10 minute coaching calls weekly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No Implementation - Spring Break</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers conducted approximately 15 minute GISR sessions on Tuesdays and Thursdays (Assistant teachers may have conducted these on alternate days). GISR sessions were recorded with both audio and video. Teachers viewed their videos and completed their self-reflection logs. Education Manager stored videos via private YouTube Channel. Literacy Coach/Researcher viewed videos in preparation for coaching calls. Teachers participated in 10 minute coaching calls weekly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8</td>
<td>Week Six (not observed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Week Seven (post-implementation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Professional Development Model**

In Chapter Two, I described current recommendations for early childhood professional development. I drew from this literature base to develop the professional development, which included: 1) an introductory three-hour training 2) teacher team consultations, 3) video
observation and analysis of teaching practices in use 4) self-reflection and goal setting and 5) distance coaching. The rationale for this model is based in the literature on early childhood professional development (Zaslow, Tout, Halle & Starr, 2011; Powell, Diamond & Burchinal, 2013; Howes & Tsao, 2012). In the following sections, I will explain how each of the professional development components were implemented.

**Whole staff training.** The professional development began with a three-hour workshop provided to all staff. The training introduced what dialogic reading was, and how it would be adapted for use in whole groups and time to practice and plan. The workshop was partially based on a publicly available module through the Center to Mobilize Early Childhood Knowledge, created by the Frank Porter Graham Child Development Institute at the University of North Carolina Chapel Hill by Pam Winton and colleagues called CONNECT (Center to Mobilize Early Childhood Knowledge, 2012). The purpose of these modules was to foster the application of evidence based practices in early childhood classrooms by utilizing adult learning strategies. Video and audio vignettes, accompanied by opportunities for activity and reflection were embedded in the modules and followed a five step learning cycle: 1) dilemma 2) question 3) evidence 4) decision and 5) evaluation. The Dialogic Reading module was added to CONNECT in 2012.

The training was structured around this module and included opportunities for teachers to view video clips of other early childhood teachers using the dialogic reading prompts (CROWD) and process (PEER) with their students. As a reminder, the CROWD acronym stands for the prompt types: completion, recall, open-ended who/what/where/when/how/why questions, and distancing prompts. PEER is an acronym that represents strategic teacher moves to elicit dialogue exchanges by prompting children to talk about the story or concept, evaluate their response, expand on their responses and/or repeat them. I shared this information with teachers,
making links to other overlapping concepts they had been trained in such as the Head Start Framework and the relevant components in the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS) (Pianta, LaParro & Hamre, 2008). Teachers were particularly interested in the overlap between the indicators of Open-Ended questions and feedback loops within the Instructional Practices domain of the CLASS and the use of open-ended prompts as one type within the PEER sequence. We discussed this overlap during the training.

I also taught the teachers how to prepare a book for use in GISR, how to structure read alouds differently according to how many times a child has read a book (the three levels in dialogic reading), how to introduce and open a book, read aloud, and how to finish (e.g., extend post-reading discussion). During the training, participants had an opportunity to view video clips of teachers moving through the dialogic reading process with their students. The teachers then watched another video clip in which they were able to analyze a teacher’s reading session for inclusion of the DR components with time to discuss their findings.

Throughout each section of the training, the teachers practiced with their own books. After teachers were exposed to the new content, and watched the video models, I modeled for them with an example book, and then they had time to practice with their storybook. By the end of the training, each teacher had prepared a book with prompts (on handouts and sticky notes), and had practiced reading and asking questions with their colleagues.

The video clips used from the Connect Module showed teachers working with small groups of children. Therefore, the final addition to the workshop was a discussion of strategies to support an interactive approach with whole groups of children, embedding the dialogic reading prompts and processes. After teachers shared their own knowledge of strategies, I shared strategies recommended from the literature. The training presentation slides are included in Appendix B.
Reflection logs and consultations. Since teacher learning is an iterative process influenced by knowledge and interactions within the complex context of their early childhood classrooms (Howes, Hamre & Pianta, 2012; Rogoff, 1990; Rogoff, 2005), it was important that the professional development effort did not end with the training, but included opportunities to try on new strategies and reflect on their impact in the classroom. Towards this effort, the teachers were asked to complete reflections logs twice a week and were supported in learning to implement these through team (classroom teacher and assistant teacher) consultations.

Reflection logs. Each teacher was given their own journal, which included copies of the reflection logs. The reflection logs were a two-page observation and reflection protocol to be completed during and after observing the video of their reading session for the day (See Appendix A). Enough copies of each protocol for five weeks of implementation were bound and given to each teacher in the program.

In the creation of this protocol, I integrated components from both the observation tool and teacher reflection tool used in the CONNECT Professional Development Module 6: Dialogic Reading Practices (2012) with further adaptations. The reflection logs also included components from the Dialogic Reading Inventory (parent child) (DRI), created to correspond to the four categories of early reading (print awareness, phonological awareness, comprehension/vocabulary, and attention to text) (Dixon-Kraus, Januska & Chae, 2010). Clarifying that the inventory was created for use with DR sessions for parents and individual children, the authors (Dixon-Kraus, Januska & Chae, 2010) recommended further adaptation of the DRI for classroom use. Therefore, I integrated characteristics identified by the DRI of teacher behaviors to include relevant characteristics for inclusion in whole group repeated read alouds (Dunst, Simkus, & Hamby, 2012; Trivette & Dunst, 2007; Trivette, Simkus, Dunst, & Hamby, 2012). These characteristics overlap with characteristics of DR and may provide accommodations necessary
for managing a large group of approximately 10 to 20 children, as opposed to the usual DR group size of one to five.

The reflection logs also allowed teachers to more fully describe their experiences, which the CONNECT tools did not afford, and to guide the teachers toward setting goals for future reading sessions. The reflection logs served as both a teacher learning tool and a research tool. They provided opportunities for teachers to regularly reflect and set goals in a structured manner to improve their read aloud practice, helped answer the question of how teachers’ intentional facilitation of guided interactive shared reading changed over time and documented the fidelity of implementation across the five weeks of intervention.

*Consultations.* In order to ensure teachers’ comfort level with the expectations during the five-week implementation period, the three-hour training was followed up with 20-minute teaching team consultations. During the consultation, I explained the components of the reflection logs and asked the teachers to view a few minutes of a video clip of one of their baseline videos. As the video played, I demonstrated how to tally their “teacher moves” in the reflection logs. The majority of the meeting time was left for answering teachers’ questions regarding the activities and expectations for the five weeks of implementation. Teachers were asked to: 1) integrate the components shared during the workshop on Dialogic Reading and whole group strategies to increase teacher-child interactions into their weekly read aloud sessions using their repeated reading story from the adopted curriculum, 2) videotape two interactive read aloud sessions per week on the I-Pad, 3) watch their video on the day of taping and simultaneously tally what “teacher moves” they saw themselves doing in the reading session, and 4) answer the reflection questions in the log to assist them in setting goals for their next read aloud session. For the two case study teachers, the fifth task was to spend 10 to 15 minutes over the phone weekly discussing their progress and receiving over the phone coaching.
Implementation

Starting in week three, after the staff training was completed, the teachers began implementing the GISR sessions Monday through Thursday, for approximately 15 minutes each day during their normal read aloud routine as indicated in Table 2. On Wednesdays, a day they were not being video taped, the assistant teacher conducted the guided interactive reading sessions. Teachers’ GISR sessions varied by day, based on the curriculum recommendations (which aligned with the three levels of dialogic reading). In her interview, Jocelyn described the focus of each reading: the first read introduced vocabulary and overall comprehension of the story; the second read (Tuesdays), emphasized higher order thinking; and the third read (Thursdays) focused on higher order thinking and retelling. The intent was to accomplish this curricular focus through the use of the specific indicators outlined in the reflection logs, which included the CROWD prompts and the PEER sequence. One storybook was used each week, and read at least three times (usually Monday, Tuesday and Thursday). Unexpectedly, the third session looked different for each case study teacher. Jocelyn conducted a listening session with an audio recording of the story followed by a story retell using the storyboard, as recommended by the adopted curriculum. Teri utilized the third session in a variety of ways. Sometimes she did a read aloud with the children followed by a retell discussion with the storyboard. Other times, she used the entire session for the retell and sometimes included the audio recording with the storyboard retell. Using I-Pad’s, video recordings of the sessions were conducted by the education coordinator, or instructional coach on Tuesday and Thursday of each week. Table 2 describes each week’s routine.
Table 2. Weekly Read Aloud Schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher One</td>
<td>GISR</td>
<td>GISR</td>
<td>GISR- assistant teacher with an alternate book.</td>
<td>Listening Session and Interactive Story Retell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Two</td>
<td>GISR</td>
<td>GISR</td>
<td>GISR- assistant teacher with an alternate book.</td>
<td>GISR and Interactive Story Retell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video Recording</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>Not for the purposes of the study²</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afternoon: Teacher Reflection Activities</td>
<td>Video Observation And Written Reflection</td>
<td>Video Observation and Written Reflection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The read aloud titles used in the GISR sessions were selected based on the unit in progress at the time of implementation. Each unit of the OWL (Shickedanz & Dickenson, 2011) curriculum included one big book for read aloud and repeated readings each week. Although my recommendation to the site was for the lead teacher to complete four weekly read aloud sessions, one on each school day, I honored the education manager’s request to maintain fidelity to their curriculum by using the suggested alternate text one day per week. The other adaptation to the design occurred so as to include the assistant teachers in the professional development. They became responsible for the Wednesday read aloud with the alternate book. The book selections were made from the recommended texts in each unit. The case study teachers read the same books each week. These books are outlined in Table 3.

² The assistant teachers conducted video recordings and self-observation for their own professional growth, but were not included in the case study.
Table 3. Weekly Children’s Book Selections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author/Publication Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline Week One</td>
<td><em>A Tree for All Seasons</em></td>
<td>Bernard, R. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline Week Two</td>
<td><em>Think Green!</em></td>
<td>Taylor-Butler, C. (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation Week One</td>
<td><em>One Dark Night</em></td>
<td>Hutchins, H. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation Week Two</td>
<td><em>Whistle for Willie</em></td>
<td>Keats, E.J. (1977)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation Week Three</td>
<td><em>Moonbear’s Shadow</em></td>
<td>Asch, F. (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation Week Four</td>
<td><em>Raccoon On His Own</em></td>
<td>Arnosky, J. (2001)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data Collection**

As the teachers completed their video sessions, the site based coach and educational manager took the iPad-recorded reading sessions and uploaded them to a private YouTube account. The videos were stored in the Video Management section, not published to a channel. Only Keith and I had the password to the account. At the end of the day of the recording, each teacher took their reflection log with the observation protocol, and watched her video from the day, reflecting on the tools she used, how the children responded and what goals she wanted to set for their next reading session. Keith reported that all teachers and assistant teachers in the program participated in this process of self-reflection, though I only followed the progress of the two teachers described earlier.

It became apparent midway through implementation that it would be helpful to see the teachers' reflection logs to help shape their coaching sessions as opposed to waiting until the implementation period was over. The teachers were willing to share them, but it became
unrealistic for the instructional coach or education manager to fax, or scan them to me in a timely manner. Instead, in the next coaching session, I asked the teachers to share their respective goals for the upcoming week, and we dialogued regarding how they were using their logs to shape their focus for the next session. The teachers only participated in one or two coaching session after this, since that session informed the final two weeks of implementation. One teacher did not conference by phone during the last week due to a conflict with parent teacher conferences, but emailed her goals for the final week instead. The final videos were recorded during the last week of April. During the five weeks of implementation, my communications with the instructional coach and education manager were restricted to the logistics of managing the videos. We corresponded via email and phone calls during this time.

During the second week of May, I visited the site again and conducted interviews with the instructional coach, education manager, and both case study teachers. The original purpose of these interviews was to confirm findings from other data sources. This will be described more in the following section. The interviews provided the final data source for the study.

In this section, I described the methods of this embedded case study, including: the participants; the professional development model; procedures for implementation; data collection procedures and sources. I collected data of the programs activities in the form of video, teacher reflection logs, and interviews to describe the process of implementing GISR in two Head Start classrooms. The data was collected before, during and after implementations to help answer the question: how did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR); and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation?
Analytic Methods

In this section I will describe the analytic methods and rationale I used to guide this case study. Qualitative analysis is an “interactive, cyclical process” (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014, p. 14) that is not easily described in a linear fashion. I structured this section according to the four components in Miles and Huberman’s interactive model for data analysis: data collection; data condensation; data display; and conclusion drawing and verification (Miles & Huberman, 1994 as cited in Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). I ask the reader to keep in mind that the four components interact in an iterative, not linear, manner. In addition, I describe the activities that occurred during each cycle of coding between the sections on data condensation and data display as they are intertwined. Finally, I include a description of the techniques used to maintain rigor and trustworthiness in the study, embedded in the section on conclusion drawing and verification, to highlight the strength and soundness of analysis that can occur within a case study design.

Rationale for Analysis

The purpose of this analysis was to answer the questions: How did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR); and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation? Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) recommend the use of questions and a conceptual framework to guide a structured analysis process. Since the conceptual framework I use emphasizes sociocultural theory and the transformation of participation perspective, I use Rogoff’s (2003) description of different levels, or planes of analysis in a visual format. I describe this approach to analysis using the metaphor of a photographer with a camera, shifting focus, and content in each frame. Within the context of the classroom, it is possible to zoom in on specific perspectives and experiences (personal plane), and then broaden the lens to include more than one individual by
highlighting the interaction, or activity occurring between participants (interpersonal plane). Or, one could use a broader lens focused on the environment and context the individuals are in (cultural-institutional plane). I chose to maintain a focus on the experiences of the teachers and children, not the broader environment. This case study is bounded within two classrooms in one program and even further bounded by place and time during the read aloud-routine taking place on the circle time carpet in each case classroom.

Using Rogoff’s (2006) visual metaphor to describe the process, I began my analysis by focusing my camera lens on the teachers as individual learners participating in the activity of a focused professional development effort to implement GISR. Simultaneously, the teachers were participating, and therefore guiding, the interactive reading experiences with her four and five year old students. I foregrounded the personal plane through the teachers’ perspective first, while maintaining awareness of the interpersonal dynamic.

I then shifted the focus of my lens to the group of children participating in the routine with their peers and teachers to analyze how the effort is impacting their learning. Next, the analysis focus encompasses both teacher and children in the frame to analyze the interactions between both sets of participants. In this analytic move, my emphasis is on the interpersonal plane since I am viewing the children in a group with their teacher.

