EFFECTS OF SHORT-TERM, STRUCTURED TEACHER TRAINING IN ACTIVE READING ON LANGUAGE AND READING OUTCOMES OF STUDENTS AT RISK AND NOT AT RISK FOR READING FAILURE, TEACHER IMPLEMENTATION OF ACTIVE READING, AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF READ ALOUD PRACTICES

By

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ABSTRACT

SAMANTHA L. CLEAVER. Effects of Short-Term, Structured Teacher Training in Active Reading on Language and Reading Outcomes of Students at Risk and not at Risk for Reading Failure, Teacher Implementation of Active Reading, and Teacher Perceptions of Read Aloud Practices. (Under the direction of DR. CHARLES L. WOOD.)

The current study evaluated the effects of short-term, structured teacher training in Active Reading on student outcomes in listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and vocabulary. Active Reading is an approach to whole group read aloud that incorporates interactive shared reading and rich vocabulary instruction. Participants included students in four first grade classrooms that received Active Reading three to four days per week for seven weeks. There were three treatment groups; the first was provided materials for Active Reading, the second was provided a brief in-service on Active Reading and materials, and the third was provided materials, an in-service, and coaching in Active Reading. The study also examined teachers' implementation of Active Reading procedures across the three treatment conditions, and provided teacher perceptions of Active Reading through structured interviews. Consistent with prior research, all students gained vocabulary knowledge through the Active Reading lessons. However, there was no difference between groups in student vocabulary learning related to teacher training. Also, students who were at risk for reading failure demonstrated the same level of vocabulary learning as their peers who were not at risk. Teachers achieved the same average level of implementation fidelity, though the teacher in the coaching condition improved implementation fidelity over the course of the seven-week implementation period. Teachers identified more skill-based outcomes for read aloud after the study, and indicated specific skill improvements from the lessons. For students at risk, teachers

indicated that increased participation was a primary outcome from Active Reading.

Finally, teachers indicated that they enjoyed doing Active Reading, though they would make changes to the format and delivery if they were to continue the practice in their classrooms. The findings of this study have implications for how researchers and school leaders approach the research-to-practice gap related to read aloud, as well as expectations for the vocabulary development of students at risk in whole group read aloud instruction.

DEDICATION

First, I dedicate this dissertation to Reuben, who accommodated my commitment and ambitions through this study as well as years of previous work and academics.

Without his constant support, my accomplishments would not have been possible.

Second, I dedicate this to the teachers who are committed to ensuring that every student receives a quality, inclusive, and engaging education. Classrooms in America are becoming increasingly diverse, especially in terms of student need, and it takes teachers like the ones who worked with me in this study, to ascertain, strengthen, and share what is best for each and every student even while working to maintain the enjoyment and love of learning that was present in each of the classrooms I worked in during this study.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Student reading proficiency has been a persistent concern for decades (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015). Currently, 36% of students in fourth grade read at a proficient level on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NCES, 2015). This is important because a child's reading proficiency by the end of third grade is predictive of later reading successes, as well college and career success (Fiester, 2010; Fiester, 2013). For example, 16% of students who are not reading proficiently by third grade do not graduate from high school, a rate four times higher than the non-graduation rate for students who are proficient readers by third grade (Hernandez, 2012).

The concern about reading proficiency is even more problematic for students who are at risk because of income, English language learning, or disability. Persistent achievement gaps exist between students from low-income and high-income schools (Child Trends Databank, 2015); between those learning English and those who speak English as a first language; and between those with and without a disability (NCES, 2011). In 2015, 74% of fourth grade students in low-income (Title 1) schools scored below proficient on reading assessments, compared to 49% in non-Title 1 schools (NCES, 2015). More than 90% (92%) of students learning English did not read proficiently, compared to 62% of students who are native English speakers (NCES, 2015). And, 88% of students with a disability did not read proficiently in 2015, compared to 62% of students without a disability (NCES, 2015).

Developing Reading Proficiency: What Makes a Proficient Reader?

Oral language, or the ability to understand and produce spoken language, is an important component in understanding what is read (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network, 2005). Students continuously develop oral language skills (expressive and receptive language, listening comprehension; Nation & Snowling, 2004). As children learn to read printed text, language undergirds their ability to recognize words in print and understand what they read (Wise, Sevcik, Morris, Lovett, & Wolf, 2007).

In addition to language, there are specific skills that students must master in order to read proficiently by third grade. Five core skills were identified by the National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000): phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Phonemic awareness, or the ability to isolate and manipulate the smallest sounds (phonemes) in words, was identified by the NRP as an important indicator for future success in learning to read (NRP, 2000). Phonics, or the ability to apply letter-sound correspondences to read words, was identified as an important factor in learning to read through a foundational review by Jeanne Chall (1967). Chall (1967) examined the then "best" ways to teach reading, including a focus on first grade, and found that early and systematic phonics instruction produced better reading achievement than other approaches. Taken together, children must master the building blocks of language (what sounds exist and what letter patterns make those sounds) early in their education to become proficient readers.

As children develop phonics skills and the subsequent ability to read words, fluency becomes an important bridge between word reading and comprehension. Fluent

reading occurs when a reader reads with appropriate rate, accuracy, and prosody to create meaning from what is read (NRP, 2000). Fluency develops from students' ability to read words, and a student's ability to read a passage fluently has been correlated with reading comprehension (Schwanenflugel et al., 2006; Young-Suk, 2015). One theory of reading, the automaticity model put out by LaBerge and Samuels (1974), posits that strong readers decode words quickly and can hold meaning in their mind which supports comprehension. In contrast, struggling readers spend more time decoding words and are not able to maintain comprehension as a result. Combined with word reading accuracy, fluency is a skill that students must achieve and be able to apply to a variety of texts in order to reach reading proficiency (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

Children's vocabulary, or the number of words that they understand and can use in oral, written, and read language, is an important part of their ability to understand what they read (NRP, 2000). Students' vocabulary develops alongside early language skills, and phonemic awareness and vocabulary are closely related as children learn to read words (Jean & Geva, 2009; Vadasy & Nelson, 2012). As students learn to decode, vocabulary becomes an increasingly important factor in comprehension for both students who speak English (Biemiller, 2003) and those who are learning English (August & Shanahan, 2006). Academic vocabulary, in particular, is not commonly taught in U.S. public schools (Foorman et al., 2016) which is a concern because vocabulary is so important for reading comprehension. The NRP (2000) review concluded that students learn vocabulary in a variety of ways (e.g., incidental exposure through storybook reading or explicit instruction) and that explicit instruction and repeated exposure to new words increased word learning. Specifically, explicit instruction of words that can be

used in multiple contexts (e.g., through storybook reading) supported students' understanding of words across texts and contexts (NRP, 2000).

Reading comprehension, or understanding what is read, is the definitive objective, or as Durkin (1993) put it, the "essence of reading." When students can read an unfamiliar text, make meaning of the text, both what is literally written on the page, and what can be inferred, they are doing the work of proficient readers.

The NRP (2000) identified three themes related to reading comprehension: (a) reading comprehension integrates multiple, complex cognitive skills, (b) interaction and active strategic processes are important for learning how to comprehend, and (c) teachers must be taught how to teach these processes to effectively teach students how to comprehend what they read. Six strategies that support reading comprehension were identified: (a) monitoring comprehension, (b) cooperative learning, (c) use of graphic or semantic organizers, (d) teaching story and text structure, (e) asking and answering questions, and (f) summarization (NRP, 2000). The NRP (2000) identified multiple-strategy instruction as a way to teach reading comprehension so that students experience a natural interaction with text. Taken together, students who are learning to read, must learn isolated skills (phonics, vocabulary definitions) and apply them to text to understand what is read and have meaningful interactions with text.

After the NRP: Current State of NRP Recommendations

The NRP report established the focus on reading skills that has been the focus of reading research and practice in subsequent years (Shanahan, 2005). In addition to establishing the core aspects of reading that focused and streamlined researchers and teachers, the NRP report also identified the importance of conducting high-quality,

rigorous, experimental research on reading practices to determine what is most effective in reading instruction, as well as understanding and improving how teachers' reading skills are developed (Shanahan, 2005). A demand for a better understanding of reading research preceded establishment of research clearinghouses, like What Works Clearinghouse, that could help people understand what works (Shanahan, 2005).

Furthermore, the NRP report built on the understanding of the importance of early literacy instruction (Chall, 1967) and the fact that the path to reading proficiency starts long before third grade. As children advance, reading skills develop early and compound over time (Hart & Risley, 1995).

Criticisms and questions also arose from the report; namely, the lack of a focus on how research literature aligns with the recommendations (Guzzetti, 2002). Also, since the report, technology has advanced, and classrooms have become more diverse with larger populations of English language learners (NCES, 2017). Finally, even as the understanding of how to teach reading has strengthened (Foorman et al., 2016), low reading proficiency rates and achievement gaps in reading proficiency persist (NCES, 2015).

Students arrive at school with gaps in reading skills, from letter knowledge and pre-reading skills (O'Donnell, 2008) to vocabulary (Hart & Risley, 1995). This means that many children arrive at school "at risk" for reading failure. Students who are at risk for reading failure because of socio-economic, ethnic, or English learning status, or because of disability or low progress in reading skills, need instruction that produces accelerated gains in their ability to read so that they not only make gains, but catch up to their peers who do not struggle to learn to read (Teale, Paciga, & Hoffman, 2007). When

students in early elementary school are identified as at risk for reading failure, strong instruction in language and the five core skills is necessary to advance their reading progress (Foorman et al., 2016; Teale et al., 2007).

Read Aloud in Early Elementary Classrooms

Reading books aloud to children is a practice that has been used to build children's language (Chomsky, 1972) and encourage early literacy success (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Whitehurst et al., 1994) for decades. Reading aloud is a common classroom practice; a survey of 1,882 teachers identified that first grade teachers engaged in read aloud the majority of days, and that they engaged in picture book read aloud the most (overall, surveyed first grade teachers had engaged in picture book read aloud 8.84 out of the previous 10 school days; Jacobs, Morrison, & Swinyard, 2000).

Read aloud provides children with access to complex language, sophisticated vocabulary, and story structure before they are able to read stories at the same level of difficulty on their own (Beck & McKeown, 2001). In particular, it provides access to vocabulary (Adams, 1990; Meyer, Wardrop, Stahl, & Linn, 1994), an important aspect of reading that is strongly correlated with later reading skill (Joshi, 2005; Perfetti, Landi, & Oakhill, 2015). Depending on text selection, read aloud can provide access to content knowledge (Hoffman, Roser, & Battle, 1993). Read aloud also provides opportunity for teacher-directed modeling and scaffolding for students who require support to understand text, such as English language learners (Pappas, Varelas, Patton, Ye, & Ortiz, 2012). Finally, read aloud experiences are an engaging and fun part of the school day for children and are related to student motivation to read (Ivey & Broaddus, 2001). It is not

surprising, then, that the Commission on Reading identified read aloud as "the single most important activity for building knowledge required for eventual success in reading" (Anderson et al., 1985, p. 23).