Finally, I zoom out to include both classrooms, analyzing the PD impact from two perspectives for similarities and differences. As described in the previous section, I did not focus on the classroom environment, the assistant teachers, or the program and community. I purposefully kept the cultural-institutional plane in the background of the analysis. Figure 1 demonstrates graphically the analytic focus.
At different stages, I drew on analysis techniques recommended by leading researchers in the areas of qualitative and case study design. One of the earliest choices made was to employ a time-series approach to my analysis, as recommended by Yin (2009). I did this across time for each teacher participant and then again with the classes of children. This is a relevant analysis choice when a case study is describing an intervention occurring in a particular place and time. Within the time-series strategy, I integrate elements from content analysis, including literary and language methods as well as procedural methods (Saldaña, 2013). Saldaña explains that since coding methods overlap, it is expected that one may need to “mix and match” (p. 60). The coding techniques used within these methods will be described later in this section however, these techniques both deductive and inductive in nature occur during the first cycle. At the level of analysis that includes both teachers and children interactively, I used pattern matching to guide my formation of propositions (Yin, 2009). During this second cycle, the condensed data from the
first cycle was used to formulate the patterns and propositions that lead to the case description and answers to the guiding questions.

Finally, the method of cross-case analysis and synthesis was used to analyze the experiences of both teachers and students overtime (Yin, 2009). The second cycle and the cross-case analysis were required to ensure that the description of the embedded cases stayed true to case study methodology by presenting a holistic description of the professional development effort in the context of the two case classrooms. Further, the quality of teacher-child interactions is the key indicator that learning is occurring for both teachers and children. I now explain these steps in more detail.

**Data Organization**

In the first part of this chapter, I provide the details regarding the procedures for data collection. Here, I explain the types of data, their purpose, and management. Table 3 organizes the data according to their purpose. I demonstrate how each question is approached from its plane of analysis (personal or interpersonal), which data sources contribute to the questions and planes, and how they were managed and stored.

Table 4. Data Sources and Management According to Questions and Planes of Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Sociocultural Activities</th>
<th>Analysis Focus</th>
<th>Data Source</th>
<th>Condensed Format</th>
<th>Data Storage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR)?</td>
<td>Training Session, Distance-Coaching</td>
<td>Interpersonal (the teachers &amp; coach/researcher)</td>
<td>Coaching Calls and Emails</td>
<td>Coaching Notes</td>
<td>WORD Electronic File</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video Self-Observation, Self-Reflections</td>
<td>Personal Reflection Logs</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>PDF Format Electronic File</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Interviews</td>
<td>Transcriptions</td>
<td>Audio File &amp; Transcripts stored In Transana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Taking suggestion from Yin (2009), I utilized a case study database for all data collection. The purpose of the database was to maintain separation between data collection, analysis and discussion of results and to provide an accessible record for third party analysis at a later date and time (Yin, 2009). The digital databases for the video and audio recordings and transcripts were organized by each embedded case (Teacher One and Teacher Two), by baseline and implementation weeks, and sequenced by date and session number. The other data sources were organized similarly by type and date with initials for individuals. For all video and audio recordings, I utilized the qualitative analysis program, Transana (Woods & Fassnacht, 2012), which also served as an organizational tool. Text files from this program were exported from Transana and stored in the digital database as word processing files where appropriate.

**Data Condensation**

I demonstrate in Table 3 the data sources used to help answer the two research questions. The first step I took in analysis occurred during implementation. I viewed the teachers’ videos each week, taking notes to inform the weekly coaching calls. I used these notes and the notes
from our weekly calls and wrote summaries of the overall experience coaching each teacher. The second data type I began condensing were the teachers self-reflection logs, which included a record of their observed “teacher moves” as well as a written reflection. I conducted frequency counts from the page recording these instructional strategies and stored them in an excel spreadsheet for later comparison to my own content analysis. The post-interviews were also condensed into transcriptions in a question answer format.

The largest task was that of condensing the video/audio data from the twice-weekly recordings of the GISR sessions. Using a Jeffersonian method recommended and described by the authors of Transana (Woods & Fassnacht, 2012), the transcripts were created individually, first capturing the verbal exchanges, then in a second round, documenting the teacher’s and children’s observable and significant non-verbal exchanges such as gestures and movements that were story related. These transcripts were then organized by exchanges between teacher talk and child talk by the insertion of a line break and a video time code. When the second transcription cycle was completed, the transcripts were converted to word processing files, and then into a table format so that each exchange was separated in rows. For example, when a teacher prompted a child with a question a line break occurred. On the next line the child’s response is recorded. In the condensation process, the teacher prompt was in one row in the table and the child’s response was in the next. These verbal exchanges were contained in the left hand column of each table, with a column for coding teacher talk, quantifying children’s language utterances, and then a final column for analytic jottings of teachers’ and children’s participation and engagement.

**Coding—Teachers’ participation.** To answer the question of how both teachers’ participation changed over time, I analyzed data from both the personal and interpersonal planes with the understanding that great overlap exists. On the personal plane, I analyzed the teachers’
reflection logs and interviews. I conducted frequency counts on their self-reported use of the instructional strategies outlined on page one of the teacher reflection log (Appendix A). Initially, I had included sections for Phonological Awareness and Print/Alphabetic Awareness to help teachers maintain broad awareness of other areas of literacy development that can be incorporated into read aloud routines; I pruned these sections from the analysis process due to their lack of relevance towards answering the research questions. The teachers reported that they focused on these literacy skills during a different routine within their day. The interviews were reviewed early in the analysis and again towards the end of analysis for comparison of perceived changes by the teachers and the changes observed by myself.

The teachers were participating in different types of activities at the interpersonal level over the course of the study. They participated in the initial training conducted for the whole staff, the 20-minute consultation period to review the process of video-observation and self-reflection with me, as well as guided the interactive shared reading sessions. The analysis in this cycle focused on the data collected through the videos and subsequent transcripts, referencing the other data sources for verification.

I employed overlapping coding methods recommended by Johnny Saldaña (2013). The primary coding method was protocol coding, consistent with a deductive approach. This method utilizes a “pre-established, recommended, standardized, or prescribed system” for coding (Saldaña, 2013, p. 266). Drawing heavily from dialogic reading, I integrated the PEER sequence and CROWD prompts inherent in the intervention, which are pre-established and recommended components. Within the category for PEER Sequence, I coded the teacher’s discourse patterns. The indicators were prompt, evaluate, expand and repeat. The prompt indicator was simultaneously coded using CROWD as a sub-category and the indicators: completion prompt, recall prompt, open-ended prompts, Wh-questions that did not fit under one of the other
indicators to avoid overlap, and distancing prompts. These prompts were defined in Chapter Two of this study.

I also utilized the literacy and language coding method which “borrows from the established approaches to the analysis of literature and oral communication to explore underlying sociological, psychological and cultural constructs” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 265). I drew from the literature on recommended teacher practices for boosting engagement, increasing vocabulary usage, and conducting shared or interactive reading sessions with preschool children in whole group settings. As described earlier, these components were also integrated into the teachers’ reflection logs. One of the categories was Group Engagement/Classroom Management with the indicators: encouraged participation; used redirection; encouraged peer dialogue; used proximity; used intonation/expression; used visual and verbal cues; used manipulative or prop; and used gestures and movements. The next category was Vocabulary and included: modeled the use of story vocabulary; provided explanation of key vocabulary; or prompted child use of key vocabulary. Another category, Other, included recommended teacher moves to support story comprehension and children’s engagement. The indicators of analysis for this category were: pause/wait time; model think-alouds (metacognition); check in with regard to child’s intent or meaning; or “mark” responses by connecting child’s comments back to the text.

As the analysis proceeded, some inductive codes also emerged. The need for a Managerial category became apparent. The indicators for this category were: teacher uses “shhh” or finger to lips to inhibit child talk; corrective oriented comments; or reward/praise oriented comments regarding children’s behavior.

In summary, during the first cycle, I employed protocol, and language and literacy methods for coding in a deductive manner. Elements of content analysis are present as the coding occurred at the level of transcription. The teacher reflection logs outlining recommended
teacher moves and behaviors, including the dialogic reading categories described above were the bases for the first cycle coding, with one managerial category added.

**Coding—Children’s participation.** The second question in this case study is: How did children’s participation in the Guided Interactive Shared Reading sessions change as a result of teachers’ changing participation? In this study I was limited to the observable indicators of engagement and participation from the recorded reading sessions. To maintain a focus on the teacher-child interactions, primarily at the interpersonal level, I bounded the analysis of participation and engagement to language. There are examples of children’s non-verbal participation in teacher elicited gestures and movements that are indicators of engagement throughout, but I did not have the ability to view them across all children overtime. According to R.A. McWilliam and A.M. Casey (2008), movements and gestures constitute engagement at the level of differentiated behavior. According to their empirically validated construct (p. 6), this does not fall into the category of sophisticated engagement. For the purposes of this study, I analyzed children’s talk within the group context from two levels of sophisticated engagement: 1) encoded behavior: the use of understandable language (including sign language) that is bound in the context of the objects or events in a child’s immediate environment and 2) symbolic behavior: conventional forms of decontextualized behavior used to discuss the past, future, or construct new forms of expression with symbols and signs (McWilliam & Casey, 2008, p. 6). The third level within sophisticated engagement is persistence, which involves problem solving and overcoming challenges; this level was not consistently observable in the context of a large group read aloud routine.

Codes that emerged with regard to both encoded and symbolic behavior (both language based) that help formulate a picture of children’s participation in the GISR sessions I called child-initiated comments and questions (CICQs). Sub-codes for these became story related and
not story related. Embedded within children’s responses to teacher prompts and CICQs were the use of story related vocabulary, which reflected a more advanced engagement with the text. Child-initiated comments (CICs) also included children’s emotional utterances such as “oooh!” or “ah ha!”—further indication of active participation in the GISR sessions.

Another analytic step I took for a broad look at language participation in each classroom was to count the number of words spoken by children in each session and calculate the average length of their responses and comments. I also calculated the average number of child words per second captured to account for differing video lengths. Finally, I counted the number of children named by the teacher who participated in story-related conversation during each session. Teachers often call on students who signal they want to share/participate; thus, tracking the number of children being called on by name is one way to track certain types of engagement indicators over time. A final indicator of child engagement I used was to analyze teachers’ use (e.g., the frequency) of managerial talk. Although these final two indicators were teacher generated, they were in response to children’s verbal and non-verbal cues and behaviors. I clustered them with children’s participation to more deeply confirm, or disconfirm the plausibility of the emerging picture of children’s changing participation (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014).

Coding—Teacher-child interactions & cross-classroom analysis. The second cycle of coding co-occurred with data display. It was at this stage of analysis that I organized the displays according to the categories described in cycle one, added the managerial category and formulated the structure for children’s engagement. During cycle one coding, these steps emerged deductively as patterns of engagement began to form.

Throughout the coding process, although I looked specifically at the personal plane to analyze what changes were occurring first for teachers, I was always conscious that the
individual behaviors were co-occurring at the interpersonal level, through the interactions during the GISR sessions. I began formulating early propositions regarding these interactions (Yin, 2009). Using the data displays described in the following section, I identified patterns in video sessions, across the sessions with each teacher, and then across teachers’ classrooms in interactions. I used analytic memos and the jottings taken during coding, as well as key examples, or scenarios from particular sessions to highlight the patterns that were forming.

Data Display

Throughout the case study analysis, I used the technique of data display described by Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014) to visually organize the analysis. Two display types became central to the analysis process. First, matrices helped organize the coding process for each session. Second, using a time ordered matrix, the data was displayed in a spreadsheet by case and session, then by week and according to baseline or implementation. Since these displays contained frequency counts for the number of occurrences, I used session averages by stages of implementation within the spreadsheet to create line graphs by category. The stages of implementation were: baseline (weeks one and two), early implementation (week three), mid implementation (weeks four and five) and late implementation (weeks six and seven). These were then displayed jointly with child indicators next to teacher indicators, then in the cross case analysis, class to class.

Conclusion Drawing and Verification

Conjectures regarding changes in teacher participation and children’s engagement and participation began to emerge during early analysis. To ensure the accuracy of these emerging patterns, I relied heavily on content analysis, using the counts to ensure the conclusions I was drawing were accurate. It was in this manner that the category for managerial talk emerged as
described earlier in the chapter. A review of the definitions for each code and category led me to conduct a second cycle of coding and relieving inaccuracies in the original counts.

The data types I incorporated into the study design represent the use of triangulation to confirm the findings and conclusions. An open interview was used with questions and prompts to elicit responses regarding teachers’ perceptions of their change in teaching over time, their experience with using video reflections and their perceptions regarding the impact of the experience on the children in their class. These interviews were used to establish social validity with regard to the description and analysis. Likewise, once initial patterns of change began to form in the analysis, I returned to the transcripts of the videos and interviews, and sometimes to the original videos to verify the patterns that were forming. Throughout the analysis, I kept myself from drifting by focusing on how the quality and quantity of discourse changed over time during the reading sessions, and how this change may have related to patterns and changes in engagement by continuing to reference the proposed indicators. Finally, I referred back to the literature to root the conclusions in current theory.

Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) use the term ‘verifying’ as an overarching goal for determining the “goodness” of findings in qualitative research. Other ways of describing the merit or rigor of the findings are: confirmable, credible, and trustworthy among others. In this study, I used several strategies to verify the conclusions, and establish trustworthiness as suggested by these authors. First, I clearly established and describe my own role in the study, to maintain awareness regarding bias. Next, I explicitly described the methods and procedures used during data collection, data condensation and display, and ensured the data was representative over time and in different manners. In this way, I was able to use triangulation as a strategy to make meaning of the data. After initial conjectures formed, I returned to the data multiple times for review and confirmation/disconfirmation of the emerging patterns. I also used colleague and
participant feedback in the form of interviews and presentations of initial findings (to the participants and my colleagues), which included data quality checks. The trustworthiness and credibility of the study was also strengthened by the inclusion of numeric data, which was stored as raw data, and in a separate file for condensed data, referred to by Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014) as analytic documentation. In the previous paragraph, I also reference accounting for drift, and checking the conclusions against current theory. Ultimately, I used multiple strategies to support the trustworthiness of the results of the study relying on the above mentioned authors and their text for guidance and direction. In the following chapter, I share some of the findings that were gleaned from the analysis process.
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

“Rather than it now just being a book that we have that goes along with our theme, we can look at pictures, and we can read the book back to each other…and [go] on a walk with our book. The children were empowered…it took us to new levels”. –Teri, case study teacher

The above quote from Teri, a case study teacher, aptly introduces this chapter on “what happened,” or the findings of this study. In her reflection on the GISR intervention, this teacher touches on the interactions that occurred between not just the children and the teacher, but with the book as well. In this chapter, I will describe the changes that I saw occur over time for the teachers and children in both case classrooms—attempting to “take a walk” with the children and teachers across time and classrooms during the study. True to the sociocultural tenets that frame this study, learning per se is conceptualized as change of participation. Thus, to present findings related to learning, I first describe the observed changes in teacher participation during GISR. Next is a description of the observed changes in participation for the children in both case classrooms. I keep in mind the personal influences on children’s participation, but foreground their learning from an interpersonal lens as they are interacting and engaging with the teacher and the literature in the activity of GISR.