Interactive Read Aloud

In classrooms, there are limitations to read aloud; general read aloud, in which a teacher reads a book aloud to children, has not been proven to have an impact on students' reading skills (Marulis & Neuman, 2010; Meyer et al., 1994). It is only when reading books aloud is well planned and delivered with purposeful modeling and interaction that it has an impact on student reading outcomes (Baker, Santoro, Chard, Fien, Park, & Otterstedt, 2013). Read aloud experiences that do not have strong teacherstudent interactions may have a negative impact on student learning (McGee & Schickdanz, 2007; Meyer et al., 1994). As Meyer et al. (1994) wrote: "The magic [in reading with children] comes as you engage them with print" (p. 83). Interactive read aloud (or shared read aloud) is the practice of teachers modeling skills through read aloud (Barentine, 1996; Fountas & Pinnell, 2006). The practice of interactive read aloud is both explicit and systematic, teaching specific concepts and skills, and open-ended and engaging through questioning and discussion (Barentine, 1996; Fountas & Pinnell, 2006). Interactive read aloud has been defined as a way to scaffold children's experience with a book (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007). In one approach, outlined by McGee and Schickedanz (2007), a book is read three times so as to increase the amount of time that students engage with the ideas in the text. In the first reading, teachers are introduced to story grammar (i.e., characters, setting, problem, solution), and are asked a few basic questions about the story and vocabulary words. During the second reading, the teacher

provides more information about key vocabulary words, and asks additional inference and discussion questions. In the final reading, teachers help children retell the story. This structure of read aloud encourages a development of comprehension over multiple readings, and engages students in talking about the story, which is a hallmark of the early childhood read aloud practice, dialogic reading (Whitehurst et al., 1994).

While interactive read aloud has been extensively written about in practitioner journals (e.g., Barentine, 1996; Fisher et al., 2004; Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn, & Roberts, 2015) and is a well-known practice (Fisher et al., 2004), it is not currently a What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) evidence-based practice (EBP). However, WWC does recommend that students are engaged in inferential conversation through read aloud (Foorman et al., 2016). Also, interactive read aloud practices have had an impact on various reading skills, including phonological awareness (Ukrainetz, Cooney, Dyer, Kysar, & Harris, 2000), vocabulary (Beck & McKeown, 2007), and comprehension (Baker et al., 2013). Given that students at risk need strong instruction across the school day to accelerate learning and reduce existing gaps (Teale et al., 2007), interactive reading has the potential to be an important part of a student's school day

Research-to-Practice Gap and Read Aloud Instruction

The research-to-practice gap occurs when best practices that have been identified through rigorous research are not incorporated or implemented with fidelity in classrooms and is well established in education (Carnine, 1997; Cook & Cook, 2013). The existence of a gap means that students are not receiving the strongest education possible, or instruction using practices that are most likely to impact student achievement (Spencer, Dietrich, & Slocum, 2012). Students who struggle to learn to read because of

gaps in learning or disability are those who, arguably, cannot waste time with unproven instructional methods (Cook & Cook, 2013) and, as a result, need research-based instruction the most (Zigmond & Kloo, 2011).

There is a current focus on designing, testing, and implementing EBPs, practices that have been evaluated by research and that produce consistently positive results for students when implemented with fidelity (Cook, Tankersley, Cook, & Landrum, 2008). Federal legislation (the No Child Left Behind Act and the Every Student Succeeds Act) establishes a requirement to incorporate the use of research-based practices into education (Spencer et al., 2012) and the President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education (2002) extends that requirement to students with disabilities. Across definitions of EBPs, the focus is on instructional practices that isolate the impact of a practice on specific student outcomes through rigorous research (Cook & Cook, 2013).

There are barriers that prevent teachers from using EBPs or from using them with fidelity (Carnine, 1997). These include: (a) trustworthiness, or how confident teachers are in research about a practice; (b) usability, or the practicality of a practice; and (c) accessibility, or how easy the practice is to obtain (Carnine, 1997).

The research-to-practice gap applies to teachers' interactive read aloud practices; when teachers implement interactive read aloud, they may not implement research-based practices that have been proven to produce outcomes for students. In general, teacher read aloud practices do not provide the in-depth modeling and engagement that characterizes interactive reading. In an analysis of teacher-child behaviors during read aloud, teachers asked questions that clarified word meanings or asked about immediate story details (Beck & McKeown, 2001). In their responses, children used background

knowledge and pictures to respond, rather than the story or text (Beck & McKeown, 2001). In a case study of the impact of coaching on interactive read aloud practices in preschool classrooms, Kindle (2013) identified that interactive reading practices differed from one teacher to another depending on the teacher's style and beliefs.

There are a variety of reasons why teachers may not implement interactive reading according to research practices. First, teachers may not be well prepared to teach reading or use interactive read aloud (Bos, Mather, Dickson, Podhajski, & Chard, 2001). Or, they may not have the depth of knowledge about literature to effectively use picture books in instruction; as Cunningham, Perry, Stanovich, and Stanovich (2004) found, early elementary teachers knew little about children's literature and were not able to identify their strengths and areas for development in this area. Teacher professional development has been a consistent focus in attempts to address the research-to-practice gap across reading instruction (NRP, 2000); for interactive read aloud, it is important to understand how teachers access and use resources and professional development, and how those influence teacher practice.

In a review of the interactive read aloud practices of 120 teachers in Grades 3 through 8, six aspects of interactive read aloud were identified as "expert" components (Fisher, Flood, Lapp, & Frey, 2004). First, teachers chose texts that were agreed on as high-quality literature, this included award winning or notable books. Then, teachers previewed and practiced the text, with a focus on what they wanted students to learn in terms of vocabulary and themes. Third, teachers presented a purpose for the read aloud and subsequent lesson. During the read aloud, teachers modeled fluent and prosodic reading that incorporated animated interaction with the text. After reading, expert

teachers engaged students in discussion using a mix of questions that addressed the story details and structure as well as enjoyment (Cox & Many, 1992). Teachers also incorporated connections to the text with the expectations that students would make personal connections with the text. Finally, teachers incorporated the text from the interactive read aloud into subsequent reading and writing throughout the school day. In this review, Fisher, Flood, Lapp, and Frey (2004) noted differences in how well teachers implemented each aspect of interactive read aloud, from choosing texts to fluent modeling of text.

Teachers' individual characteristics also influence the quality of interactive read aloud that students experience. Corrigan (2011) found that preservice teachers' vocabulary knowledge impacted their ability to choose text and implement interactive read aloud. Preservice teachers with stronger vocabulary scores chose books with stronger vocabulary and more complex language, and were better able to lead interactive reading lessons that engaged students in more complex talk. Evidence of differences in teachers' ability to plan and lead interactive read aloud lessons (Fisher et al., 2004) and the impact of individual teachers' skills on interactive read aloud (Corrigan, 2011) inform a need to understand how to impact teacher professional development around this common classroom practice.

Active Reading

Active Reading refers to the conceptualization of interactive shared reading that involves structured use of high-quality text in classroom read aloud experiences. Active Reading incorporates the "ABCs of Active Reading": Asking questions, Building vocabulary, and making Connections to provide a framework for instruction through

repeated reading of high-quality texts. The goal of Active Reading is to transfer the "telling of the story" from the teacher or adult reader to the students. Across repeated readings, Active Reading incorporates peer collaboration (e.g., a turn and talk procedure), whole group discussion, and a summarization strategy to increase and maximize student contribution.

The process of Active Reading was conceptualized after an extensive review of research on dialogic reading, interactive shared reading, and other read aloud practices as part of a broader review of evidence based practices in reading instructional practices. As such, Active Reading involves rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard, Pullen, & Coyne, 2010), and interactive shared reading strategies (Baker et al., 2013) with a focus on addressing students' vocabulary, and reading and listening comprehension outcomes.

Teacher Professional Development and Read Aloud

Teachers learn about and implement practices in a variety of ways. They may access internet resources, school-provided professional development, or be provided with coaching. Of those, traditional in-service professional development that delivers information about a practice through a lecture or workshop, has had limited effects on teacher practice (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, & Shapley, 2007).

Coaching occurs when an expert provides one-on-one support to teachers with a focus on improving a specific skill or practice (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010). Two primary methods of coaching were identified in a review of studies (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010): supervisory and side-by-side. Supervisory coaching involves structure observation and feedback provided by an expert or knowledgeable peer. Side-by-side coaching involves coteaching, modeling, and error correction during a lesson

provided by an expert. Coaching has been shown to impact teacher procedural fidelity related to a specific practice (Kretlow, Wood, & Cooke, 2011). Coaching also impacts teacher behavior to improve practice, bringing teacher practice closer to full fidelity (Matsumura, Garnier, & Spybrook, 2012). Finally, coaching has affected teacher practice such as to produce an improvement in student outcomes (Bethune & Wood, 2013; Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010).

Next Steps in Understanding how to Develop Teacher Practice

General interactive read aloud practices are established, however additional research is needed to compile a clear set of impactful interactive read aloud practices. Additional research into how interactive read aloud can teach vocabulary words would advance the understanding of how interactive read aloud can impact vocabulary learning from a wide range of texts (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Maynard et al., 2010). Examining the potential to impact student comprehension through read aloud will contribute to the understanding of how students develop comprehension skills from read aloud practices (Baker et al., 2013; Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002). Together, this would provide support for interactive read aloud to advance student skills, and maximize its impact on student who struggle to learn to read (Baker et al., 2013; Mol et al., 2009).

In addition, teacher development is an important consideration. Effective interactive read aloud is dependent on teacher knowledge, skill, and decision making. Additional research is needed to examine the impact that coaching may have on teacher skill and implementation of read aloud practices (Kindle, 2013). Research to identify the impact that teacher coaching may have on subsequent student outcomes (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010) would support the use of coaching to address student needs. Finally,

understanding how teachers' access to various levels of professional development impacts teacher implementation and student outcomes (Mol et al., 2009) would assist schools and districts in directing resources and making decisions.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effects of short-term, targeted teacher training in Active Reading on student outcomes in listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and vocabulary outcomes. This study provides additional support for the use of interactive read aloud practices through Active Reading to strengthen students' vocabulary learning. The implementation of this study in a first grade classroom provides additional understanding of how read aloud practices are implemented in early elementary settings in terms of student outcomes, teacher implementation fidelity, and teacher perceptions. Finally, this study contributes to the understanding of how teacher training impacts teacher fidelity and student outcomes by adding an additional group (Condition 2; materials only) to the typical groups compared in coaching studies (Condition 3: professional development and Condition 4: professional development and coaching). This addition is to simulate what occurs when teachers are provided with materials. Finally, this study contributes to the understanding of the research-to-practice gap by explicitly addressing identified barriers (trustworthiness, accessibility and usability; Carnine, 1997) to best practices in interactive read aloud.

Research Questions

The following research questions are addressed:

What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an
 Active Reading program have on the reading and language outcomes (vocabulary,

reading comprehension, and listening comprehension) of first grade students across various classroom settings? What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on the language and reading outcomes of students who are at risk of reading failure?

- 2. What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on teacher fidelity of implementation?
- **3.** What are teachers' perceptions of Active Reading related to implementation of read aloud and student outcomes? How do teachers perceive the usability, feasibility, and trustworthiness of Active Reading as a research-based practice?

Delimitations

This study is limited by the focus on students in first grade classrooms at a Title 1 school in a school with a high percent of students who are English language learners. This study focuses on classroom time dedicated to interactive read aloud lessons and five of the common practices identified by Fisher et al. (2004; text selection, preparation, purpose, strong modeling, discussion), not to the additional ways that teachers may incorporate read aloud vocabulary or ideas throughout the school day. This intervention is focused on a small portion of the day, 20 to 30 minute read aloud instruction. Also, the quantitative measurements address outcomes limited to vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. Additional potential outcomes (e.g., student enjoyment, motivation to read) are not addressed using standardized or researcher-created quantitative measures.

Definition of Terms

Active Reading is a structured approach to interactive read aloud that involves rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010), and interactive shared reading (Baker et al., 2013) during repeated readings of high-quality picture books.

Interactive Read Aloud is an approach to read aloud instruction that incorporates explicit modeling, peer collaboration and discussion using high-quality, grade appropriate texts. The goal of interactive read aloud is a combination of modeling strong reading and engaging students in productive discussion (Pinnell & Fountas, 2011).

Students who are at risk for reading failure (students at risk or SAR) are those who are scoring in the bottom third (33%) according to a nationally normed, standardized vocabulary assessment.

Vocabulary is a child's knowledge of words. The words focused on during Active Reading include Tier 2 words that are frequent in text, but not in conversation. These often include synonyms to common words (e.g., giddy or ecstatic for happy).

Reading comprehension is the ability to understand what a student reads. This includes literal, inferential, and passage comprehension.

Listening comprehension is the ability to understand language that is spoken, either through read aloud or conversation.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Active Reading is an approach to read aloud instruction that incorporates rich vocabulary instruction and interactive shared reading. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effects of short-term, specific, targeted teacher training in Active Reading on student outcomes in vocabulary, reading and listening comprehension. This chapter includes a literature review of research related to (a) the importance of oral language development, (b) the impact of read aloud instruction as a classroom practice, (c) the impact of read aloud on specific outcomes (vocabulary, comprehension), and (d) the impact of read aloud on specific groups of students. It also includes an overview of research related to teacher professional development and coaching.

Importance of Oral Language as a Predictor of Reading Outcomes

There is consensus that oral language development is an important part of learning to read (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Early Child Care Research Network, 2005). The simple view of reading, developed by Hoover and Gough (1990) posits that skilled reading is the combination of a student's decoding abilities and linguistic competencies. Among the oral language skills that young children must develop are semantic skills (word knowledge, expressive and receptive vocabulary), syntactic awareness (grammar rules), conceptual knowledge, and narrative structure (understanding of how stories are structured; Bowey, 1986; Demont & Gombert, 1996; Klecan-Aker & Caraway, 1997).

When children read independently, they apply their knowledge of letter patterns and sounds to translate written text into oral language. They then apply oral language skills (knowledge of words and how sentences are structured) to understand what they

decoded to identify word, sentence, and passage-level meaning (Adams, 1990). Even as children learn to read, oral language is a critical skill that students must continue to develop alongside their word reading and decoding skills (Storch & Whitehurst, 2002).

This is evident in the importance of language as children grow as readers. In younger children, oral language skills are not as directly correlated with reading ability (Catts, Fey, Zhang, & Tomblin, 1999). However, as children progress in the complexity of text they are reading, the ability to understand complex sentences, and maintain understanding of language across text becomes increasingly important (Nation & Snowling, 1998).

Various studies have demonstrated and modeled the connection between language and literacy. In one seminal study on oral language and its impact on reading across early elementary school (pre-kindergarten through Grade 4), Storch and Whitehurst (2002) followed 340 students from kindergarten through grade 4. All the participants were enrolled in Head Start programs in prekindergarten. Students' language and literacy skills were assessed six times, once in each grade prekindergarten through Grade 4. From these data, Storch and Whitehurst (2002) created a structural model showing the effect that reading measures had on subsequent reading outcomes. First, the relationship between oral language and code-related skills is strongest in the youngest grades (prekindergarten) and weakens over time. Oral language was not as important during this time (the pathway between oral language and reading ability was not significant in Grades 1 and 2).

However, the importance of oral language emerged in Grades 3 and 4 when it predicted 7% of the variance in reading comprehension. The Storch and Whitehurst (2002) model demonstrates continuity throughout the oral language domain; children's oral language

ability contributed to future language competency. It also showed that reading comprehension in Grades 3 and 4 was influenced by children's prior reading achievement (18% of variance), reading accuracy (16% of variance), and language skill (7% of variance). This study, combined with the importance of strong reading skills by 3rd grade (Hernandez, 2013), supports a continued focus on oral language through elementary school.

Research has found an indirect relationship between semantics and learning to read (Torgesen & Davis, 1996). The Storch and Whitehurst (2002) model also drew conclusion about these indirect effects. For grades 1 and 2, students' oral language skill had an indirect effect on reading achievement as students learned to read. This led to the conclusion that: "there may be a danger in emphasizing phonological processing skills to the extent that the role of other language skills is underestimated" (Storch & Whitehurst, 2002, p. 943).

In another longitudinal study, Roth, Speece, and Cooper (2002) examined the reading development of 88 students across three years, kindergarten through 2nd grade. Oral language was assessed using measures that addressed semantic, syntactic, and morphologic aspects of language. The analysis indicated that semantic knowledge (word definitions, word retrieval) along with print awareness was a more important predictor of later reading skill than phonemic awareness. For reading comprehension, oral definitions and semantic skills (word retrieval) were important for reading comprehension.

Specifically, kindergarteners' word retrieval and ability to produce oral word definitions combined to predict reading comprehension in 2nd grade.

In another foundational paper, Nation and Snowling (2004) followed 72 children (ages 8 to 13) for four years. Students were given assessments of their reading, oral language, comprehension, and other reading skills (phonological skills, nonverbal ability) at two points in time. At Time 1, vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension were predictors of both reading comprehension and word reading. Oral language contributed to differences in word reading and comprehension after four years (at Time 2). This study supports the importance of oral language skill on reading development.

Building on the work of Nation and Snowling (2004), an analysis of reading skill and listening comprehension of 279 students in second and third grade who struggle with reading, Wise, Sevcik, Morris, Lovett, and Wolf (2007) sought to use structural equation modeling to examine causal relationships between various linguistic skills and reading aptitudes. Students who were identified as at risk for reading disability based on performance on standardized assessments (e.g., scoring in the bottom 15th percentile on the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test-Revised [Woodcock, 1987]) were given a series of assessments that tested expressive vocabulary, listening comprehension, pre-reading skills, and reading achievement. Pearson correlations were used to examine the relationships between linguistic and reading achievement variables. Using structural equation modeling, the final model demonstrated a strong connection between expressive vocabulary and listening comprehension, that supported word identification. From this, Wise et al. (2007) concluded that listening comprehension skills significantly predicted word identification skills for struggling early elementary school-aged readers.

For students who struggle to learn to read, the relationship between reading and listening comprehension has been shown to strengthen as students progress through

school. Diakidoy, Stylianou, Karefillidou, and Papageorgiou (2005) completed a cross-sectional study of 612 students in Greece across Grades 2, 4, 6, and 8 to determine how the connection between listening and reading comprehension changed over time. Results indicated that students' listening and reading comprehension were correlated at all grade levels, though the correlation strengthened as students progressed. In summary, oral language is an important skill for all students to develop, especially for students who are at risk for reading failure. There is a strong case for focusing instruction on students' oral language and listening comprehension during reading instruction. In the classroom, read aloud is a commonly used practice that can address oral language.

Read Aloud as a Classroom Practice

Reading aloud to children is a common practice in classrooms (Jacobs et al., 2000). Research has supported the use of reading aloud to children as a way to build language (Feitelson, Kita, & Goldstein, 1986), and experts have recommended read aloud as a classroom practice for decades (Anderson et al., 1985; Trelease, 1982, 2013). However, research has indicated that read aloud does not always produce positive outcomes on children's reading achievement. Two studies (Meyer, Wardrop, Hastings, & Lin, 1993; Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974) reported negative correlations between adult read aloud and children's reading comprehension. More recent studies (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002) have also found no correlation between read aloud and students' reading comprehension outcomes.

A longitudinal study conducted across nine years (1983-1991) that included ongoing classroom observations of teachers in a range of districts (suburban and rural) and approximately 650 students found no correlation between the amount of adult story

reading and children's reading achievement (Meyer et al., 1994). This result occurred across measures of word reading, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension. Furthermore, there was a -0.24 correlation found on the time spent reading text and the time spent in adult story reading, leading to the conclusion that there was a moderate tendency for students to spend less time reading independently in classrooms with larger amounts of adult story reading. Since then, read aloud practices have been more fully examined and specific approaches and behaviors have produced positive outcomes on student reading (Baker et al., 2013; Maynard et al., 2010).

At this point, it is important to understand the specific features and adult behaviors during read aloud that contribute to positive student outcomes. Of note, specific behaviors that provide instruction (rich vocabulary instruction) and student engagement (peer collaboration or turn and talk) rather than simply reading text aloud have proven effective. Studies that examined specific teacher practices related to reading (e.g., letter-sound practice, word reading) produced positive correlations with student achievement, while studies that focused on the amount of time that teachers read aloud correlated negatively with student reading achievement (Meyer et al, 1994). As teachers spent more time reading aloud, students spent less time engaged in reading practice. As Meyer, Wardrop, Stahl, and Linn (1994) wrote: "[i]t appears that the farther one moves away from activities directly related to the reading process, the lower the correlation between that activity and reading achievement" (p. 71).

In recent years, interactive read aloud has become a common read aloud practice (Pinnell & Fountas, 2006). Interactive read aloud is the practice of engaging children in reading high-quality text through modeling, questioning, and discussion (Pinnell &

Fountas, 2006). Teachers indicate that they want their read aloud sessions to be "highly interactive" (Fisher et al., 2004), however they often are not. First, read alouds may be used to fill short periods of time in a teacher's day. For example, Baker et al. (2013) found that teacher read alouds happened during "down time," during a period after lunch or recess when the overarching goal was to transition students to another activity.

Second, teachers may not involve all students; when read alouds involved more student engagement, a few children dominated the responses while others did not participate (Baker et al., 2013). Currently, interactive read aloud, as a classroom practice, has the potential to be an effective tool that advances student outcomes (Fisher et al., 2004), however it may not be delivered using practices that consistently engage children in ways that produce positive student reading outcomes.

Active Reading Theoretical Framework

The goal of Active Reading is for teachers to model effective reading practices and for students to engage with those practices through repeated reading of high quality texts, opportunities to discuss and practice strategies that are modeled by the teacher, and the transition of discussion from the teacher to the students across multiple readings (Figure 2.1).

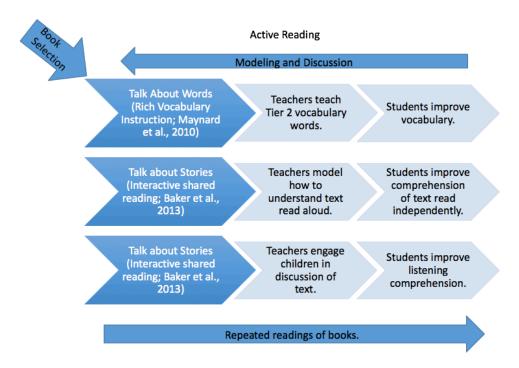


Figure 2.1. Conceptual Framework

Book Selection

The selection of text is an important part of interactive read aloud (Hall, 2007; Santoro, Chard, Howard, & Baker, 2008). When choosing read aloud books, preschool and kindergarten teachers chose to read books that were less complex (more predictable with simpler vocabulary) with students who were at risk (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007). This is important because students at risk can learn from sophisticated picture books (Hall & Williams, 2010). As children learn narrative text structure in the early grades, stories that provide opportunity to discuss and summarize narrative support students' understanding of text structure (Santoro et al., 2008). Furthermore, choosing books that allow for the teaching of vocabulary is important to capitalize on the benefits of the impact of read aloud on vocabulary (Elley, 1989). In research on interactive shared reading in first grade, Santoro, Chard, Howard, and Baker (2008) identified books using the following criteria: topic of interest, target audience, length, availability and cost,

representation of diversity, text coherence, and the ability to make connections between other texts.