Changes in Teacher Participation

In Chapter Two, I shared the analytic indicators chosen to gauge teacher participation before and during the professional development designed to support the implementation of guided interactive shared reading (GISR). As a reminder these indicators were organized by the categories in the teacher’s reflection logs and include the teacher’s instructional moves made during GISR sessions. These categories were the PEER Sequence, CROWD prompts, specific vocabulary strategies not already included in the prompts, group participation strategies, specific
comprehension strategies such as marking students responses with the text, and finally, a managerial category. In this section, I use these indicators, as well as references from the teachers’ self-reflection logs and their interviews, to provide a description of each teacher’s changing participation in the guided interactive reading sessions. I have explained Rogoff’s transformation of participation model as the framework for the study and the analyses in this dissertation. Although the analyses I conducted examined the personal and interpersonal planes separately, I synthesize findings from the respective yet overlapping planes here to more cohesively and holistically tell the story of what happened for teacher learning. I begin with a general description of the classroom and observations from baseline before sharing key findings from their experiences. After sharing the key findings from each classroom, I compare both classrooms to understand teacher participation overall.

Jocelyn

Jocelyn taught one of the half-day classes within the program. Her classroom consisted of primarily four and five year olds, a few three year olds, and children with and without disabilities. Upon entry into the classroom, visual displays with text support abounded. The classroom was a busy place, with many adults supporting, including an assistant teacher, a grandparent and the special education teacher from the school district who supports children within the regular Head Start program. Jocelyn’s carpet area was to the left of the classroom door, separated from the entry by a display shelf full of children’s books. The carpet area and the children faced the corner of the classroom that had a rustic, log home feel, with wooden panels and bulletin boards on each of the two facing walls. Each child sat in a spot either on one of the alphabet letters that colorfully framed the circle, or in a row in front of Jocelyn. She sat on the floor with the children with two shelves beside her: a metal rolling cart with a CD and tape player sitting on it at shoulder height, and a taller shelf on her other side with a small book
display of the day’s read aloud book and weekly retell story board. The bulletin boards vibrantly displayed the classroom calendar, a pocket chart with photographs of vocabulary words, large chart paper with writing on it, and other pictures and text, such as the school wide rules of “Be Safe, Be Kind, Be Responsible.”

High above were shelves with stuffed bumblebees, in reference to the common call for children to “Be a Super Bee” by following the classroom rules. This particular corner of the classroom, with Jocelyn in her spot and the children surrounding her, became very familiar over the course of the spring. Each video captured the read aloud routine occurring during the final 15 to 20 minutes of the day at the circle time carpet. It was common towards the end of the recorded session to hear adult voices outside the door, as the children’s caregivers arrived to pick the children up from school. Jocelyn commented in her post-interview, that this could sometimes be a distraction to the children and she took to shutting her door during the latter part of the study so she could maintain the children’s attention and finish their reading sessions.

Jocelyn maintained a consistent structure to her read aloud sessions. On Tuesdays, the first session to be video taped each week, were the second read aloud of the week’s theme book. During this read aloud, Jocelyn would often pause to ask the children questions about the story. The children would call out an answer, sometimes in unison. During these first two weeks, Jocelyn would set the story aside, and announce the day’s “Super Bee”—the child being rewarded for good behavior. The child would be allowed to sit on the “Super Bee” beanbag and then Jocelyn would quickly read a second story to the children. There was much fanfare around this routine, and Jocelyn would spend a considerable amount of time making sure children understood what the expectations were in the hopes that they would be the “Super Bee” for the day. In Tuesday’s reading session, during the first week of baseline data collection, Jocelyn spent 66 percent of the time for the primary story engaged in reading and talking about the story,
and 34 percent of the time engaged in managerial or non story related dialogue with the children. In the second week during the Tuesday routine, 77% of the time was spent in story related talk and 23% was spent in managerial, or non-story related talk.

On Thursdays, Jocelyn played the recorded reading of the same story she read on Tuesdays. She held the story up high for children to see, reading along and turning the pages when the recording chimed. When the story was finished, Jocelyn put the story down, and picked up the retell storyboard. The storyboard included a series of illustrations from the book that sequenced story events. Jocelyn regularly drew names of children from popsicle sticks in a can to ask the children what happened first, second, third, fourth, fifth or sixth in the story.

As an example of the Thursday routine, during baseline week one, out of 11 minutes and 10 seconds of video related to the primary read aloud story, four minutes and 42 seconds were dedicated to the recorded listening and four minutes, one second were spent on the story retelling routine. This left two minutes and 28 seconds of video that was dedicated to managerial tasks. The following Thursday was slightly different because the children were returning from a field trip and arrived after the normal read aloud routine time and close to the end of the school day. The recorded session captured an abbreviated session of only eight minutes and 32 seconds. Five minutes, 28 seconds were spent on the recorded story and two minutes, 44 seconds on the retell board with only 30 seconds on managerial tasks. On Thursdays during the two baseline weeks, 53% of the read aloud time in Jocelyn’s class was spent listening to the story on tape, 34% of the time was spent asking children to retell the story using the storyboard, and on average, 13% of the time was spent dedicated to managerial tasks.

During the staff training and her initial coaching calls, Jocelyn shared that the teaching techniques, primarily the methods of dialogic reading, were already embedded into the curriculum they were using. She explained that she followed this curriculum, and therefore
already utilized the strategies being recommended. The data from her baseline videos demonstrated a familiarity with the recommended strategies. The practices Jocelyn used to engage children in her read aloud routine before the implementation of GISR contained many of the components taught during the initial training at the Head Start Center. With her background in public school teaching, Jocelyn was familiar with using curricular materials to guide her instruction. During conversations, she would bring up that her teaching would not change much because she was following the curriculum.

However, changes did occur in Jocelyn’s teaching over the five weeks of implementation. The biggest changes occurred in three areas: her use of the PEER Sequence and specifically her use of verbal prompts organized by the CROWD acronym within this sequence, and some group engagement strategies. I describe these changes by comparing her baseline teaching behaviors to early implementation (week one), mid-implementation (weeks two and three), and late implementation (weeks four and five) in that order.

**PEER sequence.** Jocelyn reported in her interview that she utilized the strategies embedded in the PEER sequence (Prompt, Evaluate, Expand and Repeat) prior to the professional development without knowing the name of the sequence. The program reported that they had recently received training on the elements of the CLASS assessment (Hamre & Pianta, 2008), which included an indicator of feedback loops, language the teachers and I incorporated overtime into our coaching conversations because they were familiar. The concept of feedback loops overlap with the PEER sequence, providing some background knowledge for the teachers when the sequence was introduced. Teacher prompts are the first stage in the PEER sequence. Prompts were defined as questions or statements Jocelyn used to encourage children’s participation through language. The notable changes in the number and type of prompts
(represented in the CROWD framework) used by Jocelyn will be described first, followed by her integration of evaluate, expand, repeat (EER).

**Prompting through CROWD.** During the initial training, I taught Jocelyn and the other teachers the acronym CROWD as a way to remember the types of prompts suggested in the dialogic reading method. The acronym stands for: Completion (a statement with an ending phrase or word left for children to fill in); Recall (direct questions about what happened in the story); Open Ended (questions or prompts with an opportunity for children to respond in more than one way); Wh (questions starting with who, what, where, when or how); and Distancing (prompts that ask children to make connections to their prior knowledge or experiences). In the analysis, prompts were often coded as more than one type. For example, before reading *Raccoon on His Own* (Arnosky, 2001), Jocelyn prompted the children with: “Tell me about a time when you were on your own.” This prompt was both open-ended, and distancing.

Jocelyn’s use of verbal prompts to elicit dialogue with children changed greatly over the course of implementation. Figure 2 visually displays the number of prompts used on average each session. The averages were calculated over the weeks included in each phase of implementation: baseline (week one and two); early implementation (week three); mid-implementation (weeks four and five); and late implementation (weeks six and seven). During baseline, Jocelyn used an average of 24 prompts per session. During early implementation, she averaged 33 prompts. Jocelyn’s prompt use averaged 23 per session during mid-implementation and 42 prompts during late implementation.
In her follow up interview, Jocelyn said she anticipated that there would not be a change in her prompt use over time because she continued to utilize the questions suggested in the adopted curriculum. However, she did state during her coaching time and in her interview that there was a lot to remember and that by writing the prompts she wanted to use during the reading sessions on sticky notes in the books, she was more likely to ask them then just by memory: “especially the higher level questions…you would forget sometimes.” The strategy of writing prompts on sticky notes was a recommendation provided during the whole staff training prior to implementation. Jocelyn’s comment about the higher level questions is reflected in her changing use of specific prompt types. The line graph in Figure 3 shows the types of prompts used over the course of implementation. In the following sections I will explain the patterns of prompt use.
Figure 3: Jocelyn's Prompt Use by Type: Session Averages

Baseline. In week one, the majority of Jocelyn’s prompt types were Wh-type, often in the form of a recall prompt. These prompts were typically structured in a call and response format with the perceived purpose of checking for listening comprehension. For example, during a read aloud of the story *A Tree for All Seasons* (Bernard, 2001), Jocelyn read, “It is perfect weather for farmers to collect sugar maple sap”; she then asked, “What are they going to collect?” During baseline, Jocelyn averaged 17.25 Wh-type questions per session and 12.75 recall questions. Open-ended prompts were used minimally with a baseline average of 6.5 per session. Her use of distancing and completion prompts was minimal.

Early implementation. In comparison to baseline, Jocelyn’s first week of implementation showed several changes in her use of teaching prompts. The most noticeable change was in Jocelyn’s use of Open-Ended prompts, which averaged 12.5 prompts per session. Wh-type questions also increased at this time. My conversations with Jocelyn regarding her attempts to include the “higher level questions” by writing them on the sticky notes fit into the description of the prompt patterns during the first week. Higher order thinking questions tend to elicit more
open-ended responses. For example, instead of the baseline pattern of questioning such as “what season is it?” Jocelyn began asking questions such as “What do you think he was looking for outside?”

**Mid-Implementation.** Mid-Implementation included the reading sessions from weeks four and five. There was a decrease in Jocelyn’s overall prompt use during this time. While her use of recall prompts remained consistent with baseline, Jocelyn’s use of wh-type prompts decreased to an average of 12.25 prompts per session. Jocelyn’s use of open-ended prompts decreased to an average of 9.25 per session.

In her journal, Jocelyn documented her goal to increase her distancing-type questions during the second week of implementation, but her use of this prompt type did not reflect this goal. It was during the second week that Jocelyn and I had our first coaching conversation. She reported that the children had a family event and children had left early, causing them to be distracted. When I asked what she would like help with, she said everything was fine and she did not need help. It was not until our second coaching call, which occurred during the third week of implementation, that Jocelyn seemed open to suggestions regarding her prompt types. I suggested she reflect on which prompt types she was strong with and which ones may need more attention. During this call, Jocelyn mentioned that while she was viewing her previous reading sessions on video, she noticed how low her use of distancing-type prompts were. She decided to set this as a goal, which was more specific than her previous goal of increasing engagement overall.

**Late-Implementation.** The final two weeks of implementation show Jocelyn’s use of distancing prompts increasing from 2.75 per session during baseline to an average of 15.25 per session. Some of these distancing questions were also open-ended, while others were closed. For example, with the story *Raccoon on His Own* (Arnosky, 2001), Jocelyn prompted: “Have you
ever been on your own?” which elicited a ‘yes’ or ‘no’ response. She quickly adjusted by re-prompting with, “Tell us about a time when you were on your own.” Jocelyn’s use of open-ended prompts also increased. Whereas during baseline, Jocelyn averaged 6.5 open-ended prompts per session, she averaged 20.25 in the final two weeks of implementation.

In summary, Jocelyn increased her use of the CROWD prompts during Guided Interactive Shared Reading sessions. She maintained a high level of recall and wh-type prompts as teaching tools, but added in more open-ended and distancing prompts to her repertoire. Jocelyn mentioned in her interview that she wanted to make small additions to her “teaching toolbox.” This is represented in the addition of the two prompt types into the reading sessions.

_Evaluations, expansions and repetitions_. The second area of observable changes was in Jocelyn’s integration of the PEER sequence’s other components (evaluate, expand, repeat) into her “teacher toolbox” with prompting. The elements in this process do not necessarily occur in order. However, one or more of the final three elements usually follows a teacher prompt. Figure 4 demonstrates the change over time for all three types. Following is a description of the changes in each of them across the stages of implementation.

Figure 4: Jocelyn's Use of Evaluations, Expansions and Repetitions: Session Averages
Evaluations. Evaluations were coded as opportunities Jocelyn took to provide feedback to students regarding their verbal participation. For example, Jocelyn commonly included “yes,” or “that’s right,” or “good job!” to affirm children’s responses. At baseline, the session average number of evaluations was 5.25. Directly after the training, during early implementation, this average increased to eleven per session. During mid-implementation and late implementation, Jocelyn’s use of evaluations remains higher than at baseline, stabilizing at an average of 7.5 evaluations per session during mid-implementation and 8.25 during late implantation.

Expansions. Expansions were opportunities taken to elaborate on children’s responses, often modeling a more complex sentence structure or use of story related vocabulary. Jolene minimally incorporated this strategy during baseline, with an average of 3.25 expansions per session. After the training, she began to increase her use of this strategy, increasing to an average of seven expansions per session. She does not maintain this, and at mid-implementation, her use of expansions decreases to an average of 5.75 per session, which is still more than at baseline. It appears that Jocelyn regained facility over this technique during late implementation. During the final two weeks of the study, her average number of expansions per session doubles to 11.25. This facility over the strategy is exemplified in the following example in which Jocelyn uses expansions to support a child’s thoughts regarding the raccoon in a boat, floating away from a muddy shore in the story, *Raccoon on His Own* (Arnosky, 2001):

C: But he look out of the boat, but he can stretch his legs like this high.

T: He could stretch his leg really far?

C: Like really, like this. And then he could just walk right out of this.

T: And then he could walk and get out of the mud, if he could stretch his leg?

This example illustrates Jocelyn’s integration of expansions within the context of the PEER sequence.
Repetitions. Finally, incidences in which Jocelyn repeated verbatim what a child said were coded as repetitions. Jocelyn began using repetitions in combination with evaluations and expansions most frequently during late implementation. During baseline, she averaged 7.25 repetitions per session. This increased during early implementation to an average of 12.5 repetitions per session during early implementation, but drops to an average of 7.5 per session during mid-implementation. By the final two weeks, Jocelyn’s use of repetitions increases to an average of 18.25 repetitions per session.

There appears to be a pattern in the way Jocelyn’s use of the PEER sequence drops during mid-implementation. One explanation is that although she began to implement changes directly after the training in her use of the sequence, she began to revert back to her teaching patterns from before the training in the second and third weeks. Our first coaching call occurred at the beginning of the second week of implementation, but we were not able to deeply engage in conversations about strategy use until her later coaching calls (the third and fourth week of implementation). It is possible that the timing of these calls contributed to the increase her integration of the PEER sequence during late implementation.

The following example from the transcription of the Tuesday reading of *The Puddle Pail* (Klevin, 1997) during the final week of implementation demonstrates Jocelyn’s integrated use of the PEER sequence:

T: Why do you think he wants to collect puddles?

C: Cuz! Cuz he loves them.