Repeated Reading

Repeated reading, or reading the same text multiple times, is a technique that has demonstrated outcomes for students' retention of new vocabulary (Elley, 1989). Elley (1989) tested the impact of repeated storybook reading on vocabulary acquisition. More than one hundred fifty students (157) in seven classes of seven-year-olds in New Zealand were read the same book three times across a seven day period. The text was chosen because it included 20 target words. Students were read each book without extensive definition or discussion of the target words. After the repeated reading, students demonstrated 15.4% increase in knowledge of the target words, though some words had greater increase while some words were not learned, indicating that some words were easier for students to learn through the context of the story and illustration than others.

In another study, Penno, Wilkinson, and Moore (2002) studied the impact of repeated reading on students' vocabulary. Forty-seven children in kindergarten and first grade (age 5 and 6) listened to two stories read three times each and were assessed on their understanding of target words from each book. After repeated readings, students were better able to use the target words in story retellings, which suggests that they developed an ability to, not just identify a definition, but use the word in their own communication. Students also learned words that were taught and untaught, even though they learned more words that were taught; both the frequency of exposure to new words and the teacher explanation influenced student word learning.

Suggate, Louhard, Neudecker, and Schneider (2013) tested the impact of various storytelling conditions on student word learning. Twenty students in Grade 2 and 17 students in Grade 4 participated; all lived in Germany and instruction was provided in German. In the first condition, students engaged in independent reading. In the second condition, students were read to by an adult. Nine fiction stories were used in the study, each incorporated two words that were new to the students. Each word was mentioned or read multiple times. And, the third condition involved free storytelling. The order and presentation of stories was randomized. Children performed best on words that were presented during the free story telling condition, followed by the read aloud condition, then the independent reading condition. This suggests that talking about words and hearing them is important. In addition to the elements of book selection and repeated reading, Active Reading draws from research on interactive read aloud that address vocabulary and comprehension outcomes.

Interactive Read Aloud in Early Elementary Classrooms

In research conducted in school settings, read aloud instruction has had an effect on children's vocabulary (Beck & McKeown, 2007), reading comprehension (Baker et al., 2013; Lever & Senechal, 2009), and oral language (Mol et al., 2009).

Read Aloud Instruction and Vocabulary Outcomes

When children read they frequently encounter new words and must integrate those new words with existing information (Cain & Oakhill, 2011). The number of words that children know is important as they learn to read because reading comprehension and vocabulary are strongly correlated (Cain, Oakhill, & Lemmon, 2004). Vocabulary instruction, particularly academic vocabulary instruction, rarely occurs in U.S. public

schools, namely schools with a high percent of students from low-income backgrounds (Foorman et al., 2016). This is concerning because instruction in academic vocabulary is important for third grade reading proficiency (Kim, Armstrong, & Kelley-Kemple, 2017). Vocabulary instruction can happen in isolated lessons, or through reading activities.

Picture books are an important way that children are exposed to and learn new vocabulary (Kim, 2015). Picture books contain "Tier 2" words that are synonyms of common words, but that are not used in conversational language (e.g., the words "giddy" or "ecstatic" instead of happy; Beck & McKeown, 1985). High quality picture books, in particular, contain a larger amount of Tier 2 words than even adult conversation (Hayes & Ahrens, 1988). Picture books may also explain and describe settings or scenarios that children do not encounter in their everyday lives (e.g., a farm). These qualities make picture books particularly important for teaching new vocabulary words (Trelease, 2013).

Children can learn vocabulary quickly; there is an established research base for the impact of explicit instruction on students' vocabulary knowledge. In a meta-analysis of 67 studies, Marulis and Neuman (2010) found a strong overall effect (d = 0.88, p < .0001) for vocabulary intervention on early elementary students' word knowledge. The effects of vocabulary knowledge were greater when interventions were delivered by trained adults, when researcher-created assessments were used, and when explicit instruction was part of the intervention. One interesting finding in this analysis was that studies that featured smaller number of sessions (i.e., less than 18) had higher effect sizes (g = 1.13, p < .05). This led to the conclusion that even a small number of sessions can improve vocabulary outcomes.

As vocabulary acquisition is studied, two primary questions emerge as focus for research: (a) What is the best way to teach vocabulary through read aloud? and (b) How many words can children learn through read aloud intervention? Furthermore, could this rate of word learning have an impact on reducing any existing word gap between students (Stanovich, 1986)?

Teaching vocabulary words through read aloud. Read aloud can be implemented various ways. Brabham and Lynch-Brown (2002) examined the effect of three read aloud styles on students' vocabulary and comprehension. Using a random assignment pretest/posttest design, 15 groups of 12 students each were randomly selected from 1st and 3rd grade classrooms from a range of schools that spanned various socioeconomic levels and other demographics (i.e., urban, rural, suburban). Eighty-seven students received a "just reading" approach during which teachers read a story aloud, but asked no questions. An additional 79 students received a "performance reading" approach that incorporated read aloud with questions and comments before and after the story. A final 80 students received an "interactional reading" style that involved talking during the read aloud. Students were read two informational text using the style assigned to them. A MANOVA was used to analyze the effects of reading style on vocabulary and comprehension. While students progressed in comprehension and vocabulary, read aloud produced greater effects on student vocabulary knowledge than comprehension. Reading style did have an impact on student learning; the "just reading" style produced the lowest gains, while "interactional reading" produced the greatest gains.

Specifically related to word learning, Penno, Wilkinson, and Moore (2002) conducted a pretest/posttest between participants design to examine: (a) effect of repeated

readings on word learning, and (b) impact of teacher explanation on word learning. A group of five and six-year-olds (n = 47) in suburban Auckland, New Zealand from a range of ethnicities (e.g., Maori, Asian, White) were taught 10 target words and were assessed on those words as well as five generalization words from texts. Children either received the treatment (an explanation of the target word while reading) or a control (no explanation of the target word). A Latin square design was used to analyze the impact of multiple readings on vocabulary. Students who received explanations of the words scored higher than those who did not. In addition, students who started with greater word knowledge learned more words. This study lends support to both repeated readings of text and teacher explanation of words during read aloud.

A study by Justice, Meier, and Walpole (2005) examined the impact of small-group repeated readings of storybooks on the vocabulary development of kindergarten students at risk for reading failure. Fifty-seven kindergarten students were randomly assigned to treatment or comparison groups, which were further differentiated into high and low vocabulary groups. Students in the treatment group were provided with 20 small group reading sessions and exposure to 50 new words that were randomly assigned to receive elaboration or not. When words received elaboration, students were engaged in thinking about words using props and using the words outside of the reading. Overall, students in the treatment group demonstrated moderate gains in word learning. In contrast with Penno et al. (2002), students with the lowest vocabulary made the greatest gains. There was no influence on student knowledge of non-elaborated words.

One question in read aloud vocabulary instruction is the extent to which children can learn words simply from hearing them within the context of a story. Biemiller and

Boote (2006) implemented a pretest/posttest design to examine if pretesting impacted word learning. Forty-three kindergarten, 37 first grade, and 32 second grade students in publicly supported Toronto Catholic School students were involved with the study. About half of the 3^{rd} grade students in the school reported learning a language other than English as their first language. Students were taught one or two words before book reading, then they received read alouds two or four times with target words defined during reading. Across all grades, students scored higher on words at posttest (at pretest 25% of words were known, compared to 42% known at posttest; d = 1.21, p < .05). Words that were taught produced greater gains than those that were not taught. While students learned target words equally well when books were read two or four times, students demonstrated greater learning of untaught words when books were read four times. This supports repeated book reading for general word learning.

Lever and Senechal (2009) studied the impact of a shared reading intervention on students' narrative ability and vocabulary words. Students received a small group intervention twice a week for eight weeks, totaling 320 minutes of intervention.

Kindergarten students (40 5-year-olds from low-income households) were randomly assigned to a dialogic or shared reading treatment or a control group. In the dialogic reading condition, students were asked questions, while teachers shadowed student interest, expanded on student statements, and provided encouragement. Students in the control group received an 8-week phonological awareness intervention. Students' narrative retelling was assessed using a language complexity software analysis tool (CLAN software). Students were assessed on 16 vocabulary words. Students who received dialogic reading named more vocabulary words at posttest. This study supports

the use of dialogic reading (Whitehurst et al., 1994) in early elementary school (i.e., kindergarten).

In one study, Maynard, Pullen, and Coyne (2010) compared "basic" and "rich" vocabulary instruction with incidental exposure of words during storybook reading. During basic instruction, students received a definition of the word during reading. Rich vocabulary instruction involved explicit instruction in word meanings that connected the word to context (Beck & McKeown, 2004). A large group (n = 229) of African American first graders from low-income households were taught 12 words through read aloud experiences. Ninety-seven students received "rich" instruction on 6 words, 55 students received basic instruction, and 72 students received no instruction (incidental exposure). There were no differences between the groups at pretest. For words that were explicitly taught, rich and basic instruction were more effective than incidental exposure (effect sizes ranging from 3.6 to 5.18). For words that were not explicitly taught, there was no difference between groups. This study supports the use of explicit instruction of words within read aloud instruction.

As children learn more about words, teaching vocabulary can incorporate features of words (e.g., aspects of the word that are associated with sound, appearance, action, or location). Zipoli, Coyne, and McCoach (2011) studied the effect of extended instruction with embedded review or semantically related review of words using a within-subjects experimental design. Eighty kindergarten students, a high percentage from low-income families, were read 18 storybooks twice over 18 weeks. Three new words were taught from the books each week. Target words were randomly assigned to receive no review, an embedded review, or a semantically related review. One group of students received

storybook readings and small group extended vocabulary instruction. Two other groups of students received storybook reading and whole group extension activities. The activities engaged children in practicing with words either through embedded review, in which students received explanations of the words and reviewed them during book reading, or semantically related review, where students learned about the semantic features of a word. Students learned more words when some review (either embedded or semantic) was incorporated (d = 0.88, p < .001), and students learned more words within the semantic review than the embedded review condition (d = 0.35, p < .001). There was a difference in how much time each condition took; words that were provided with a semantically related review were covered in 9 minutes and 53 second each, compared to embedded review words which received 2 minutes 37 seconds of time. Furthermore, students demonstrated growth in receptive, not expressive, vocabulary. From this, Zipoli et al. (2011) concluded that students benefitted from learning the semantic features of words and hypothesized that this approach taught students broader concepts about words as well.