T: He loves the puddles. That’s why he wants to collect them? Ok. What does he love about them?

C: Cuz they look pretty.

T: Cuz they look pretty? And you think he loves them cuz they look pretty too?
C: Pretty…
T: What do you think?
C: Cuz he…cuz they’re so sparkly.
T: Cuz they’re so sparkly? That’s a good reason to like a puddle!

In summary, just as there was an increase in the number of prompts Jocelyn used during the GISR sessions, there was also an increase in the usage of evaluations, expansions and repetitions incorporated during the final two weeks of implementation. While the number of repetitions more than doubled, the most dramatic change occurred in the frequency with which Jocelyn chose to expand children’s language responses as *The Puddle Pail* (Klevin, 1997) excerpt and *Raccoon on His Own* (Arnosky, 2001) excerpt demonstrates. The following section will describe her use of other group engagement strategies, besides the PEER Sequence and CROWD prompts to elicit higher levels of participation from the children.

**Group participation strategies.** Jocelyn’s overarching goal throughout the study was to increase children’s participation and engagement, as evidenced by her journal, coaching phone calls, emails, and her interview. When asked what her biggest challenge was in her early implementation, she said, “asking and thinking, ‘what will get them going?’” She said she just wanted to “add a few things” to what she was already doing. Jocelyn already used a lot of visual cues, such as pointing at her head when she wanted the children to think about something, or pointing to a picture in the story during baseline and she continued to do this throughout the study. However, these differed from the gestures and movements that she expected to be utilized by the children as well. The teaching strategies she chose to support her goal to increase engagement was to integrate the use of props, gestures and movements into her GISR sessions. Changes were also observed in opportunities Jocelyn took to verbally encourage involvement and in her intonation and expression. The line graph in Figure 4 visually displays the changes...
that occurred in Jocelyn’s use of props, movements, encouraging participation and intonation. I will describe each of these in turn.

Figure 5: Jocelyn's Use of Group Participation Strategies: Session Averages

Props. During the baseline reading sessions, Jocelyn did not use any props. In her interview, Jocelyn said the curriculum came with a puppet to be used during other routines in the day, but she had not emphasized the use of puppets or props in her read aloud routine before. This changed immediately in the first recorded sessions during week one, with verbal references to props in use an average of 18 times during the first week of implementation. Jocelyn explained in her first coaching call that she taught the children how to use the props on Mondays and Tuesdays “and by Wednesday they knew what to do.” By mid-implementation, Jocelyn’s verbal references to the use of props averaged 5.25 references, which stayed consistent throughout the rest of the study, with an average of 5.75 props referenced during late implementation. Examples of props used during the weeks of implementation were popsicle sticks with pictures of kittens on them to be placed in a robe on the floor, a stuffed bear, a small fishing pole, a plastic bucket, and multiple puppets. There was variety in how the props were
used and by whom. For example, with the story Moonbear’s Shadow (Asch, 1985), Jocelyn utilized a stuffed bear as the puppet telling the story. In other sessions, the props were used by the children. For example with the story One Dark Night (Hutchins, 2001), during the first week of implementation, Jocelyn handed the children popsicle stick props with pictures of the story kittens on them. The children brought them to be placed in the robe on the floor at the appropriate points in the story.

**Gestures and movements.** Besides props, Jocelyn also began integrating the use of gestures and movements into the GISR sessions. During baseline, Jocelyn averaged 6.5 gestures or movements per week. These consisted primarily of times when Jocelyn used head movements or hand motions to demonstrate an aspect of the story. During implementation, this changed to intentional gestures or movements for the children to use with the teacher. For example, during early implementation, the teacher facilitated drumming on the rug with hands when the story read “Barroom!” for the thunder rolling. During early implementation, Jocelyn averaged 15 opportunities to integrate movements and gestures in the GISR sessions. During mid-implementation Jocelyn averaged 16.5 gestures or movements per week and by late implementation, an average of 10.5 movements or gestures were observed per week.

**Verbal encouragement.** Another teaching tool Jocelyn used to elicit group engagement was to verbally encourage children to join in with movements, gestures, and choral responses. For example, when listening to Moonbear’s Shadow (Asch, 1985), Moonbear dug a hole to put his shadow in. When the story read: “Then Bear filled in the hole with dirt”, Jocelyn told the children: “Ok, let’s fill it in!” The teacher and children then pretended to shovel dirt back into the hole to bury Moonbear’s shadow. During baseline, Jocelyn averaged two prompts per session to verbally encourage children’s participation. This changed to 8.5 during baseline, and maintained at an average of 6.5 times per session during early and late implementation. As with
intonation and expression, this strategy complemented, and was used in concert with, other engagement strategies such as her verbal prompts and use of props and gestures.

**Intonation and expression.** Jocelyn did not reference her use of intonation and expression as a teaching technique or a personal goal during our conversations, but frequently self-reported using intonation and expression in her reflection log and self-observation of her reading sessions. During baseline, an average of only .75 incidences of expression or intonation were documents per session. However, this increased in early implementation to an average of five per session, 4.25 during mid-implementation and 5.25 per session during late implementation. The observed incidences of intonation ranged from Jocelyn’s use of a sing song voice to call a child’s name, to emotional utterances such as “aahh!” during a recorded listening session, or calling out “Splat!” with expression during a reading.

**Participation strategies together.** The steps Jocelyn took to meet her goal of increasing children’s participation and engagement extended beyond her use of the PEER sequence and CROWD prompts to include group engagement strategies such as using props, gestures, verbal encouragement to participate, and intonation and expression. The ways she chose to do this changed over time. For example, one observed prompt during baseline was to elicit a choral response from children. Jocelyn said: “Everybody, what season is it?” (a recall prompt). Later, Jocelyn encouraged participation through the props, gestures and movements as well as verbal responses. This was especially apparent during the recorded read aloud of the stories that occurred each Thursday before a story retell. In early videos, Jocelyn would look at the page of the book with a straight face and turn the pages, without attempting to engage the children during their listening session. Farther into implementation, Jocelyn would engage the children through movements, and gestures as well as encourage verbal participation. For example, during a listening session in late implementation, the recorded story of *Raccoon on His Own* (Armosky,
2001), described a raccoon in a boat floating under a low hanging branch with a snake above and read: “the raccoon ducked down”. The teacher placed a toy snake on a nearby shelf, ducked down and pretended to crawl to the other side of the boat. She then says: “Duck down!” to the children. This example demonstrates Jocelyn’s use of props, gestures, movements and verbal prompts to encourage children’s participation in the GISR sessions.

**Summing up Jocelyn’s changing participation.** In this section, I described Jocelyn’s participation in Guided Interactive Shared Reading by sharing the areas in which Jocelyn demonstrated the most change. This included a description of the number and types of prompts she used, incidences of the components of the PEER sequence, and her uptake of group participation strategies. Jocelyn set a broad goal of improving children’s engagement throughout the study. She integrated new teaching strategies including the use of props, gestures and movements as well as refining and enhancing other strategies, such as the types of verbal prompts she incorporated.

Jocelyn participated in the professional development by viewing her video recordings and reflecting on a regular basis throughout the study. She participated in phone coaching conversations over time with specific guidance regarding her goal setting, which became more specific and directed over time, such as with the shift from “improving engagement” generically, to working specifically on the addition of distancing prompts into her reading sessions. Although Jocelyn’s participation in the reading sessions changed somewhat with her consistent use of the reflection logs, it appears that the coaching was a critical component in facilitating the change. In fact, during her final interview, Jocelyn specifically referenced a coaching moment in which I directed her to look at the prompt type in CROWD she incorporated least often, leading her to set the goal of adding in distancing prompts.
Teri

Teri’s classroom was just down the hall from Jocelyn’s. As described in Chapter Two, she also taught children ages three through five in a half-day program. A multi-colored carpet placed in the corner with an empty shelf to one side contained Teri’s circle time area. She typically sat next to a small red bookshelf with a few books placed on it. The bulletin board above Teri’s head contained a calendar and a writing chart. The children sat on alphabet letters embedded in the carpet, which formed a U shaped “circle” area with Teri at the front. The assistant teacher, parents and volunteers often sat with children on the carpet, assisting with managerial tasks and sharing in the story time. Teri’s GISR time occurred first thing in the morning, lasting between 10 and 15 minutes per day. Children arrived at school and joined their teacher for story time before breakfast. It was common to hear Teri comment: “We can talk more about that at breakfast this morning”.

Typically, Teri’s read aloud routine began by quizzing the children on book awareness concepts. She would ask: “What part of the book is this?” while pointing at the spine, cover, back, title, author or illustrator. The children would respond in choral fashion, often calling out a label before Teri pointed at it. This consistently took the first two to three minutes of each session, but shortened in duration during late implementation (the last two weeks). Teri’s routine during baseline also included reviewing the adopted curriculum’s vocabulary cards. She would read the prompts on the back of the cards while dialoguing with children. The vocabulary cards corresponded to the story being read that week. This part of the routine was not recorded once implementation commenced.

In describing Teri’s colleague’s experience (Jocelyn), I included a description of the amount of time spent during baseline in managerial related tasks and talk. I do not describe this
for Teri, because during baseline, Teri did not purposefully engage in managerial talk with the children during the recorded reading sessions.

Although Teri read the same book as her colleague, Jocelyn, she did not always follow the routine recommended by the curricular adoption. For example, she was only observed using the stories’ audio recording twice throughout the seven weeks of the study. Teri typically read the storybook with the students during Tuesdays recorded session and discussed the story using the storyboard on Thursdays. As the weeks progressed, Teri became more purposeful and intentional in how she used this time for student learning.

During baseline and early implementation, Teri often appeared unprepared for story time with the children. This was evidenced by incidences in which the assistant teacher handed her the reading materials during video recording. Other times, Teri asked the children: “Did you read this with [the assistant teacher] yesterday?” Further evidence of her lack of preparedness came from the actual reading time, during which Teri would stumble over the words of the story, or was unable to explain vocabulary words to the children. During the four baseline sessions, a pattern in Teri’s prompting emerged. She typically asked children basic questions about the story that elicited one-word choral responses (e.g., “What season is it when snow falls to the ground?”). It was typical to hear Teri ask one particular child a series of three to four questions in a row in different iterations, followed by “do you remember?” If the child did not respond, she would ask: “Would you like a friend to help?” These questions occurred in a quick sequence with little time for response from the child.

In her interview, Teri commented that at the beginning of the study she felt overwhelmed, and even after the training, didn’t understand “how to do [GISR] correctly or even fluently.” In fact, Teri’s early self-reflection logs showed only one or two tally marks for using a strategy (her
own observation of her strategy use), and several blanks on each page, another indication that she was struggling.

Our first coaching call occurred towards the end of the second week of implementation. When asked about a specific goal for her teaching, Teri said she wanted to focus on asking more open-ended questions. Having watched the videos from both baseline and early implementation, I asked Teri to also focus on two small things. First, I suggested that she pay attention to asking a child one question and then using “wait time,” or a pause to allow time for the child to think, which aligned well with her personal goal of using more open-ended questions. Second, I recommended that Teri peruse the book in advance to be sure she understood the concepts and could provide child friendly definitions of the vocabulary words in the stories.

Each coaching call followed a similar format. Teri and I would first check in with what she thought was going well, and identify areas she may need support with. I would provide a few examples of strategies I saw her using in the video sessions and one or two suggestions that aligned with her request for support. Due to this structure, our coaching calls did not always address the components of dialogic reading embedded in the GISR sessions, such as the use of the PEER Sequence or all of the CROWD prompts. I allowed the coaching conversations to match Teri’s needs at the time, which included a need for purposeful preparation, using body language and intonation to support classroom management strategies, and how she was working to include all of her children in the routine. This included children she was concerned were lagging behind in their skill development. Each call also included a time to reflect on what she was noticing from watching the videos and self-reflecting.

By the second coaching call during the third week of implementation, Teri shared a breakthrough (or “aha” moment) she had regarding the overlap between the curriculum supports she had (story cards to accompany read alouds) and the strategies recommended in the GISR
professional development. She decided that she would not write her prompts and cues on sticky notes in the book, as recommended in the training, but would utilize the story cards provided in the curriculum during the GISR sessions. It wasn’t until the fourth and final coaching call that Teri’s focus shifted towards integrating the PEER sequence into her sessions. She began asking specific questions regarding evaluating, and how that fit into using feedback loops for children.

The changes in Teri’s teaching were observed throughout the video sessions and captured in content analysis. Key changes in Teri’s use of teaching tools and strategies were observed in her use of the PEER sequence, which included her changing use of open-ended prompts, the group participation strategies of visual cues and gestures or movements, and modeling of story related vocabulary. As with Jocelyn, I describe these changes by comparing her baseline teaching behaviors to early implementation (week one), mid-implementation (weeks two and three) and late implementation (weeks four and five), and type and the time of implementation (Baseline, Early, Mid and Late Implementation).

**PEER sequence.** Earlier I explained that the PEER sequence includes teachers’ prompting, as well as evaluations, expansions and repetitions (not necessarily in that order). As Teri’s understandings of her role in facilitating language during reading sessions changed, her use of prompts, and how she followed up with children’s responses began to change. It was common in early video sessions for Teri to ask a sequence of questions in different iterations to children before providing them an opportunity to respond. By late implementation, although Teri occasionally still asked “Do you remember?” of a child after a prompt, it was more common for her to make a single prompt, and then wait for the child to respond. It also became more typical for Teri to follow up with children by re-prompting, or rephrasing in a manner that scaffolded their participation and comprehension as opposed to getting “a friend to help” as she would commonly say, or by quickly moving to another child for a more accurate response. Her
awareness of the role of feedback loops became evident through her changing use of prompts, expansions, evaluations and repetitions. I will describe the changes in each of these areas in this order.

**Prompts.** Not only did Teri exhibit changes in the quantity of prompts she used to elicit language interactions from the children in her classroom, but in the quality as well. The line graph in Figure 6 represents the change in the number of prompts used by Teri over time. The graph, and subsequent graphs represents the average number of prompt types per session across baseline, early implementation, mid-implementation, and late implementation.

![Figure 6: Teri's Overall Prompt Use: Session Averages](image)

During baseline Teri averaged 32.25 prompts per session. During early implementation this drops to an average of 27 prompts per session. By mid-implementation Teri’s prompt use returns close to baseline with an average of 31 prompts per session. Finally, during late implementation (the final two weeks of the study), Teri’s prompt use increases to an average of 38 prompts per session.

During baseline and early implementation, it was most common to observe Teri asking the same prompt of different children repeatedly, or re-prompting before a child had a chance to
respond. The high number of total prompts during baseline confirms this pattern. Later in the sessions, as Teri provided more time for children to respond before re-prompting, the overall number of prompts does not change drastically, but the type of prompts does.

Teri’s use of prompt types did include some completion and distancing questions, but not enough to warrant an account of these two prompt types in detail. Throughout the study, Jocelyn relied heavily on recall and Wh-type questions. The numbers of these types did not change either, but the quality of prompting appears in the changes in her use of open-ended questions, which were often double coded with recall and Wh-type questions. Following is an account of Teri’s changing use of open-ended prompts.

*Open ended prompts.* With regard to quality, Teri’s prompts changed primarily in the area of open-ended prompts. This is a key indicator in the change of the quality of her prompt use. The line graph in Figure 6 quantifies the open ended prompts Teri used over time. Following, I will describe the change in the use of these prompt types by baseline, early implementation, mid-implementation and late implementation.

Figure 7: Teri's Use of Open Ended Prompts: Session Averages
During baseline, it was common for Teri to make a statement and follow it with an attempt for agreement such as in the following excerpt from an early transcript: “These kind of look like the boxes we have in our classroom don't they? ((motioning to page with fingers)). I see the recycle, reduce and reuse sign on them. Do you see that sign on them?” During the four baseline sessions, Teri averaged 11 open-ended prompts per session. These primarily occurred during the story retells with the storyboard each week. It was typical for Teri to ask: “What is happening in this picture?” as an open-ended prompt.

After the initial training to explicitly embed prompts into the GISR sessions, Teri averaged 13.5 open ended prompts per session (early implementation). In one of her early attempts, Teri experienced success using an open-ended prompt to discuss the story vocabulary. She asked: “What do you think it means for her to arrange her family?” The child’s in depth reply became a topic of conversation during the subsequent coaching session, which was: “that means, her, her, cuz, that means her family’s all organized. She has enough room to feed them and sleep”. Teri was surprised and excited by the quality of the child’s response. It was encouragement for her to include more open-ended prompts during the reading sessions.

Teri’s use of open-ended prompts during mid-implementation, matched her usage during early implementation. She averaged 13 prompts per session during this time as well. Over time, Teri began experimenting with other types of open-ended questions, trying to more purposefully elicit responses from children. For example, after a child’s response to an open-ended question regarding what happened in *Whistle for Willie* (Keats, 1977), Teri followed up the child’s response with “Why do you think he kept walking away?” This demonstrates the increased quality in the type of open-ended prompts Teri used.

By the final two weeks of the study (late implementation), Teri used on average, 14.75 open-ended prompts per session. Her final week of recorded sessions demonstrated a sharp
increase in this prompt type, averaging 18.5 open-ended prompts per session, almost equal to the total number of recall questions she employed throughout. Later examples continued to match the quality described in mid-implementation with a focus on deepening the children’s comprehension of story concepts. For example, in an attempt to scaffold children’s understanding that the water in a pail was changing colors because it was reflecting the colors of the sky in the book *The Puddle Pail* (Klevin, 1997), Teri first asked: “How did his puddle collection in his pail keep changing colors? “ and in a later session with the same story: “What do you think was making it change?” These examples demonstrate her increased intentionality and purposeful teaching during the reading sessions.

Overtime, both the quality and quantity of Teri’s prompt use changed, specifically with regard to how she used Open-Ended prompts to encourage dialogue and support children’s thinking. In the following section, I will describe how she began following up on children’s responses through her incorporation of the PEER sequence into her teaching.

**Expansions, evaluations and repetitions.** Teri’s ability to support children’s involvement in the GISR sessions is represented in her follow up to their responses as well how she prompted them to participate originally. Here, I describe her integration of evaluations, expansions and repetitions across time. The accompanying line graph in Figure 8 visually displays these categories together since they are intended for use in partnership with each other. The sequence lends itself towards an increase in what the teachers in this study refer to as feedback loops, a term borrowed from the training they had received in the CLASS assessment system used in their program to assess teacher effectiveness (Pianta, LaParo & Hamre, 2008).
Figure 8: Teri's use of Evaluations, Expansions and Repetitions: Session Averages

_Evaluations_. The use of evaluations as a teaching tool was not evident in our coaching conversations until the final week of implementation. Teri did incorporate some evaluations into her GISR routines with children, which remained stable from baseline through to mid-implementation with approximately six evaluations per session. The number of evaluations began to increase at this time, and continued to rise steadily until the final week of implementation, with a weekly average of 13 evaluations included. The types of verbal evaluations employed over time included “Good Job,” “Yes,” “That’s right,” and other such affirmations.

_Expansions_. Over time, Teri also began integrating more expansions of children’s responses into her conversations during GISR sessions. During baseline, her use of expansions averaged six per session, which immediately jumps in the first week of implementation to an average of nine per session. During mid-implementation this increases to an average of 11 and then 9.5 on average during late implementation. How Teri used this tool also changed. For example, in the beginning, they the expansions were sometimes reiterating the child’s comment
in another way. Later into implementation, Teri used them to model language or elicit more talk from children. For example, in the final week of implementation, a child was recalling details in the story and appeared stuck. She said: “…um, um, and, and…the other butterfly…” and Teri inserted: “The butterfly flew by and…”, pausing to allow the child to finish her thought. The child did, finishing with: “and the dog drank some of the puddle.” This example illustrates Teri’s increased skill at using expansions to facilitate dialogue during the reading sessions.

Repetitions. The final component, repetitions, was the PEER sequence tool most commonly used by Teri during the baseline sessions. The average number of repetitions per session during baseline was 10.5. Teri’s usage dropped somewhat as she began to use other tools; by week two she only used repetitions an average of 3.5 times per session. This quickly recovered and soon the repetitions were occurring in concert with her use of expansions and evaluations. By late implementation, she averaged 14 repetitions per session.

In her post interview, Teri discussed her improved ability to use feedback loops. This perceived change is evidenced in how she took up the tools of prompting, evaluating, expanding and repeating during GISR sessions. The following excerpt from a reading session using the book *The Puddle Pail* (Kleven, 1997) demonstrates her use of these tools to elicit higher levels of participation from the children in her class:

T: Can you see that puddle right there? ((points to the storyboard picture)) and what’s in that puddle?

C: It’s a cap, but its shiny and..but the little blue dinosaur, he wanted the puddle, and the big dinosaur, he was much better about the puddle.

T: So one of the dinosaurs wanted to collect a puddle and he wasn’t sure that was a good thing to collect?

C: Yes (nods head)
T: Do you remember about what was in the puddle? What was that thing in the puddle [child’s name]?

C: A cap.

T: A cap. And do we remember what the cap was for?

C1: For the mud

C2: For a lid.

T: It was a lid. What were they gonna do with it do you know?

C: Um..[they were]

C2: [cuz he] was keeping [it for a collection].

C: [gonna use it for] a collection.

T: For a collection. So they had a rubber band for a collection, and they had a bottle cap for a collection, and you also said that he wanted that puddle…

**Group participation strategies.** Teri mentioned during coaching calls and again in her post-interview that she often felt unsure how to guide the children during the reading sessions. For example, after spring break, she noticed a difference in children’s energy levels and hadn’t considered that it would be beneficial to reteach them the behavior expectations at this time of the year. Over time, her self-efficacy regarding her ability to use teaching tools to guide students shifted. She commented that as time passed, children needed to leave the circle less and less for things like bathroom breaks, or tissues. She also commented that she had noticed a drop in side conversations. These changes in student behaviors provided affirmation for herself that her use of teaching tools contributed to children’s participation in GISR.

The change in Teri’s use of group participation strategies verifies this self-perception. For example, over time, Teri took up the use of visual cues and gestures or movements during GISR. The line graph in Figure 9 represents the recorded incidences of visual cues or gestures and
movements she incorporated. I discuss the two strategies in concert because of their similarity in nature. Visual cues represent opportunities Teri took to direct children’s attention towards something—usually the storyboard or book being read that week. For example, Teri would often use her finger to “circle” a photo or illustration being discussed during story retells. Gestures or movements were coded as times when Teri supported story content through the use of a physical movement. For example, when a story read “by digging” Teri began motioning at the carpet with her fingers as if she were digging in the mud. Soon the children joined in with her.

Figure 9: Teri's use of Visual Cues and Gestures or Movements: Session Averages

During baseline, Teri averaged 6.5 visual cues and only 1.25 gestures or movements per session. This stayed similar during early implementation with an average of 7 visual cues and an average of .75 gestures or movements per session. While Teri’s use of visual cues dropped to an average of 3.5 during mid-implementation, she incorporated more gestures and movements at 5.75 per session. By late implementation, this increased to an average of 6.5 per session while visual cues grew to an average of 19.5 per session. In summary, increases in both visual cues, and gestures and movements were noticed, though most dramatically in her use of visual cues.

**Modeling story vocabulary.** The final indicator of Teri’s changing participation in GISR sessions is through her use of story vocabulary in conversation with children. Since Jocelyn was
already integrating story vocabulary into her read aloud sessions at baseline, this did not develop as a change in Jocelyn’s participation the way it did for Teri. As represented in the line graph in Figure 10, Teri used a minimal amount of story vocabulary during baseline and early implementation. This increased slightly during mid-implementation to an average of three uses per reading session. During Teri’s final recorded reading, her modeling of story related vocabulary more than doubled to an average of six uses per session. Teri’s late implementation session average (the last two weeks) was 4.25. For example, in the week five story, *The Puddle Pail* (Klevin, 1997), the main characters were creating collections. Teri asked the children: “What is something you could make a collection out of?” This change in Teri’s use of story related vocabulary words may suggest a more planful, intentional approach to her read aloud sessions than occurred during baseline.

**Figure 10: Teri's Modeling of Story Related Vocabulary: Session Averages**

**Summing up Teri’s participation over time.** Teri exhibited changes in participation throughout the course of the study, but primarily in the final few weeks of implementation. As described previously, during early implementation she often felt overwhelmed with what it meant to guide an interactive shared reading experience for young children. Over time, Teri took up strategies that supported this reading routine and these evidences appeared in her evolving use
of prompts (specifically open-ended) and her integration of the other elements in the PEER Sequence: evaluations, expansions and repetitions. The recorded reading sessions also captured changes in Teri’s use of visual cues, movements and gestures to elicit group participation as well as an increase in the number of times she modeled story vocabulary for children. Although Teri experienced struggles in her implementation early on in the study, she expressed great excitement in her post interview about her growing ability to utilize the curriculum, and integrate GISR strategies—including feedback loops.

The coaching sessions provided Teri with the needed support to understand how to integrate the strategies from the training and the accountability to continue participating in the process, leading her to not only learn about the strategies in GISR, but enabling her to begin embedding them in her practice. It appears that most of the changes that occurred in Teri’s teaching occurred in concert with coaching conversations that took place. For example, Teri and I engaged in conversations regarding using story related vocabulary during mid-implementation. Her vocabulary modeling increased soon thereafter. I also gave the example earlier of Teri’s inquiry during our final coaching call during the beginning of the final week of implementation. It was during the last week that her incidences of evaluations increased as well.

Teri’s changing participation throughout the study was confirmed in her comments during coaching and her demeanor in her final interview. She exuded a level of confidence that was not observed during the training or early videos sessions. Teri explains her experience with the process in the following quote:

“…in the beginning I could tell that I wasn't very comfortable filling this out…well if you flip and you just go to some of the end stories, I mean, check this out, it let me reflect on my thoughts, my ideas, my teaching skills, and also showed me that it is built into the curriculum that I am using so you helped me to
utilize my teaching tools that were already before me but I really didn't understand how to utilize them and to get quality teaching time out of them…and I just got to [do] all this wonderful reflection for myself I just love.”

**Teacher Participation Overall**

In summary, both Teri and Jocelyn demonstrated changes in their use of the recommended strategies in GISR. The respective skill sets with which they began the study were very different at baseline, but they both set goals to take on new tools over time. Jocelyn’s experience implementing a standard curriculum gave her an advantage with regard to her guided reading sessions prior to implementation. She focused on refining her strategies to include more participation and engagement. Jocelyn’s spikes in the quantity of prompt usage and integration of props and movements during early implementation suggest a willingness to embrace the suggestions from the initial training, but she wanted to do so independently. Overtime, it appeared as though she embraced the coaching as a support tool and was able to sustain some of the refinements she made to her practice.

Teri needed more hands on support to learn to utilize her “teaching tools” as she called them, and slowly but surely, began integrating strategies to engage children through prompting and feedback loops. Teri’s data suggests that she struggled with consistency in implementation from the outset. The coaching calls and reflection logs appear to have provided a level of accountability, leading to changes in her practice.

Both teachers showed an increase in the number of prompts they used. They also learned to vary their prompt types, but focused on different ones. For example, Jocelyn began emphasizing distancing prompts and took on a wider variety of the CROWD prompts, while Teri emphasized Open-Ended prompts alone. Teri and Jocelyn both increased the number of times elements of the PEER sequence were integrated. However, at the end of the study Jocelyn relied
heavily on repetitions, Teri demonstrated the most balance between evaluations, expansions and repetitions. Finally, Jocelyn was able to take on a wider variety of strategies for implementation, whereas Teri experienced changes in fewer areas. However, even with very different skill sets, each teacher showed evidence of changing participation over time.

Both teachers were able to integrate elements of the dialogic reading method into their reading time through the use of the PEER sequence and CROWD prompts. Teri and Jocelyn also both integrated strategies to support this implementation in a whole group setting through the use of visual cues and movements and gestures. While Teri only integrated a prop once throughout the implementation weeks, props became a core component in Jocelyn’s guided interactive reading sessions. In fact, she shared in her final interview that she continued to integrate puppets in the final weeks of the spring semester. On one occasion when she couldn’t find one (an elephant to be exact), she said the children asked where the puppet was for that week.

Teri and Jocelyn also both commented on the role of self-reflecting in their changing participation. Jocelyn describes the intentionality that accompanied this, and impacted her learning in the following quote: “I mean, whenever you're looking at something you know and really paying close attention, of course you tend to notice things that maybe you overlooked ‘cuz you just weren't narrowing down…focusing on that.” Further, this theme, of intentionality was echoed in the post interview with the education manager who coordinated the professional development and curriculum implementation:

But I think..I think the engagement was a little bit better...and part of it came from the teachers' preparation and I think the teachers' awareness was… I know even one of the teachers that wasn't with the study, her big ah ha moment was, I'm not calling all the kids, I got some really good kids that I kind of ignore or the bad kids that I don't want problems and as long as they're quiet I leave them alone but they weren't being
engaged...the teacher was more prepared and it was more meaningful and I think there was better communication. And I think you started seeing the kids talking, I think the teachers...I think with [Jocelyn] for example, she slowed down a little bit and it wasn't a race to get through things and if a child started talking, you started seeing, more communication between the child and the teacher. Keith, Education Manager

The education manager’s comments verify the patterns that emerged throughout the analysis thus far. Keith also noted changes in children’s engagement. In the following section, I will describe the changes that were observed in children’s participation over time in each of the teacher’s classrooms.

Changes in Children’s Participation

In the first section of this findings chapter, I share what changes occurred for the two case teachers involved in the professional development to implement Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR) routines. Of course, the ultimate purpose for implementing this change was to enhance outcomes for children. In this section I seek to answer the second part of the research question: How did children’s participation in GISR change over time?