Another consideration when teaching vocabulary is the depth of knowledge that students have about words. It is important for students to have both breadth and depth of word knowledge. To investigate how word instruction may support developing students' breadth and depth, Coyne, McCoach, Loftus, Zipoli, and Kapp (2009) compared the effects of embedded vocabulary instruction, extended vocabulary instruction, and incidental vocabulary instruction on students' word learning. Forty-two kindergarten students in an urban school with a majority (69%) Hispanic population participated in the study that used a within-subjects experimental design. Students were divided into three

groups and received varying experiences learning nine words through a storybook read aloud three times. Each of the nine words was assigned to a teaching condition. During embedded instruction, students received explanations of words within storybook reading and were prompted to repeat and define the word. During extended instruction, students had multiple opportunities to interact with each word both during and after the book reading experience. Incidental exposure occurred when a word was used in the storybook but not taught. One-way ANOVAs were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention. Words that were taught using embedded or extended instruction produced greater learning compared to words that were taught using incidental exposure (Wilks's λ = .683, p = .001). Students demonstrated word learning with two-thirds of the words taught using embedded instruction, however, of the four assessment measures used, students demonstrated word learning on two of the four, suggesting that students had not learned the words with sufficient depth. In addition, at an 8-week post-test, students maintained the ability to recognize taught words, though their ability to produce definitions (depth of knowledge) decreased. This study supports the use of embedded instruction as a way to quickly teach words so that students can retain basic knowledge of words over time.

Taken together the qualities of effective read aloud vocabulary intervention include: (a) repeated reading of text (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Penno et al., 2002), (b) interactional style that engages students in thinking about words during read aloud (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Penno et al., 2002; Zipoli et al., 2011), (c) the use of dialogic reading techniques to promote use of vocabulary words

during read aloud (Lever & Senechal, 2009), and (d) explicit instruction of vocabulary words in read aloud texts (Maynard et al., 2010; Zipoli et al., 2011).

Rate of word learning through read aloud. The word gap between students in households with differing income levels has been a concern for some time (Hart & Risley, 1995), as has the idea of the Matthew Effect, or the theory that children who have larger vocabularies are able to learn more words faster than children with smaller vocabularies (Duff, Tomblin, & Catts, 2015; Stanovich, 1986). Read aloud instruction provides an intriguing solution to these problems because picture books provide an important opportunity for teaching rare words (Beck & McKeown, 1985). As a result, understanding how many words children can learn through read aloud can impact the importance of read aloud within the school day. Biemiller and Boote (2006) examined the effect of vocabulary instruction on students' ability to transfer words to new contexts. In this pretest/delayed posttest design, 28 kindergarten students, 37 first grade students, and 42 second grade students, in a working-class school in Toronto, Canada, with 50% of students who were English language learners, were taught words using a five-day read aloud approach that involved explaining word meanings during reading and reviewing the words outside of the book. Students in 1st grade made larger gains from pretest to posttest (delayed posttest at 4 weeks), which could have been because, in first grade, the teachers had student review words daily using a chart. Also, lower pretest scores were associated with higher gains. From this study, Biemiller and Boote (2006) concluded that many words can be learned through read aloud explanations and review. Students learned 8 to 12 words per week and the word knowledge was not lost after four weeks. From this, it was suggested that a reasonable goal for word learning would be 400 words learned per

year, which meant that 1,800 words would have to be taught each year for 400 words to be learned by each student.

In another study, Maynard et al. (2010) assessed first grade students' learning of six target words after a 15-minute daily read aloud intervention that lasted for one week. Based on student learning, 216 words could be taught through read aloud through 15 minutes of "rich" instruction each day. Maynard et al. (2010) estimated that this would result in students learning 136 words each. The analyses from these studies indicate that while read aloud is not enough to fully eliminate the vocabulary gaps that exist between students (Stanovich, 1986), as a regular part of the school day, it is one way to address gaps in word knowledge.

Read aloud instruction and reading comprehension outcomes. When reading, to make meaning from text, students must draw on cognitive, language, decoding (and encoding) skills, among others (Connor et al., 2014). Students also learn to comprehend through discussions about what they read (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). In elementary school, students are transitioning from, what Smolkin and Donovan (2001) call comprehension acquisition, in which they learn how adults comprehend what is read through observation, during which they learn how to apply comprehension strategies to text. Interactive shared reading has been studied as a way to help create a bridge for students between these two phases; helping students understand how adults understand text through modeling, explicit instruction, practice and scaffolding. For example, Brabham and Lynch-Brown (2002) examined the effect of three read aloud styles on students' vocabulary and comprehension. Using a random assignment pretest posttest design, 15 groups of 12 students were randomly selected from first and third grade

classrooms and were read two informational texts. Eighty-seven students received a "just reading" approach in which teachers asked no questions while reading. Seventy-nine students received a "performance reading" approach that involved reading aloud with questions and comments before and after reading. And, 80 students received an "interactional" reading styles that involved talking and modeling during reading.

MANOVA was used to analyze the effects of reading style on vocabulary and comprehension. There was no significant impact on comprehension. The findings suggest that the use of an interactional style does not impact student comprehension. However, a significant limitation of this study was the lack of a control group.

In another study, Lever and Senechal (2009) examined the impact of a shared reading intervention on students' narrative ability. Students received a small group intervention twice a week for eight weeks, totaling 320 minutes of intervention. Students, forty 5-year-olds from low-income households, were randomly assigned to a dialogic reading treatment or an alternative group. In the dialogic reading condition, students were asked questions, and teachers expanded on student statements, encouraged the student, and identify and support their interests. Students in the control group received an eightweek phonological awareness intervention. Students' narrative retelling was assessed using a language complexity software analysis tool (CLAN software). Students who received dialogic reading had higher total story grammar compared to students in the control group (d = 0.38, p = .001). There was no difference on students' language or story cohesion. A significant limitation of this study was data loss; due to technical errors pretest data was lost for three students and post-test data was lost for one student. Still, Lever

and Senechal (2009) concluded that some aspects of narrative discourse were impacted by dialogic reading.

In a study of first grade students, Baker et al. (2013), sought to teach students techniques that they could use to comprehend text on their own through interactive read aloud. During interactive read aloud sessions, teachers taught students how to understand the "messages" in text, building on the idea that reading comprehension occurs through mental representation of printed text (Perfetti, 1999). Also, students were taught to maintain their understanding of text across time, supporting students' development of coherence of text. In order to teach students how to better comprehend text, Baker et al. (2013) used explicit instruction to teach six comprehension strategies identified by the NRP (2000): cooperative learning, use of graphic organizers, story structure, question answering, question generation, and summarization. Baker et al. (2013) studied the impact of whole-classroom read aloud instruction on student vocabulary and comprehension. A randomized control trial was used to assign 12 schools (one 1st grade teacher per school) to the intervention or comparison condition. The schools were comparable on demographic characteristics. Across 12 schools, 225 students participated in the study. Teachers used typical 1st grade texts during the study, both fiction and nonfiction titles, and were provided a set of lessons to use during the intervention, which was conducted across 19 weeks. The lessons involved six or seven lessons across two weeks, each lesson included a narrative and nonfiction text that were paired based on topic. Before reading, teachers identified the book genre, set a purpose for reading, and taught vocabulary. During reading, story grammar was taught for narrative text, and a KWL chart was used for nonfiction text. Questioning strategies were used to support

discussion and higher-level thinking (i.e., drawing inferences). Explicit instruction focused on inference making and comprehension monitoring and was followed by cooperative learning that involved students practicing the skill with a partner. After reading, students practiced summarizing or retelling with a teacher or partner. A story mapping technique was used to help students summarize narrative text. Teachers in the comparison condition did engage students in read aloud activities, but were not provided with the training or lessons for the intervention. Teachers in the intervention condition were trained during a full day workshop, and received ongoing observation. Overall fidelity of implementation was 0.84. Hierarchical linear modeling was used to analyze the results at the student and classroom level. Multiple ANCOVA models were applied to examine the main effect for risk-statuses. The interactive read aloud procedure had positive impacts on students' narrative retell and vocabulary outcomes. Students who received the intervention performed higher on narrative retell (ES = .42, p = .01). The effect on vocabulary was high (.93, p < .001). There was no effect on student listening comprehension or expository retell. This study supports the use of interactive read aloud in whole group, actual classroom settings.

These studies support the use of read aloud to develop early readers' comprehension of stories. Effective ways to improve comprehension through read aloud include (a) explicit modeling of comprehension strategies (Baker et al., 2013); (b) peer collaboration (Baker et al., 2013); (c) questioning and discussion (Lever & Senechal, 2009). However, there is also a need for additional research into exactly what read aloud practices impact reading comprehension and how these can be incorporated into teachers' read aloud practices.

Impact of read aloud on language and listening outcomes. In early education research, dialogic reading, an approach to one-on-one and small group read aloud that involves asking targeted prompts and providing with language modeling and expansion (Whitehurst et al., 1994) is an EBP with a strong research base that supports its effects on children's oral language. Studies have demonstrated effects of dialogic reading on young children's oral language skills ranging from 0.32 (p < .05; Whitehurst et al., 1994) to 1.81 (Wasik & Bond, 2001). Dialogic reading, however, is an intervention focused on children ages two through five. Less research has focused on how read aloud interventions impact the oral language of students in early elementary school.

Given that oral language, including listening comprehension, is an important component in reading ability (Wise et al., 2007), it is important to examine exactly how read aloud practices influence students' ability to understand and use language. In their review of 16 studies that included both print and language outcomes for children age 2 through early elementary school, Mol et al. (2009) fond that interactive shared reading produced an effect size of 0.54 (p < .001) on students' oral language skills. Effect sizes were also moderate for expressive language (d = 0.62, p < .001) and receptive language (d = 0.45, p < .001). The effect on oral language was higher when children were younger, and decreased as children aged. The effect was also low for children who were at risk and for those with a disability.

In the study by Lever and Senechal (2009) that examined the impact of shared reading on students' narrative skill, when students were asked to retell a narrative story that was analyzed by CLAN software, there was no difference after the intervention on students' language or story cohesion.

In a meta-analysis, Swanson et al. (2011) reviewed 29 studies that included students age three through third grade who were at risk for reading difficulty. Interventions were delivered in the elementary school (mean sample size 56.6). A range of treatment sessions were provided (three to 155, mean 30 sessions). A variety of study designs were used (e.g., treatment comparison, multiple treatment, single case). Six read aloud intervention approaches were used (e.g., dialogic reading, repeated reading, computer-assisted). Overall, students who received a read aloud intervention performed higher on language assessments than students who had not (d = 0.29, p = .005). Students who received dialogic reading, in particular, scored higher than students who received another type of read aloud (d = 0.70, p < .001).

In a study by Kraemer, McCabe, and Sinatra (2012), 77 first grade students in four classes were grouped into experimental and control groups. Students in the experimental groups (two classes) were provided with choice of text (narrative or expository) and engaged in general read aloud. The majority of students chose expository text (59 at pretest, 58 at post-test). After students chose a book, they were read the book aloud. Listening comprehension was assessed using an individualized questioning procedure. After the read aloud, students' listening comprehension scores increased (λ = 0.754, p < .001) leading to the conclusion that reading text aloud may improve students' listening comprehension.

In the study by Baker et al. (2013), two oral language measures were administered, the Test of Oral Language Development-Primary and the listening comprehension subtest of the Gates MacGinitie. Students were also assessed in their ability to retell stories. After 19 weeks of interactive read aloud instruction, students

demonstrated significant improvement in their ability to retell narrative stories (d = 0.42, p < .05). However, there was no significant impact on listening comprehension.

Current understanding of how read aloud impacts students' language and listening comprehension is mixed and limited. While there is consensus that strong read aloud practices have a significant impact on the language development of young children (Whitehurst et al., 1994) the impact that read aloud may have on children in elementary school is less clear (Baker et al., 2013; Kraemer et al., 2012).