In chapters one and two I discuss the interwoven outcomes of children’s social and emotional involvement and their academic outcomes. These constructs are vast in scope, and this study takes on one specific aspect; that is, children’s engagement (a measure of both academic and social/emotional growth) as demonstrated in language interactions a group setting. In this study, the analysis was bounded by the children’s language captured in the transcripts from the videos; I was able to document changes in children’s participation through a content analysis of their language. I analyzed the amount of children’s talk, their vocabulary usage, the variety of children named as participants in each session, and the number of child-initiated comments and questions that were story related. The final indicator captures both encoded
comments—language related directly to the story experience at hand and symbolic comments—children’s comments related to personal background experiences in the context of the story content, declarations of future intent (e.g. “this weekend we are going to the river”) and some persistence behaviors (problem solving and overcoming challenges). These combined indicators paint a picture of the changing participation and engagement of children in the reading sessions—which, I will ultimately argue, demonstrate promising trends related to their academic and social-emotional development. In fact, engagement is defined as “the amount of time a child spends interacting with the environment in a developmentally and contextually appropriate manner at different levels of competence” (McWilliam & Bailey, 1992 in McWilliams & Casey, 2008, p. 125). By describing the changes in quantity and quality of talk (through vocabulary and child initiated comments and questions (CICQs), I can measure children’s participation, akin to measuring shifting competence or facility. I will describe the changes by indicators first in Jocelyn’s class, and second in Teri’s. In the final section of this chapter, I will provide interpretations about what the children’s changes may indicate—especially in regard to the interactions between the teachers and children in both classrooms.

**Jocelyn’s Class**

The children in Jocelyn’s class demonstrated change in their participation in the activity of GISR sessions over the course of the study. As described above, these changes were observed in the amount of child talk in the group, the story related vocabulary children took up over time, the number of children named as participants and the amount of story related talk that was initiated by the children.

**Overall number of words.** Prior to the start of the study, Jocelyn’s class was already participating verbally in the story telling experience. Accounting for all of the talk produced by the entire class, the children averaged 234 words spoken per session during baseline. By early
implementation, this jumped to 407.5 words on average per session. The average number of words spoken per session during mid-implementation was 251.50 and then increased to an average of 385.50 words per session during late implementation. The following line graph displays the quantity of talk by week. It is interesting to note that the drop in the amount of children’s talk during mid-implementation is similar to the drop in Jocelyn’s use of the PEER sequence (including overall prompt use) during mid-implementation.

Figure 11: Jocelyn's Class: Average Number of Words Spoken by Children Per Session

![Diagram showing the quantity of talk by week.]

**Story related vocabulary use.** In an effort to look at both the quantity and quality of the children’s talk, I identified the frequency, variety and complexity of children’s story related vocabulary use in each reading session. There were three categories: average number of story related vocabulary words used (total instances); the average number of *different* vocabulary words (variety); and the number of those words that were two or more syllables in length (complexity). I chose these words based on language that was integrated into the stories or was story related (but may not have been directly in the text) and did not appear to be in children’s common vocabulary. Table 5 displays the variety of vocabulary words identified in children’s talk.
The line graph in Figure 12 demonstrates the change over time in each of the categories. The most change was observed in the total number of story related vocabulary used. For example, if three different children, at different times used the word collection, each of those instances was counted in the total number of times a vocabulary word was used. During baseline, an average of 10.5 story related vocabulary words were spoken whereas by late implementation, the average number was 25.75 per session. (As a reminder, late implementation includes the last two weeks of the study and a total of four sessions.)
Although not as drastic, the variety of story-related vocabulary words children used during reading sessions also changed. To clarify, the number of times story related words were used by children is documented in the highest line in Figure 12, but does not account for variety. For example, if children used the word “collection” five times, each of those occasions was counted. In the second highest line, to attempt to account for variety, or diversity in word use, each unique story related word was counted only once. I counted the list of different words from Table 5 and reviewed them in line graph format next to the total count.

Finally, some change was also noted in the difficulty of vocabulary words spoken by children. In baseline week one, examples of two syllable words children used were: *maple, pancakes, waffles, syrup* and *showers*. Though vocabulary words in the story, they are still mostly common and familiar to children. During implementation week five, children began using words such as *collection, seashells, reflection* and *rhombus*. During baseline, children in
Jocelyn’s class averaged 5.25 two or more syllable story related vocabulary words. By late implementation, this increased to 8.75.

In summary, these indicators suggest some change in children’s participation during the GISR sessions with regard to story related talk over the course of the study. Book selection may have played a role in determining what types of vocabulary words were supported during the reading sessions. The genre (expository or narrative) as well as book length, and topic may have impacted vocabulary usage. For example *Whistle for Willie* (Keats, 1977), was one of the shortest books and was used during mid-implementation when the vocabulary use drops slightly. Alternatively, the second expository text read during baseline, *Think Green*, (Taylor-Butler, 2011) had many opportunities for vocabulary inclusion, but the actual use by children was limited.

Understanding there may be other impactful factors at play (such as text selection), these indicators still may say something about children’s comprehension/attention to the story (using language from the text in post-reading discussion can indicate this) and may suggest that the read aloud is facilitating an opportunity for students to learn and practice language—and perhaps fairly sophisticated language.

**Number of children called on by name.** Though it was not possible to determine which children were speaking at all times, one way of gauging involvement in the sessions was by documenting the children each teacher called on. Children could, and often did, participate in other ways, such as via gestures, choral response, self-initiated comments, etc. but determining the breadth of participation in group settings is challenging. This is one way I was able to capture the breadth of child participation. This indicator is further limited because the children participating were not always called on by name. In spite of these limitations, some changes were observed. In Jocelyn’s class at baseline, an average of 4.5 children were called on by name
per session. This increased drastically in early implementation to eleven children, but leveled off again in mid-implementation to only an average of 4.75. However, during the final two weeks of implementation, this increased again to an average of 8 children being called on by name per session. The total class number was 18. It is likely that there is a connection between children signaling that they have something to say (e.g. raising their hand) and being called on by the teacher. The increase in children being called on by name indicates in part, a change in the breadth of participation. In essence, more children were involved.

**Story-related, child-initiated comments and questions (CICQs).** The amount and quality of child talk provides some indication of how children’s participation changed over time and can be complimented by a picture of children’s initiations of story related conversation during the read aloud routine. CICQs can provide more information about the levels of children’s engagement and about their sense of their own roles in a shared reading experience. To illustrate this, I share an example that took place during a read aloud in Joceyln’s class, when a child initiated a comment and a question without being prompted by his teacher. The story recording for *Raccoon on His Own* read: “The raccoon reached up to grab a sturdy branch to climb out of the boat, but the branch was too high.” The child immediately commented: “He can jump! What if he jumped?” The line graph in Figure 13 displays the change in CICQs for children in Jocelyn’s class. During baseline observations, an average of 6.5 incidences were recorded for children initiating questions or comments about a read aloud story.
These initiations continued to progress over time until the final two weeks of implementation, at which point the average increased to 27.5 per session for both the fourth and the fifth week. Children’s initiated comments and questions, which is one indicator of engagement in the stories, was specifically noticeable during the recorded listening sessions that took place each Thursday. Whereas at baseline, the children were not encouraged to actively participate, but just to listen, in the later sessions, their comments and questions during the reading became more welcomed. It became quite common to hear a child comment on what he/she saw in the illustration, or what he/she knew was coming next in the story. The following transcript excerpt, again from a reading of *Raccoon on His Own* (Arnosky, 2001), demonstrates how Jocelyn’s responses encouraged CICQs during late implementation:

C: Hey! I see, I see a snake in the boat!

T: There is a..look, can you..

C: I saw a snake in the boat.

T: There is a snake in the boat.
C: And then, and then, the boat floats away and then, they got in, in that boat and then it slides away…

C2: I like their eyes the best!

T: Yes, the boat is floating away…

In this example, a child initiates a comment from an illustration in the story. The teacher takes the opportunity to affirm the child’s contribution through an expansion. The child responds to the teacher’s positive regard for his contribution with further details about the story, at which time, the teacher affirms his comments again. The teacher’s move to affirm the child’s contributions ultimately encouraged more talk from the child.

**Summing up children’s talk in Jocelyn’s class.** In conclusion, the ways in which the children in Jocelyn’s class participated in the Guided Interactive Shared Reading sessions changed over the course of the study. Children’s use of language changed positively in both amount and quality. The number and type of vocabulary words children used increased, as did the number of children participating in dialogue during the sessions. There was also evidence that children’s engagement increased, as suggested by the increased number and type of child initiated comments and questions. Screening out comments that were not story related, children’s CICQs more than doubled by the end of the five weeks of implementation.

**Teri’s Class**

Similar to Jocelyn’s class, the children in Teri’s class exhibited observable indicators of changing participation. This section will describe the changes in the children’s amount of talk, story related vocabulary usage, children participating by name in the sessions, and the amount of child-initiated questions and comments shared by the children during the reading sessions.

**Overall number of words.** Teri’s class averaged 206.75 words per recorded reading sessions during baseline. This changed during early implementation to 264.50 words per session,
and then 286.5 words per session during the mid-implementation phase. By late implementation, the average number of words spoken by children in the GISR sessions had increased to an average of 341.25 words per session.

Figure 14: Teri’s Class: Average Number of Words Spoken per Session

This is an overall positive change of 134.50 words spoken by children. The line graph in Figure 14 displays this change visually. The change in children’s amount of talk is similar to the change in Teri’s use of open-ended prompts. There is some similarity to the trend line for overall prompt use, but not during baseline. This could be attributed to the fact that Teri’s prompts during baseline often occurred with two to three in succession, without pause for children’s response times, making the total appear higher, but not allowing time for child talk.

**Story related vocabulary use.** The children in Teri’s class also showed changes in the number of story related vocabulary words they incorporated into their conversations during GISR sessions, the variety of vocabulary words they used, as well as the number of two syllable words they used. The vocabulary words were chosen in the same manner that I chose words from Jocelyn’s class. Table 6 shows which words were determined to be vocabulary words from the children’s talk across the study.
Table 6: Teri’s Class: Children’s Vocabulary Words by Week

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline Week 1</th>
<th>Baseline Week 2</th>
<th>Implementation Week 1</th>
<th>Implementation Week 2</th>
<th>Implementation Week 3</th>
<th>Implementation Week 4</th>
<th>Implementation Week 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Winter; spring; summer; fall; branches; veins; sap; ladybugs; snowing; collect; tap; boil.</td>
<td>Flowers; plant; glass; bottle; garden; recycle; team.</td>
<td>Lightening; stray cat; organize; barroom; tornado; cat; thunder; dark; scenario.</td>
<td>Whistle; surprising; straight; Willie; Errand; lights; bumped; hiding; pretending; Peter; sneaking; errand; grocery store.</td>
<td>Casted; shadow; caught; hammer; fishing; quick; deal.</td>
<td>Swamp; racoon; family; duck; reflection; climbing; boat; digging; scared; alligator; slowly; crawdads; floated; silently; drifted; reflection; warblers; chrr (bird sound).</td>
<td>Lemony; puddle; seashell; collections; purple; beginning; huckleberries; rubber band; shiny; dinosaur; cap; diamondy; shape; stirring; singing; mixed; reflection; cookies; berries; blackberries.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total number instances children used story related vocabulary words during GISR sessions increased substantially over time as demonstrated in the line graph in Figure 15. During baseline, the children used, on average, 9.5 story related vocabulary words per session. By late implementation this changed to 18.75 per session. The variety of vocabulary words also changed over time in Teri’s class. During baseline, the children averaged 6.5 unique vocabulary words per session. This number increased over time to an average of 11.5 different story related vocabulary words used in the GISR sessions.

Finally, the number of two or more syllable story related vocabulary words was also monitored for change. Whereas during baseline, 3.5 two or more syllable words were documented, by late implementation, 8.5 two or more syllable story related vocabulary words...
were being used in GISR sessions. In summary, Teri’s children’s vocabulary changed in the amount, variety and difficulty during the reading sessions.

Figure 15: Teri’s Class: Changes in Story-Related Vocabulary Use

**Number of children called on by name.** The number of children called on by name by Teri during the GISR sessions was recorded to determine the breadth of participation over time, as explained earlier. At baseline, Teri called on an average of six children by name per session. By the first week of implementation this increased to an average of 8.5 children, which remained somewhat consistent throughout the study. Whereas two weeks documented a high count of eleven children called on, the average per session for mid-implementation (weeks two and three) was nine and the average per session for late implementation returned to 8.5. This change from baseline is documented in Figure 16. As with Jocelyn, this could indicate increased participation by the children, since children may be gesturing in some manner (such as hand raising) to be called on. In coaching conversations and her interview, Teri also referenced changing her awareness of her inclusion of all children. Some of her videos demonstrate a pattern of calling on children by going around the circle. Using various strategies, Teri facilitated more inclusive
participation with the children, as indicated by the increased numbers of children being called on by name.

Figure 16: Teri's Class: Average Number of Children Called by Name Per Session

![Graph showing average number of children called by name per session]

**Story-related, child-initiated comments and questions (CICQs).** CICQs, as described with Jocelyn’s class, provide some information regarding children’s change in participation. This indicator demonstrates children’s increased responsibility for telling the story, and I will argue, an emotional engagement in the story. Over time, children initiated more questions and comments, which can be observed on the line graph in Figure 17. During baseline, an average per session of 4.5 story-related CICQs were documented. This increased slightly during the first week of implementation to seven incidences. By mid-implementation, CICQs averaged 9 per session, and by late implementation increased to an average of 17.25. This is an increase of 13.25 CICQs on average per session from baseline to late implementation (the final two weeks of the study). In the interpretations section to follow, I will describe what this change may represent for both Jocelyn’s and Teri’s conversations during GISR sessions.
Summing up children’s talk in Teri’s class. The children participating in GISR sessions in Teri’s class were using a larger number and type of language by the end of the implementation period. Children’s initiated comments and questions also increased over time. In summary, changes were observed over time in children’s participation during Guided Interactive Shared Reading in Teri’s class, some of which can be connected to the ways in which Teri changed the way she facilitated talk. The following exchange includes examples of Teri’s prompting, children’s use of CICQs, and vocabulary words. By the end of the exchange, Teri follows up with a specific, yet still open-ended prompt, eliciting a story retell from a child. The story they are discussing is the *The Puddle Pail* (Klevin, 1997) from the final recorded reading session in Teri’s class. In the story, different reflections are observed in the puddle:

T: What do you want to share about picture number three?

C: There was a pretzel puddle, and a cat puddle.

T: Oh! [Child’s name] remembers that there was a pretzel puddle!
C: And a flowery puddle.
T: And a flower puddle. What happened…
C: And a shape puddle.
T: And a shape puddle. [What happened…]
C: And a diamondy puddle!
T: [What happened] when they put all the puddles in the bucket at one time?
C1: They mixed together with the sun because the sun was stirring them around cuz it was out a long time and the blue dinosaur was swinging and looking at the same time.. and [it turned into one color]
C2: [And the dog drinked some]. And the dog drinked some..
C1: …and a huge puddle! And then, um, I don’t know the next part.
T: You don’t know the next part? But you remembered a lot of our story!