Impact of Interactive Read Aloud on Specific Populations

Interactive read aloud has been studied with students who are in early elementary, specifically first grade, those who are at risk for reading failure, and students who are learning multiple languages at once (e.g., dual language learners).

Read Aloud and Students in First Grade Classrooms

Specifically for students in first grade, two studies included in the meta-analysis by Swanson et al. (2011) focused on students at risk. Beck and McKeown (2007) used a between-subjects quasi-experimental pretest/posttest control group design to study how well students learned Tier 2 vocabulary words through read aloud. A group of students (98 students: 52 experimental, 46 comparison) in eight classes (4 kindergarten, 4 first grade). All students were from low-income households. The intervention included storybook reading with rich vocabulary instruction (e.g., Text Talk) to teach rare words. Words were taught after the story was read in a way that used the context from the story. Students in the comparison group received read aloud, but not rich vocabulary instruction. Twenty-two words were taught over the course of the 10 week intervention.

First grade students who received the intervention gained 3.64 words compared to 1.71 words in the comparison group (d = 0.744, p = 0.010).

In another study that included first grade students, Beck and McKeown (2007) focused on how well students learned vocabulary words depending on the level of instruction. Forty first grade students participated in the nine-week intervention that covered 42 words. Students were assessed using a researcher-created assessment that tested both verbal and picture knowledge of words. Rich vocabulary instruction was incorporated into seven books. Students in the intervention received either rich instruction or "more rich" instruction that helped children make decisions about how new words learned were used in context and were required to explain why the use of words did or did not make sense. Students who received "more rich" instruction gained more words on the verbal (d = 2.09, p < .001) and picture test (d = 2.71, p < .001). This study demonstrates that children can learn sophisticated vocabulary through instruction that incorporates picture book reading. Still, word learning must be intentional and robust to have a maximum benefit.

One early study (Rosenhouse, Feitelson, Kita, & Goldstein, 1997) conducted in first grade classrooms in Israel involved 339 students across 16 classrooms. Classrooms were randomly assigned to one of three experimental groups or a control group. The students were from schools that were "in need of enhancement," to use direct translation of the Hebrew term. The three experimental groups each used interactive shared reading procedures that involved engaging children in generating questions before reading, explaining and clarifying the story while reading, and activating students' prior knowledge to deepen understanding, and asking children to ask questions, think about the

story and connect to their own experience. After reading, teachers helped students summarize the story by repeating the main ideas. There were four conditions in the study: one condition read stories by different writers; another group listened to stories written by the same author; a third group read a series of stories written by one author; and the control group engaged in other learning activities. Measures of decoding, comprehension, and picture story telling were administered. Using a MANCOVA with pretest scores as the control covariate, significant improvements on all measures was noted between the experimental and control groups. From this, the researchers concluded that any kind of reading (in terms of text selection) enhances literacy. The study also examined the impact of story reading on students' leisure reading and found that students in the experimental groups increased their leisure reading, particularly in the series group. This study suggests that interactive read aloud is important for developing children's reading skills, interest in reading, and individual reading behaviors.

One question in read aloud research is what type of books to read to students, particularly those who are at risk for reading failure. Hall and Williams (2010) studied the read aloud practices of five first grade teachers and 51 students in an urban, Title 1, Florida elementary school. Teachers were observed and videotaped reading two Caldecott winning titles. Then, students were interviewed about the books. A reiterative, analytic process was used to identify teacher utterances, and constant comparative analysis was employed to develop themes of teacher utterances during read aloud. From this analysis, Hall and Williams (2010) identified eight types of utterances that teachers engaged in during read aloud. These included: management (behavior prompts), prediction (asking what will happen next), book focus (talking about features of a book),

analysis (reasoning, evaluating), clarification (explaining portions of the book), vocabulary (talking about words), personal (connecting to the reader), and recall (summarization). The analysis of one specific teacher (Mrs. Jones) indicated that the teacher engaged in the majority of explanation and elaboration during the read aloud sessions, and used a transmissive approach (student-to-teacher, teacher-to-student; Hall & Williams, 2010, p. 311). Students indicated the ability to understand and connect with the texts, supporting the use of complex texts for read aloud with young students who are at risk for reading failure.

Other studies have specifically addressed first grade students; Maynard et al. (2010) addressed various levels of word instruction within interactive shared reading to teach students new words. Maynard et al. (2010) found interactive shared read aloud with specific instruction around vocabulary to be an effective way to teach first grade students new vocabulary, and that first graders could learn as many as 216 words in a school year through 15 minutes per day of rich vocabulary instruction. Furthermore, Baker et al. (2013) found improved comprehension outcomes in first grade students as the result of strong interactive read aloud instruction. Taken together, these studies support the use of interactive read aloud practices within first grade classrooms as a way to improve reading outcomes.

Read Aloud Intervention for Students at Risk for Reading Failure

Students at risk for reading failure are defined as those who score at an established level on a standardized assessment (e.g., students who score at the intensive level on the DIBELS assessment; Baker et al., 2013). Students at risk for reading failure require robust interventions that will accelerate their learning compared to typically

progressing peers (Marulis & Neuman, 2010). While much research has been conducted on read aloud and its impact on the skill of students in general (Mol et al., 2008), there is also a research base that has examined the use of read aloud practices with students who are at risk or who have a disability.

Storybook reading can provide students who are at risk for reading failure with specific gains. For instance, kindergarten students who were at risk and who had the lowest vocabulary levels made the greatest gains when words were taught through storybook reading and elaboration (Justice et al., 2005).

In a meta-analysis of 67 studies of vocabulary intervention for children in prekindergarten and kindergarten (n = 5,929), Marulis and Neuman (2010) found that read aloud interventions did not produce greater gains for students who were at risk and, did not reduce the gaps between students at risk and not at risk. Through their analysis, Marulis and Neuman (2010) identified similar effect sizes in outcome between students who were and were not at risk because of family income. They also determined that, when additional risk factors were involved, students who were at risk because of poverty and other factors may make less growth compared to higher-income peers. This is troubling because it suggests that students at risk may fall farther behind when vocabulary intervention is provided.

In their study of interactive read aloud, Baker et al. (2013) identified about 50% of students in each group that were at risk because of language, literacy, or both. Students at risk in the intervention group scored higher than students at risk on the narrative retell measure (ranging from 0.17 for students with language risk to 0.68 for students with both language and literacy risk). There was no difference between groups on the listening

comprehension measure. The effect of the intervention on students' vocabulary was large; ranging from 0.56 for students who had both literacy and language risk to 1.33 for students who were identified as "low risk." This result prompted the conclusion that a low intensity intervention may have a strong impact on the vocabulary learning of students who are at risk. This study supports the use of whole-class read aloud as a way to strengthen the reading achievement of students who are at risk for reading failure.

Overall, there are mixed results for students at risk for reading failure for a variety of reasons. It is important to think about how read aloud can better serve students who need to make accelerated growth during whole group instructional time.

Read Aloud and Students who are Dual Language Learners

Read aloud has been a staple of the experience of students who are dual-language learners (DLL), or students who are learning language in school that is different from the one they speak at home. Students who are DLL, need to develop a level of competence in the language they are learning in school, and this serves as a precursor to literacy learning (Snow, 1983).

Gamez, Gonazlez, and Urbin (2016) examined Spanish-speaking DLL kindergarten students exposure to shared book reading and students' narrative production and comprehension. Twenty-one kindergarten teachers in transitional bilingual education classrooms and 102 DLL students who spoke Spanish at home participated in the study. Participating students were all identified as limited English proficient on district assessments. In this qualitative study, teachers were observed and recorded engaging students in whole-group shared reading sessions during the middle of the year (February-March) and at the end of the year (April-May). Sessions were recorded, transcribed, and

coded for various shared reading behaviors. For example, a standardized transcription system was used to identify the total number of words and the number of unique words used to analyze the narrative. The shared story reading sessions were observed and coded for the use of language (number of words) and incorporation of story structure elements. Shared reading sessions averaged 15 minutes (range: session 1 = 30.75 minutes, session 2 = 22.67 minutes). Teachers varied in their use of talk and gestures during shared reading. Teacher primarily relied on behaviors that fostered language skills (e.g., labeling, describing words in the books) and abstract thinking (e.g., encouraging inferencing). Overall, students improved in story structure, comprehension, and word use across the school year. Teacher talk was associated with variation in student outcomes. Specifically, the diversity of words teachers used predicted students' gains in how many words students used to retell a story. This suggests that it is not just book reading, but the talk surrounding book reading that has an impact on what students who are DLL gain from read aloud instruction.

Studies that examined the impact of read aloud on DLL students have focused on preschool classrooms, including the use of dialogic reading with students learning English as a second language (Huennekens & Xu, 2016), young Latino students at risk for reading failure (Correa, Lo, Godfrey-Hurrell, Swart, & Baker, 2015), and students in Head Start programs (Walsh, Sanchez, & Burnham, 2016). These studies found the use of shared reading or dialogic reading to be an effective way to improve students' vocabulary and early reading skills. As the reading achievement of DLL students has emerged as a persistent concern (Kame'enui, Adams, & Lyon, 1996; NCES, 2015), interactive story

reading with explicit and systematic support for DLL students has emerged as one recommended strategy (Tong, Lara-Alecio, Irby, Mathes, & Kwok, 2008).

When leading DLL students in read aloud, the same outcomes around oral language, listening comprehension, and vocabulary are the focus. However, for DLLs, who are learning two languages at once, certain aspects of language learning must be taken into account. For example, whether or not to read a text in their home language or second language (Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999) and what supports DLL students will need in order to maximize learning from read aloud procedures (Cruz de Quirios, Lara-Alecio, Tong, & Irby, 2012). Dual language learners develop language proficiency alongside literacy skills, and the various literacy skills that DLL students learn interact and support one another (Castro, Paez, Dickinson, & Frede, 2011). This means that the focus for DLLs should be on strengthening oral language capacity through the language environment in the classroom, alongside instruction in early literacy (August & Shanahan, 2006). Although it is an important component for students who are DLL, oral language may be overlooked in instruction (August & Shanahan, 2006). With the varied skills that DLL students must acquire in mind, three focus strategies have been identified to support DLL students: (a) explicit vocabulary instruction through read aloud or other methods (Carlo et al., 2004), (b) teaching students how to use academic English (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kiefer, & Rivera, 2006), and (c) facilitation of students' participation in the classroom, particularly through positive interactions (Gillanders, 2007).

One consideration for students who are DLL is the language of text that they are exposed to during read aloud. When children who are learning a second language experience read aloud, they may listen to the entire book in the language they are

learning, or experience a portion of the lesson in their native language. In a study with students learning English, Ulanoff and Pucci (1999) tested two methods of read aloud; concurrent translation, or using both English and the child's native language (in this case, Spanish) throughout the lesson, or preview-review, in which the two languages are isolated to parts of the lesson. For example, in concurrent translation, the teacher may read a sentence in the target language (English) and then provide immediate translation into the native language. In preview-review, background knowledge is built using the child's native language, then the lesson is delivered in the target language, and the lesson is concluded in the child's native language. Ulanoff and Pucci (1999) randomly assigned three classrooms (n = 60) to one of three groups: one control classroom, one class that used concurrent translation, and one class that used a preview-review structure for read alouds. The students were read *The Napping House* by Don and Audrey Wood (1989) and tested on 20 vocabulary words. The results indicated that children learned more words through the preview-review structure, because of the incorporation of background knowledge and the structured use of language. Furthermore, the group that experienced concurrent translation made fewer gains than the control group, bringing to question the veracity of using both native and target language during read aloud. The researchers hypothesized that students "tune out" the target language when they know that a translation will immediately follow (Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999, p. 418).

Read aloud has been shown to be an effective way to teach vocabulary to preschool students (Collins, 2005) and early elementary students who are DLL (Chalpana & Tafa, 2014). Collins (2005) provided 70 preschool children who spoke Portuguese as their first language with eight storybooks that were read three times over three weeks.

The experimental group was provided with explanations of the words in the story by pointing to the illustrations, hearing a student-friendly definition, providing synonyms and gestures when applicable, and using the words in novel sentences. The control group were read the stories without extended explanation of words. Students made greater vocabulary gains when they received explanations of the words.

Chalpana and Tafa (2014) examined the impact of direct instruction or interactive instruction in vocabulary during read aloud on the vocabulary learning of 87 DLL students in Greece (students were learning Greek as a second language). During the study, students in the experimental group were read six stories two times each in a group setting. During read aloud, students were provided either with an explanation of the target word (direct instruction) or with discussing target words (interactive instruction). A control group was read stories without any additional vocabulary instruction. Interactive instruction produced greater vocabulary learning, in addition, students' knowledge of Greek, the language they were learning, had an impact on their ability to learn target words. This study supports the use of vocabulary instruction within read alouds for students who are DLL.

Using a structured story reading intervention, STELLA (Story retelling and higher order thinking for English Literacy and Language Acquisition; Cruz de Quiros, Lara-Alecio, Tong, & Irby, 2012), a combination of story read aloud, retelling, vocabulary instruction, story grammar instruction, listening, questioning, and question generation, 72 second grade students who were identified as limited English proficient (LEP) who were enrolled in a bilingual education programs across nine schools participated in a six-week long study that examined the effect of STELLA on students reading outcomes. STELLA

lessons lasted for 35 to 40 minutes for first and second graders. In second grade classrooms, the intervention involved a five-day repeated reading procedure was followed. During Day 1, students were taught a vocabulary word using explicit instruction and practice. During Day 2, the students were read the entire story and asked questions. Students were encouraged to reply in complete sentences and the teacher modeled language when necessary. On Day 3, the students reviewed vocabulary and were engaged in choral reading to practice fluency. On Day 4, students received vocabulary instruction, choral reading, and writing about story elements. And, on Day 5, the story was reread and students were engaged in a culminating writing activity about the story. Students in the comparison groups received typical English language instruction using the same storybooks. To gauge student learning, story retellings were collected (transcribed and recorded) in both English and Spanish. Then, retellings were analyzed using a rubric of the story elements. Students who were engaged in STELLA lessons outperformed peers in the comparison group across all five story elements (ES ranging from .438 to .646). Specifically, a positive effect was found on ELL students' oral language, vocabulary and listening comprehension, from the use of STELLA and story book reading.

Active Reading for Dual Language Learners. Students who are DLLs require explicit vocabulary instruction, academic English support and development, and positive classroom interactions in order to learn both the language and early literacy skills necessary to be proficient readers in their home and school languages (Castro, Paez, Dickinson, & Frede, 2011). Active Reading addressed these elements through the use of robust vocabulary instruction and practice with vocabulary words across multiple

readings (Maynard et al., 2010); the use of academic vocabulary and academic English both in the selection of high quality books and the expectations for student responses during discussion, and the incorporation of discussion both whole group and Turn and Talk throughout the lesson. Active Reading also involves repeated reading, which is a practice that is important for DLL students' vocabulary learning (NCELA, 2008; Webb, 2007).

Need for Future Research in Interactive Read Aloud

Overall, children, including those at risk or who have disabilities, benefit from read aloud instruction (Swanson et al., 2011). However, additional research is needed to determine the long-term effects of read aloud with students at risk and more research is needed in authentic school settings. It is important to determine if word learning can be sustained at high rates over time, with the potential to increase overall rates of word learning (Biemiller & Boote, 2006). Also, it is important to connect read aloud interventions with long-term reading outcomes to address the question: Do children who receive vocabulary intervention or read aloud intervention in the early grades have higher reading comprehension outcomes later (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Maynard et al., 2010)?

There is more to learn about how children learn from read aloud in classrooms. In the school setting, teacher skill level, and teacher decision-making is an important consideration and the question of how teacher behaviors impact student vocabulary learning should be considered (Biemiller & Boote, 2006). Investigating classroom read aloud practices, understanding how read aloud style impacts comprehension is important (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002) as is how this comprehension of stories read aloud translates into independent reading comprehension (Lever & Senechal, 2009). Read aloud

should stimulate student and teacher discussions. Research is needed to identify the aspects of interaction during read aloud that influence discussion and how that impacts student outcomes (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002). Also, there is a need to understand how read aloud may impact students' language and listening comprehension (Baker et al., 2013) and how that may contribute to later reading comprehension. Finally, there is also a need to conduct studies that focus on a wider range of stories and word types (Maynard et al., 2010).

Within the classroom context, it is important to learn more about how teachers can engage in planning effective interactive read aloud instruction (Baker et al., 2013) and implement read aloud practices so that they have an impact on student outcomes (Baker et al., 2013). In a meta-analysis of 31 studies of read aloud practices, Mol et al. (2009) identified that studies that were "highly controlled" by researchers produced the highest effect sizes. This is problematic because Active Reading is a practice that has the potential to have a broader impact when teachers are able to effectively implement the practice, but the reality of how teachers take and implement practices does not always follow the parameters that researchers set out and is not under controlled conditions (Carnine, 1997). Specifically, Baker et al. (2013) identified a need to better understand how to ensure strong teacher practice related to comprehension and vocabulary instruction.

Training Teachers in Best Practices

Teacher training (or professional development) occurs when teachers are taught a practice that they are expected to implement in the classroom. The model that Yoon, Duncan, Scarloss, and Shapley (2007) used to understand effective professional

development models assumes that student knowledge is mediated by teacher knowledge and classroom practice, and that this occurs within the broader context of high standards, teacher accountability, and assessment. To that end, professional development influences student achievement first by increasing and improving teacher skills. Once teachers have stronger skills, they are better able to improve individual instructional choices and behaviors, which, in turn impacts student achievement (Yoon et al., 2007). However, if one of the connections between professional development and student achievement is weak, for example, if a teacher does not change her instructional practices in response to professional development, then student achievement will not be impacted.

Understanding that the need for high-quality professional development is ubiquitous, but the supply is lacking (U. S. Department of Education, 2001), the No Child Left Behind Act set out parameters for high-quality professional development. According to NCLB, professional development should: (a) provide sustained, intensive, content-focused training, (b) be aligned with standards and assessments, (c) improve teacher content knowledge, (d) advance teacher instructional strategies that are research based, and (e) be consistently evaluated for effectiveness (NCLB, 2001).

Research on teacher development has produced important findings. In a broad meta-analysis, Yoon et al. (2007) reviewed 1,300 studies that investigated teacher development, and found only nine that met rigorous research standards and that addressed the effect of teacher development on student academic outcomes. Overall, Yoon et al. (2007) identified a moderate effect of teacher development on student outcomes. In the rigorous studies reviewed, teachers received between five and 100 hours of training through workshops or summer institutes. When more professional

development was provided (more than 14 hours) a positive impact resulted. In comparison, when less professional development was provided (five to 14 hours), there was no significant impact. The effect of teacher professional development on student achievement in reading ranged from 0.00 to 1.11 (mean = 0.53), though the outcomes measured ranged from print awareness (ES = 1.11) to standardized reading measures (ES = 0.68). From this overview, professional development has an impact on student achievement and additional, high-quality research is needed. Namely, research that provides clear, high-quality studies to reinforce current findings. There is also a need for research that establishes a baseline equivalence between groups. Finally, the studies examined by Yoon et al. (2007) did not include research on a now common professional development practice, coaching.

Impact of Teacher In-Service and Coaching

Teacher coaching is an established practice that has been shown to change teacher practice (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010). In one review of 13 studies conducted between 1989 and 2009 that involved teacher coaching, Kretlow and Bartholomew (2010) focused on studies that quantitatively measured change in teacher practice. The 13 studies identified addressed 110 elementary-level teachers who received coaching (41 general education and 69 special education teachers). In all the studies reviewed, a measure of teaching accuracy was the dependent variable. This measure of accuracy included specific measures related to an evidence-based practice taught or components of a practice that was deemed "effective." While all 13 studies indicated that coaching increased the accuracy of teacher practice, eight studies reported a student outcome and only three indicated a positive change in student performance based on the coaching

provided. This meta-analysis identifies the need to design and implement studies with internal validity, that allow for the examination of a causal link between teacher coaching and student achievement.

Effect of Teacher Coaching on Teacher Behavior

Research on coaching has indicated that coaching can have an impact on the characteristics of a classroom environment (Neuman & Wright, 2010; Powell, Diamond, Burchinal, & Koehler, 2010). However, coaching has been limited in the ability to produce results in teachers' interactions and processes, including the quality of teacherstudent interactions (Neuman & Wright, 2010; Powell et al., 2010). Powell, Diamond, Burchinal, and Koehler (2010) and Neuman and Wright (2010) both used coaching to address teacher behavior in Head Start centers. Teachers made improvements on classroom environment (e.g., quality of writing area) but not on interactions (e.g., quality of interactions to support language). From these, teachers were able to change "lower level" behaviors (e.g., those that took a one-time change, such as rearranging a classroom space) but not those that were more deeply ingrained (e.g., language used while talking with children).

In a multiple baseline across participants design, Kretlow, Wood, and Cooke (2011) implemented a teacher in-service followed by coaching to improve teachers' whole group instruction using a group instructional unit that involved (a) teacher antecedent, (b) student choral response, and (c) feedback (correction or praise). Instruction was implemented during a portion of math instruction (calendar math). The correct use of group instructional units during the calendar math period increased both

after the in-service and after coaching was provided. This study supports the use of inservice combined with coaching to impact teacher behavior.

One of the concerns in teacher training is the importance of producing professional development that can be generalized across lessons or settings. To investigate the impact of various methods of teacher development (in-service and coaching) on teacher implementation of a math strategy, Kretlow, Cooke, and Wood (2012) conducted a multiple baseline across participants design. Three first grade teachers who were familiar with direct instruction in math participated in the study. Teachers were taught how to implement an active responding approach to providing instruction and feedback within whole group math instruction. They were observed during calendar math, numeracy, and problem solving lessons. The teachers were administered a three-hour in-service training, then with coaching that involved a preconference (15-20 minutes), in-class side-by-side coaching (30-45 minutes), and postconference (15-20 minutes). Teacher use of the active responding strategy increased after the in-service, and continued to increase after the coaching. Both the in-service and coaching were effective ways to teach teachers a strategy that generalized to other areas of math instruction.