Remembering that the children are between the ages of three through five, it is not surprising that some of the story details have blended together (like the puddles in the story—all in one bucket). However, the facility with which the children engage in the story provides an example of their increased participation in the GISR sessions. Teri’s class, similar to Jocelyn’s, took up more vocabulary words. Their level of participation increased, and they often initiated text-related talk without prompting from their teacher. In the following section, I will discuss these changes by comparing the classes of children in both Jocelyn and Teri’s class. Specifically, I will discuss how the increase in CICQs may shed light on children’s developing competence through higher engagement levels.

**Cross Analysis and Interpretations of Children’s Participation Over Time**

Changes in participation for both teachers and children have been described in this chapter thus far. In this section I focus on the child initiated comments and questions to compare
child talk across both classrooms and what this may say about children’s engagement. Last, I answer the question of how both teachers’ may have facilitated these outcomes for children. Although this section emphasizes child talk, in my analysis and interpretations, I maintain a focus on the interpersonal plane—the interactions between teachers and children through the transformation of participation model. Therefore, this section also discusses the role the teacher has played in children’s participation in the reading sessions. I highlight children’s initiated comments and questions (CICQ’s) to talk about changing participation for a few reasons: 1) These findings were somewhat of a surprise; they represent an unanticipated engagement indicator in the study; 2) Previous studies in this area have primarily emphasized vocabulary development, making children’s initiations a relatively unique measure that can add to what we in the field know about the potential impact of shared reading paradigms; and 3) CICQs represent a sophisticated level of engagement.

**Children’s initiated comments and questions (CICQS).** Through the lens of children’s language, I shared findings regarding changes in CICQs in both Teri’s and Jocelyn’s class. What do these indicators tell us about children’s social emotional and academic learning during the GISR sessions? In Chapter Two I point out that engagement is an indicator of growth in both areas for children. When thinking about the different levels of sophisticated engagement, children’s encoded, symbolic and persistence behaviors (McWilliam & Casey, 2008) can shed light on what children’s talk might be indicating. As a reminder, encoded behavior is bound by the current context, such as talk about what is occurring in the immediate environment. This talk type was not identified independently, but occurred in both classes within the indicator CICQs. For example, when a child in Jocelyn’s class said: “you missed the fish” when they didn’t see the teacher place the prop at the appropriate moment in the story, they engaged in encoded behavior, a form of sophisticated engagement. She responded with “No, it’s right here.” By embedding
props, movements and gestures, Jocelyn provided opportunities for children to engage at the level of encoded behavior, which may not be as common during storybook reading routines as other engagement types.

The most common form of behavioral engagement occurring for children during story time is also sophisticated in nature. Symbolic behavior is an engagement indicator that is represented by decontextualization—communicating about something or someone that is not there (McWilliam & McCasey, 2008). These comments can be prompted by teachers, and often were throughout the study. I posit that comments children shared about the story independent of teachers’ prompting represent an increased facility with decontextualized talk. I conjecture that this increased facility, possibly deeper story comprehension, inspired more involvement in the story through these independent responses. For example, while listening to Racoon on His Own, (Arnosky, 2001), with the recorded text and teachers prop use: “A mother Merganzer paddled by (teacher pretends to paddle with arms) leading her nine little ducklings...(teacher holds up toy duck and sets it on the shelf)”, a child commented “It’s their family…” There is a level of sophistication to this response, since the child drew on background knowledge and interpreted the relationship between the mother duck and her ducklings based on her own understanding of what a family is.

Prior to implementation, I did not consider the highest level of engagement, persistence, as an indicator observable in the context of a read aloud routine since it involves problem solving and overcoming challenges (McWilliam & McCcasey 2008). However some incidences of CICQs could be categorized as persistent behavior because the children were commenting on solutions to the problems in the story—in a manner, decontextualized persistence. For example, the child’s self initiated comment, “He can jump! What if he jumped?”, could be construed as decontextualized persistence since the child is trying to determine a way for the raccoon in the
story to get out of the boat that is floating away. These incidences of comments and questions in which children were seeking a solution to the problem in the story could be considered a higher level of emotional investment as well. Since there is great overlap between the skills required in emotional regulation and executive functioning (in part, problem solving), it would make sense that higher engagement is emotionally heightened.

Although both classrooms demonstrated increases in the amount of CICQs on average, Jocelyn’s class consistently outperformed Teri’s class in this area as demonstrated in Figure 18. It is interesting to note that the teachers were utilizing the same story and curricular supports throughout. There are two noticeable differences in the teachers’ uptake of strategies that may have contributed to this discrepancy.

Figure 18: Comparison of CICQs Across Classrooms

First, Jocelyn took up the use of props with gestures and movements as her primary tool for increasing engagement overall, whereas Teri only took up movements and gestures. Teri also did not set goals regarding this category, or discuss their use on coaching phone calls and Jocelyn very intentionally did. This could be relevant since one of the first levels of sophisticated engagement is constructive behavior, in which children’s behaviors are tied to manipulating and playing with objects or materials. The constructive level of engagement may
have provided scaffolding for the children to be able to participate at higher engagement levels, encouraging CICQS.

Second, the Thursday reading sessions were conducted differently for each teacher, which may have led to different opportunities for child talk in each class. Jocelyn consistently played the recording of the week’s story on Thursday, followed by retelling with the storyboard. Teri (most often) used the storyboard to guide discussion for the duration of Thursday’s session. While more time for discussion was a benefit in Teri’s class, it was guided by her prompts. It is possible that the recorded listening sessions provided opportunities for more CICQs in Jocelyn’s class. This may have been compounded by the change in Jocelyn’s responses to children’s talk during the sessions (a decrease in talk reprimands like “shhh” and corrective managerial talk).

**What did teachers do that facilitated higher levels of engagement?** Young children often have had limited experiences engaging in conversation with back and forth exchanges that require them to form ideas and express them coherently to others, and McKeown & Beck (2006) highlight the challenge of decontextualized language in storybooks. The authors state that it is not merely the acknowledgement through repetition and expansion, but how the teachers follow up with children’s comments that help them to more deeply comprehend decontextualized text talk (McKeown & Beck, 2006). In their interviews and coaching calls, both teachers talked about feedback loops. This phrase, which denotes teachers’ follow up with children’s comments in an interactive style, was not intended to be part of GISR, though “follow up” to children’s responses is included in training for Dialogic Reading. Since it appeared to be a manner of semantics and it was background knowledge for the teachers, (they were previously trained in CLASS indicators) I integrated it into our training and coaching calls. It is possible that both teachers, as they worked towards increased engagement through GISR became more intentional about
integrating feedback loops into their GISR sessions, ultimately scaffolding decontextualized story talk.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I shared the findings from the case study to answer the question: how did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading (GISR) sessions; and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation? I summarize and interpret what happened for teachers first, and then shift focus to the group participation of the children in both Jocelyn and Teri’s class. Through an analysis and interpretation of the video transcripts, teacher interviews and reflection logs, an illustration starts to take shape of the relationship between the two. Woven throughout both sections are examples and exemplars of teacher child interactions. There are also connections made to the impact the PD model may have had on these changes. The findings show changing participation for both teachers and children with connections between teacher strategies (such as the integration of open-ended questions and the use of props and gestures) to children’s learning (such as through changes in the amount of language, vocabulary and CICQs). These changes in both teachers and children suggest a positive impact occurred from the professional development model and highlight key coaching conversations and comments from the teachers during their post interview provide some insight into how this occurred.
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this final chapter, I highlight what I have learned from taking a close look at two of the key components identified in implementing a multi-tiered system of support (MTSS) for children both academically, socially and emotionally; 1) the use of evidence based and developmentally appropriate instructional practices; and 2) professional development support to implement these practices. First, I provide a summary of the study, including the key findings and interpretations, and then share the conclusions I have drawn from these findings as well as the study’s limitations. Finally I will share my thoughts on the implications, and directions for further study.

Summary of the Study

An early childhood program participating in a pilot project to create an EC MTSS model in our state was challenged to implement one element of their newly adopted curriculum, *Opening Worlds of Learning* (Schickendaz & Dickenson, 2011). That element was an interactive story read aloud repeated throughout the week with an anchor story tied to the week’s learning concepts. With great variety in teacher background and training, there was variation in how this element was being implemented across classrooms and teachers. Current research in early childhood professional development purports that creative approaches to providing support for early childhood teachers are needed alongside knowledge of effective practices (Zaslow, Tout, Halle, & Starr, 2011).

The creative approach the program members and I took was to modify the read aloud routine through a professional development effort that incorporated training, video observation, self-reflection and distance coaching. As the professional development provider, I began by drawing on evidence in the literature regarding quality read aloud routines in early childhood. The result was Guided Interactive Shared Reading (GISR), which integrated dialogic reading methods with other evidence-informed strategies for improving engagement and language
interactions with large groups of children. The training and coaching emphasized a practice-based approach (Zaslow, Tout, Halle, & Starr, 2011), by incorporating video models of teachers integrating dialogic reading practices. The two case study teachers video recorded their reading sessions and self-reflected through video observations and journaling. They also participated in coaching sessions I conducted over the phone.

Learning is complex; especially when one realizes that teacher learning and children’s learning are co-occurring and mutually influential. To study this dynamic process, I drew from Barbara Rogoff’s transformation of participation model, which is grounded in sociocultural theory. Guided by Rogoff’s concepts, I viewed learning as changing participation in cultural activities. Within this case study, two activities were occurring in concert: the teachers’ professional development and the daily GISR sessions. I first focused on the changing participation of the teacher in the GISR sessions to understand the learning that was occurring and highlight their uptake of the recommended strategies. In my analysis, I foregrounded the personal plane (a focus on the individual and internal process) of learning for the teachers (through their coaching sessions, reflection logs and post-interviews), recognizing that their participation occurred simultaneously at the interactive plane (co-occurring learning between participants) plane as they guided and interacted with the children in their classes. Subsequently, I looked at the children’s participation and engagement during these reading sessions, knowing that children’s engagement is linked to the development of both their academic and social and emotional skills.

There were two propositions that guided the direction of this study: 1) strong foundational supports (primary interventions) should decrease the need to intervene with targeted and intensive supports; and 2) at the heart of primary interventions in early childhood programs are quality interactions between teachers and children. In this research, I asked the question:
How did a professional development effort shape teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR); and subsequently, how did the effort shape children’s participation?

Findings from the study indicate that the adaptations of DR to whole group settings through the GISR process can impact children’s outcomes when teachers are supported in taking up the strategies. These findings are particularly promising because the children’s actual teachers, not outside researchers or experts specializing in early literacy and language acquisition, facilitated the positive outcomes for children in the whole group setting. By supporting teachers through explicit instruction in “talk tools,” teachers were supported in taking on the complex and nuanced task of guiding interactions with children.

Teacher Change: How and Why?

Although in different ways, both case study teachers took up the PEER sequence of prompting, evaluating, expanding and repeating as an anchor for inclusion of feedback loops and more complex talk with children during read aloud sessions. Both Teri and Jocelyn increased the number of prompts used to engage children over the course of implementation. Most notable was not just the change that occurred in the quantity of prompts (and over prompting should be a caution in the greater scheme of things) but the facility with which both teachers intentionally prompted to extend children’s conceptualizations of the stories and the concepts embedded in them. McKeown & Beck (2006) explain the need for well thought out follow up questions and comments to children’s responses to help them make meaning from a decontextualized language experience: a book. Rather than explaining, or answering questions for the children, well placed, intentional questioning elicits a construction of meaning from the text. Increased facility with using follow up questions to elicit deeper comprehension and engagement with text was observed (albeit at different levels of difficulty) with both teachers. It is possible that as the
teachers became comfortable with the interactive reading routine, they were able to take curriculum suggestions deeper since the adopted curriculum did provide suggestions for some higher order thinking prompts. I also posit that as they embraced the PEER process, they became more comfortable in engaging children in dialogue, leading to more opportunities in their routine to expand on story ideas.

The teachers’ increased use of open-ended questions over the course of the study was also of great interest. The use of open-ended questions in early childhood is considered to be an effective practice and in fact, is a key indicator in the Classroom Literacy Assessment Scoring System to measure the quality of teachers’ instructional practices across all program routines (Pianta, LaParro & Hamre, 2008). The teachers in this study had received previous training in the value and use of open-ended questions earlier in the year, and immediately recognized the practice at our initial training prior to implementation.

Given that teachers had received training on this prior to the study, I conjecture that it was not the knowledge of the practice that led to the change, though reviewing the knowledge base was most likely beneficial. It appears that what led to the change in their use of this specific prompt type had more to do with the professional development components that followed. I argue that both teachers changed their use of open-ended prompt types because of the intentionality with which they focused on it. Both teachers in different ways, placed importance on this particular prompt type in coaching conversations and in goal setting.

A follow up question regarding the role the PD played in affecting teacher change is whether this change could have occurred with the video-observations and self-reflections, but without the coaching. It appears that both teachers needed different supports with regard to the coaching, but that neither would have experienced the same success without it. In fact, in their post interviews, both teachers referenced coaching conversations at pivotal change moments.
It is also possible that the individualized nature of the coaching contributed to teacher change. Because the teachers in this study had very distinct teaching experiences and backgrounds, this research offers an opportunity to explore how different teachers experience PD differently and require unique content and approaches. While one teacher came to the study with a Master’s degree, teacher certification and public school teaching experience but little early childhood background, the other teacher “grew up” in Head Start as a parent first, then assistant teacher, and finally a lead teacher but had little formal training and no public school teaching experience. Because of this, their skill sets and areas for needing support were very different. It is possible that the change in each of their teaching occurred because of the option of individualizing the coaching to match their needs.

As early childhood professional development models are further studied, it may be worth considering: What are the strengths of the individuals and how can we provide tailored supports the way we do for children? Adult learning is unique, but some parallels to how children learn exist. Transformation of participation (learning) occurs as individuals interact with each other through a cultural activity. If coaching and professional development are seen as that activity for adult learners then the onus for classroom implementation does not fall solely on the teacher and isn’t a mandate. Instead, teachers work in partnership with other skilled adults who help highlight teachers’ strengths and help them grow and adapt their skill sets for more effectively working with children.

**Children’s Change: What Does It Mean?**

In response to the teachers’ pedagogical changes, the groups of children in both classes demonstrated increased engagement in the reading sessions; this was evident in the quantity and quality of story related talk, including child initiated talk and improvements in language sophistication. In Chapter Four, I talk extensively about the change in children’s initiations-
story related comments and questions (CICQs). What is exciting about this type of child talk is that it occurred spontaneously. Most of these initiations took place during the final read of the stories on Thursdays, after children became familiar with the story. Changes in CICQs for the children in both classrooms represent increased levels of engagement (McWilliam & Casey, 2008). As a reminder, the importance of this is that engagement is an indicator for both social emotional growth and academic growth. Co-occurring were changes in children’s use of story related vocabulary, and increases in the amount of child talk occurring in each session.

The growth in the quantity and sophistication of children’s participation with the text support the proposition that increased quality in common group activities such as GISR can strengthen supports at the universal, or tier one level of instruction. The positive changes in children’s participation occurred in a Head Start setting, which serves higher risk student population, arguably making these findings particularly important for those interested in efforts to improve education equity.

These changes for children are linked directly to the teachers’ guidance during the GISR sessions. As teachers “tried on” new strategies, children began responding differently, which in turn encouraged the teachers to try more, and changed the value they placed on child talk during the read aloud routine. This iterative, interactive change that occurred between teachers and children demonstrates a change in the activity—arguably, a change in the culture of the read aloud routine in each classroom. It is reasonable to suggest that the change in the value teachers placed on children’s voices during the reading sessions impacted the children’s self-efficacy, a key component of competence. As teachers altered the way they responded to children’s talk, it is highly possible that children perceived their talk as more valuable, influencing their participation in the discussions. It is also likely that through the teacher’s intentional prompting
and scaffolding, children were engaging more deeply with the text, deepening their comprehension and possibly leading to an emotional investment in the outcome of the story.

Harris, Golinkoff and Hirsh-Pasek (2011), in their review of literature on language development and literacy research related to vocabulary pedagogy in preschool, argue that preschool vocabulary development is “enhanced not by scripted SAT-type memorization, but by classroom conversations and playful engagement” (p.49). Included in their six principles for word learning in preschool is: “Make it responsive: Interactive and responsive contexts rather than passive contexts favor vocabulary learning” (p. 52). The authors reference dialogic and shared reading practices as strategies that exemplify this. This study confirms these emerging principles by providing specific case examples of opportunities teachers took in their interactions to improve the interactive and responsive nature of their reading sessions. What sets this PD model apart from others in the literature, is the emphasis on the details of the approaches to improving the interactive and responsive nature, such as the inclusion of props, gestures, movements and visual cues.

What I did not include was a complete analysis of teachers and children’s affective expression (facial expression, posture etc.) another key component of teacher-child interactions. Intonation and visual cues provide some evidence of affect, but not comprehensively. Teachers—especially new teachers—need very practical and concrete suggestions to elicit responsiveness from children that include and extend beyond what they say in their language interactions. Just as Harris, Golinkoff and Hirsh-Pasek (2011) drew on early language development literature to inform vocabulary pedagogy in preschool, so could we draw on early language development and attachment research to inform the role of teachers’ affect and emotional engagement on children’s learning. Concretely defining the role of emotional
experience in an academic context could help teachers, especially new or struggling teachers, to deepen their practice.

**Thinking About EC MTSS: Implications**

As programs working within an MTSS model select universal supports for children, the old adage “time is of the essence” is appropriate. Taking on universal supports that address multiple domains of learning in powerful and effective ways is a must given the limited length of many preschool programs and the high needs of the children within them. Landrey and colleagues (2012), in describing the development of a comprehensive statewide professional development system for EC teachers in Texas, include one key principle of particular interest regarding making learning time more powerful: intentional content planning (p. 164). This means being very thoughtful and purposeful about what is taking place within each program routine. Further, their framework, also based in sociocultural theory, clearly explains the need for teachers to “take advantage of opportunities to combine multiple areas of learning” (p. 164), such as through storybook reading, confirming one focal point of this study, to look at a primary intervention through a more holistic lens of universal supports.

Beyond a need for intentional planning across multiple domains is the need for universal strategies that help to narrow the achievement gap that begins far before children enter public school (Hart & Risley, 1995). The language participation for children in both case classrooms suggests that structured intentionally, the intervention strategies embedded in dialogic reading can be adapted for use with larger groups of children than the three to five it was originally intended for.

In some cases, programs may not have the capacity to support individualized and small group instruction with the high percentages of children in need in their care. In these situations, having a repertoire of highly impactful strategies with larger groups of children could be
beneficial. Initial experimentation shows promise with using GISR at the primary, or tier one level, that simultaneously supports children’s development of academic and executive functioning skills while maintaining a focus on the social and emotional skills necessary to engage in these executive functioning tasks. These exploratory findings provide clues towards how to even the playing field for young children, helping them become kindergarten ready.

**Future Directions**

One limitation to this study specifically regarding coaching, was that the analytic emphasis was placed on what was occurring in the classroom with the teachers and children and not on the professional development that was occurring. Future research efforts that highlight coaches’ instructional moves with the similar level of focus I placed on teachers’ instructional moves, may help parse out exactly which specific coaching behaviors inspire change and support teacher learning.

In this study, instructional coaching occurred at a distance. To overcome this challenge, the video recorded reading sessions were shared in a private, web-based format and informed the phone-based coaching sessions. In a state like Montana, understanding how to overcome distance is a critical component to successfully supporting programs and teachers. This small-scale study explored one option that creatively addressed this common barrier. A larger scale study comparing types of distance professional development including coaching methods and time and intensity of support and its impact on EC teacher quality could prove beneficial in moving our states vision for early childhood professional development forward. Further, it may be a cost effective method of implementing coaching supports.

Another limitation to the study was the length of implementation. The training and implementation began in March. The Head Start program completed their school year in the middle of May. The short duration of the study (five weeks) makes it difficult to analyze how
sustainable the changes were in each of the classrooms. However, even with the short duration, the impact on teacher’s practices and children’s participation show promise for future study. Hamre and Hatfield (2012), in their chapter on policy and research recommendations for early childhood professional development, suggest focusing short term PD (such as 1 day workshop slots) on discrete skills and dedicating larger PD resources to more complex, comprehensive skills. With this in mind, it appears that five weeks was an adequate amount of time to help teachers “zoom in on” one classroom routine and a few strategies within that routine (for example, prompting and feedback loops). To more comprehensively address a wider variety of language interactions, complex dialogue and student engagement, as well as to truly understand the role of the PD model, a longer study with a larger sample of teachers would be necessary. With the promising initial results from this case study, this larger study is indeed warranted.

**Further Implications and Recommendations**

This study occurred within the context of a pilot project to create a professional development model, which takes a holistic approach to supporting children across developmental domains and through a tiered approach to learning. Therefore, the findings of the study have implications for policy makers, administrators or program directors, teachers, pre-service teacher programs, and anyone involved in early care and education.

For policy makers, I recommend building language (and funding) for teacher change processes into initiatives meant to improve outcomes for young children. Understanding the complexities of learning and specifically adult learning can inform the development of policies, procedures, and funding streams in a manner that may lead to more effective and more sustainable change—of course with the ultimate goal of more positively impacting young children.
For program directors or administrators focused on building a MTSS in their program, findings from this study indicate that having awareness of the unique background experiences, strengths, and needs of the teachers could inform the type, topic, and amount of professional development employed. Thoughtful planning of professional development could influence how a program embraces and implements an MTSS system, which includes quality instructional practices. Further, those in supervisory roles may consider utilizing components such as video-observation, self-reflection and goal setting in support of practice improvements. Teachers could also embrace these tools to support their own professional growth goals. Finally, recognizing the positive learning outcomes in this study, programs and teachers may consider integrating components from GISR and dialogic reading to engage young children in high quality interactions.

For teachers and trainers of pre-service early education as well as K-12 programs, it may be helpful to use videos to anchor a practice-based approach to teacher training, which is not necessarily a new concept. However, anchoring those demonstrations (as well as self-observations) to specific, often minute, indicators could prove to be useful in pulling back the veil so to speak, on effective teaching practices. Taking the time to identify, for example, what “teacher moves” in a conversation exchange lead to conceptual clarity for children can demystify the “art” of teaching for pre-service teachers.

**Final Thoughts**

Based on the premise that learning can be measured by changes in participation in a cultural activity, this study sought to understand how to support change in teachers and ultimately impact children’s learning. I asked how a professional development effort shaped two case study teachers’ participation in guided interactive shared reading sessions (GISR); and subsequently, how the effort shaped the participation of the children in their classes. Teachers
demonstrated change in participation in specific areas such as through language prompting techniques and engagement strategies that appear to be linked to specific components of the professional development model. In response, children’s engagement and participation, measured through the quantity and quality of their talk, also changed over the course of implementation.

The findings from this case study point to the promise of professional development models that scaffold teachers through the uptake of evidence-informed practices; confirm research regarding the important role of responsive and interactive early childhood practices based in relationship; and contribute to literature informative cases that highlight specific ways in which particular shared reading moves impact children’s participation. Now, as the nation embraces the powerful role of early childhood in communities’ and individuals’ life trajectories, understanding how to implement high quality, developmentally appropriate practices in early childhood is even more important than ever before.
References


Appendix A: Teacher Observation and Reflection Protocol (Reflection Logs): Page One

Read Aloud Observation Form

Class: 1 2  Week: 0 1 2 3 4 5 Day: Tuesday Thursday Start Time: __a.m Length: __min __sec
Book Title__ Author__ Read Aloud Level: 1 2 3

Directions:
1. Circle the appropriate categories above for: class number, week of tracking, day and time of the reading session. Record the book title, author and “level” of the read aloud.
2. Watch the video of today’s reading session.
3. Record the number and type of “teacher moves” you made throughout the reading session below by placing a tally mark next to the appropriate behavior each time it is observed in the video recorded session.
4. Reflect on the experience by answering the questions provided on the reflection page. (On days you do not conduct a video observation, just complete the reflection page). Use the questions to help you set your goals for your next reading session. Thank you!

Teacher Behaviors

Comprehension/Concept & Language Development

- Integrate the Dialogic Reading method to guide discussion and elaboration of story concepts.
- Prompt children to verbally respond and prompt children to elaborate on story related concepts.

Prompt Types (CROWD):
- Completion
- Recall
- Open Ended Questions
- Wh Questions
- Distancing

PEER Sequence (prompts are tallied above)
- Evaluate (and provide verbal feedback)
- Expand
- Repeat child repeats
  adult repeats

Other:
- pause/wait time
- model think alouds (thinking strategies)
- check in with regard to child’s intent or meaning
- “mark” responses by connecting child’s comments back to the text.

Phonological Awareness
- call attention to rhyme in story
- direct attention to syllables
- direct attention to initial or ending sounds (onset or rime)
- direct attention to repeated words or phrases

Print/Alphabet Awareness
- call attention to book & print features: (front, back, bottom, top, title, author, word, letter, sentence, punctuation)
- model and highlight directionality with finger pointing, sweeping and page turning
- chart students responses/model writing

Vocabulary
List Key Words:
- model using story vocabulary
- provided explanation of key vocabulary
- prompt child use of key vocabulary

Group Engagement/Classroom Management

- encourage participation
- use proximity
- use redirection
- encourage peer dialogue
- use intonation/expression
- use manipulatives/props
- use visual and verbal cues

***If other “teacher moves” were used, please record on the reflection page, or on the back of this page. Thank you!

Teacher Observation and Reflection Protocol (Reflection Logs): Page Two

Daily Read Aloud Reflection

Class: Week: 0 1 2 3 4 5 Day: Mon Tues Weds Thurs Start Time: __am Length: __min __sec
Book Title________________________ Author___________________ Read Aloud Level: 1 2 3

Please answer the following questions to guide your reflection of today’s reading session.

1. What was the primary goal, purpose or intent of today’s reading session?

2. What “teacher moves” did you use today to facilitate child-talk during the read aloud session?

3. What went particularly well during the reading session today?

4. What are you noticing with regard to:
   a. children’s interactions with you and with each other during today’s reading session?
   b. their engagement behaviors during today’s reading session?

5. What would you like to see happen with regard to children’s interactions and engagement in the next reading session (goal or purpose)?
   a. and how will you facilitate, or support the development of that goal/purpose?
Appendix B: Staff Training Slides

1. The Dilemma

- What is Tenisha’s dilemma? Is this a familiar dilemma?
- jot down things you have tried or continue to do to support storybook reading in your classroom.
- Consider: When, Where, How and with Whom
- What was your purpose?

2. Create an Answerable Question

- Person
- Intervention being considered
- Comparison to other interventions (not today!)
- Outcome desired

3. What the Research Says (Evidence for Dialogic Reading)

- Introduction to Dialogic Reading
- A special type of shared interactive reading.

Levels and Techniques

- By using a series of questions and prompts, the adult encourages the child to talk about the story.
- The questioning begins at level 1 and slowly progresses to level 11.
- The child starts by labeling pictures, advances to open-ended type questions, and eventually progresses to distancing type questions which relate personal experiences to those in the story.

Dialogic Reading: What It Does

- Oral Language
- Print Knowledge
- Early reading/writing

Selecting Books

- Use the criteria provided to evaluate your book selection.
  - Appealing and Appropriate
  - Alphabet Knowledge
  - Comprehension/Concept Development
  - Concepts About Print
  - Opportunity for Dialogue
  - Oral Language Development
  - Phonological Awareness
  - Vocabulary
Preparing your Book
- Read the story!
- Determine 3-5 key vocabulary for inclusion and write out list friendly definitions you will use consistently throughout the readings.
- Consider what manipulatives, props, or hands-on elements support the plot, vocabulary and prepare accordingly.

Planning for Dialogic Reading
Prompts
- the child to say something about the book.
- the child’s response.
- the child’s response by rephrasing and adding on.
- the prompt to support the child’s learning

Levels of Dialogic Reading
Prompts
- Phase 1: Overarching concepts-Wh questions-Focus on primary vocabulary
- Phase 2: Move away from vocabulary-more Open-Ended prompts-Building the narrative—recall & story retell
- Phase 3: Distancing prompts—lying in background knowledge and outside experiences.

Determining How to Use the Prompts

Conducting Dialogic Reading
Introduce the Book—Integrate the prompts according to which “level” you are in as Dr. Lurigan suggested.

Conducting Dialogic Reading
- Closing the Book. Make connections

Policy Connections
- Literacy
- Knowledge and Skills
- Social Emotional Development

Conducting Dialogic Reading

Connections to CLASS
- Instructional Practices
  - Concept Development—integrating concepts and connections to the real world.
  - Quality of Feedback. scaffolding, feedback loops, prompting through process, expansion, encouragement and affirmation.
  - Language Modeling: frequent Conversations, Open-Ended Questions, Repetition and Extension, Self-Parceled talk, Advanced Language (vocabulary)

Suggestions for DR in Large Groups Settings
- Purposeful inclusion of all kids
- Proximity
- Information/Expression
- Visual and Verbal Cues
- Free Dialogue (turn and talk)
- Manipulatives/props
- Gestures and movements “...every time you hear “morning” make a sunshine over your head.”

4. Integrating Sources of Knowledge: Create a Plan to Implement Dialogic Reading
- Work Time:
  - Role play a book reading for your group, taking turns demonstrating phase 1, phase 2 or phase 3.

5. Evaluate the Plan
- Prepare a book for dialogic reading.
- Video tape yourself or ask someone to video you.
- Watch yourself and fill out the observation form.
- Ask a peer, your education manager or coach, to watch the video and complete an observation too. Discuss the results and set a goal for your next dialogic reading session.

CROWD Prompts
- Completion
- Recall
- Open-Ended
- Distancing

A Framework
Staff Training Slides (continued)

**REVIEW**
- Book Selection
- Book Preparation
- Conducting Dialogic Reading
- Evaluating your Practice