In the area of reading, targeted reading instruction (TRI) is an intervention that involves focused, brief one-on-one instructional reading skill lessons delivered by the classroom teacher. The intervention teaches letter sounds, word reading, and comprehension of words in text. Teacher coaching (virtual and in person) is an integral part of the intervention. Coaching is provided one-on-one through on-site or web-based coaching. The focus of coaching is on providing feedback and problem solving around

the needs of the particular student observed. In one study that examined TRI, Vernan-Faegans et al. (2012) grouped six elementary schools in a rural area into matched pairs. Students in kindergarten and first grade participated (14 experimental classrooms and 18 control classrooms). A total of 276 students participated. Students, both struggling and non-struggling readers, who were in the experimental schools scored higher on word attack (ES = .41) and letter-word identification (ES = 0.50) compared to students in the comparison schools. Furthermore, struggling readers scored higher on letter-word identification (ES = .57), though not on word attack.

In another cluster randomized trial in seven schools, 364 students (112 struggling readers in experimental schools, 63 struggling readers in comparison schools, 125 non-struggling readers in experimental schools, and 64 non-struggling readers in comparison schools) were identified and provided with the treatment of TRI or typical instruction (Amendum, Vernon-Feagans, & Ginsberg, 2011). Struggling readers who received TRI and whose teachers received coaching, scored higher on word reading, and comprehension outcomes compared to struggling readers who were not in schools with TRI (effect sizes ranging from 0.31 to 0.61). Taken together, these studies (Amendum, et al., 2011; Vernon-Feagans, et al., 2012) support the use of one-on-one coaching to advance the needs of struggling readers especially when explicit reading skills are being taught. They also support the general achievement of students in classrooms where teachers receive coaching around reading instruction, regardless of whether or not the students are at risk or are receiving the intervention.

When considering teacher training it is also important to consider how professional development can impact teachers' use of established programs. In one study

of 23 classroom teachers (ranging from kindergarten to grade 5), researchers implemented an intensive professional development of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) practice, a common approach used with English language learners (McIntyre, Kyle, Chen, Munoz, & Beldon, 2010). The goal of SIOP is to support students' literacy skills alongside content and language knowledge. McIntyre, Kyle, Chen, Munoz, and Beldon (2010) studied the reading achievement growth in classrooms of teachers who were trained in SIOP compared to those who were not. Teachers were provided with 50 hours of training across the 18-month study in both day-long and after school sessions. Teachers who participated in the training scored higher in their implementation of the SIOP model according to scores on the SIOP Observation Tool, and those teachers who grew the most were those who had the highest pre-tests or who went beyond the minimal requirements of the project, adapting the SIOP with additional strategies and ideas. Students in classrooms with teachers trained in SIOP benefitted; a paired sample t-test indicated a gain for the treatment group (M = 55.76 to M = 61.04) while the comparison group demonstrated a loss (M = 64.56 to M = 63.76). This study supports training teachers in a specific model, as well as supporting the idea that teachers benefit in different ways from training, depending on their prior knowledge and ownership over the material.

Effect of Teacher Coaching on Teacher Reading Instruction Practices

The effect of coaching on reading instruction has been studied and quantified;
Lipsey and Wilson (1993) conducted a meta-analysis of professional development
programs and found a range of effect sizes from 0.47 to 0.80. Sailors and Price (2010)
identified an effect size of 0.64 on the effect of literacy coaching on reading

comprehension instruction and an effect size of 0.78 on teacher-provided opportunities to engage with content. These effect sizes, while important, address the impact of coaching on instruction and on teacher behavior, not on student outcomes.

A cluster-randomized trial conducted by Matsumura, Garnier, and Spybrook (2012) compared the quality of text discussion in schools that received a specific approach to literacy coaching (content-focused coaching; CFC) with schools that did not have the CFC approach to coaching. The CFC approach includes intensive professional development of coaches to increase knowledge and skills related to both reading and coaching. The difference between CFC and general coaching approaches is the focus on content knowledge, in this case related to teaching reading using a Questioning the Author (QtA) approach (Beck & McKeown, 2006). During the two-year study, coaches met with teachers in groups and individually. Fifteen intervention schools and 14 comparison schools were identified and randomly assigned to intervention or comparison condition. There were no differences between schools at the start of the study; the majority of students were low-income and Hispanic, and 40% were English language learners (ELL). A total of 177 teachers (95 treatment, 82 comparison) participated in the study. Teachers were observed in the fall and spring using measures to gauge the quality of classroom text discussion. A three-level HLM was used to model growth over time. Based on this, CFC coaching had a positive impact on the quality of text discussion (ES = 0.89, p = .001), and the growth level for CFC teachers exceeded that of the comparison teachers. The researchers identified some aspects of the CFC coaching model that could contribute to the results. Namely, (a) the clear role of the coach and the boundaries around the coach's role in the classroom, (b) coach training, (c) and the QtA focus and

instructional approach, which has been supported with evidence (McKeown & Beck, 2004). This study supports the use of coaches that are focused on a specific content area, and area of expertise within the classroom context. It also supports the use of ongoing, targeted coaching to impact teachers' use of established practices, in this case the QtA strategy.

Teacher Training in Bilingual Education Programs

Bilingual education is the incorporation of two languages into a child's education (Baker, 2011) which may reinforce the child's home language and/or teach a new language (Tellez & Varghese, 2013). There is a persistent gap between students who are ELL and their native English speaking peers (NCES, 2015). Some of this may be attributed to instruction; a low level of instructional support or a lack of instructional demands beyond factual knowledge has been documented in educational settings serving students who are ELL (Plank & Condliffe, 2013). The bilingual classroom presents an interesting environment because (a) there are students for whom both languages (English and Spanish) are their second language, and (b) the curriculum is divided between English and Spanish content and knowledge, impacting the amount of time that students are exposed to either English or Spanish knowledge and skills.

Research has produced some conclusions about how teachers approach instruction for students who are ELL. Lara-Alecio, Tong, Irby, and Mathes (2009) observed kindergarten bilingual and English-immersion programs in 54 schools in southeast Texas during the English as a second language (ESL) block. Teachers were provided with professional development in a structured English instruction procedure. In both bilingual and structured English immersion classrooms, when teachers were provided with

professional development in an intervention, they provided more instructional time in expressive language and cognitive tasks, teacher and student discussion (teacher-ask, student-ask) activities, academic scaffolding, and encouraging student interactions. This study supports the use of teacher professional development to shift teacher practice for students who are ELL.

The amount of time allotted for instruction will always be a concern, so a focus on quality instruction (over quantity) has been raised (Tong et al., 2017). Tong et al. (2017) defined quality instruction for students who are ELL as "exposure to learning opportunities for English language learners that is developed and delivered through intentional and consistent pedagogical actions that promote cognitive and academic language proficiency in English" (p. 294). Tong et al. (2017) implemented a study of professional development to impact the use of time spent teaching English cognitive academic proficiency (e.g., academic vocabulary) across two classroom structures (transitional bilingual education and structured English immersion) in second and third grade classrooms using a randomized control design (randomized at the school level). A total of 42 bilingual/ELL teachers in 2nd grade (20 treatment, 22 control) and 34 in 3rd grade classrooms (17 treatment, 17 control, totaling 369 ELL students) participated in the study. Teachers received ongoing professional development (PD) in the intervention, totaling 50 hours as they learned the intervention in the first year and ongoing PD in the second year (3 hours every other month) as they implemented the intervention. In second grade, the intervention consisted of a 90-minute English language block that incorporated Early Intervention in Reading, daily oral and written language (researcher-developed) and the STELLA procedure. In third grade, STELLA was combined with a researchercreated content reading in science intervention. Teachers in the control classrooms received general professional development and implemented typical classroom instruction during the instructional blocks. Teachers were observed throughout the year. Teachers who received the professional development spent more time implementing stronger academic practices that focused on academic language and higher order thinking compared to teachers in the control condition. Furthermore, there was a significant treatment effect on the students' English language development from second to third grade in the areas of expressive language, oral reading fluency, and retell fluency. This study supports the use of strong, ongoing professional development to strengthen the quality of instruction that students who are ELL receive in multiple models of instruction.

While the studies summarized above incorporate a focus on teachers who are working with students who are ELL, none address the specific setting of a DLL classroom. There is currently a lack of information about exactly how teachers in bilingual education classrooms use their time, and how this supports quality instruction for English language learners (Tong et al., 2017). Additional research that investigates how teachers put strong practices into effect in DLL classrooms would support the understanding of how DLL programs impact student learning, and the understanding of the role that teacher decision making and professional development have on student outcomes.

Need for Future Research in Teacher Development

Designing and implementing research that can demonstrate a link between teacher training and student outcomes is challenging (Borko, 2004). It is necessary to establish (a) that there is a connection between professional development, teacher learning, and

student outcomes, (b) that the evidence is high-quality, and (c) that the study demonstrates what it set out to do (Yoon et al., 2007). This demands that studies that ensure high internal validity to establish causation, strong fidelity of implementation, and strong analysis procedures (Yoon et al., 2007).

While teacher coaching is an established practice for advancing the accuracy of teacher delivery of evidence-based practices more research needs to be done to identify how teacher coaching can impact student outcomes (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010). To do this, future research must measure the impact of coaching on changes in student performance using established, valid measures (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010; Wayne, Yoon, Zhu, Cronen, & Garet, 2008).

While a positive effect on teacher practice has improved with explicit instructional procedures (Kretlow et al., 2012), establishing whether or not teacher inservice and coaching have an impact on the execution of more complex practices is important as well. Additional questions about coaching exist, including what "dose" of coaching teachers should receive to create a lasting impact in their practice, and how to determine the dose by teacher characteristics (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010). One aspect that should be considered is teacher perception of coaching (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010) as how satisfied teachers are with professional development impacts their long-term implementation success (Wayne et al., 2008). Also, research into how the experience of coaching in the context of the classroom is important for understanding how coaching can support research-to-practice efforts (Mol et al., 2009). Finally, research into how a combination of professional development and coaching impacts teacher fidelity of implementation would advance understanding of how coaching contributes to

teacher practice (Rohrbach, Grana, Sussman, & Valente, 2006; Shernoff & Kratochwill, 2007).

Synthesis

Read aloud is a common and important daily practice in early elementary classrooms. The components of Active Reading (rich vocabulary instruction [Maynard et al., 2010] and interactive shared reading [Baker et al., 2013]) have been researched and proven effective at improving core reading skills (vocabulary and reading comprehension). Additional research is necessary to determine specific practices that teachers can use to impact students' vocabulary, listening, and reading comprehension through read aloud to maximize the use of this common practice. In particular, the impact of read aloud on students who are at risk for reading failure is important as these students require instruction that has the greatest impact on student outcomes in the shortest amount of time. To that end, Active Reading combines rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010) and interactive shared reading (Baker et al., 2013).

Providing professional development to teachers is an established way to impact student outcomes (Yoon et al., 2007). A combination of teacher professional development and coaching is a more specific way to improve teacher practice and impact student outcomes. Prior research has established a clear link between coaching and improved teacher behavior (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010). However, additional research is needed to examine (a) the impact of teacher professional development on read aloud, (b) the impact of various levels of professional development on teacher practice and student outcomes, and (c) how professional development impacts teacher practice in varying classroom structures.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

This study was a sequential explanatory quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest design (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). Sequential explanatory studies are established to combine collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data such that the qualitative results assist in explaining and understanding the quantitative results (Ivankova et al., 2006). In this case, the design will examine the effectiveness of three teacher professional development approaches in Active Reading on student literacy and language outcomes using a combination of quantitative data from student literacy assessments and qualitative teacher interview data.

This chapter describes the participants, setting, experimenter, experimental design, dependent variables and measurement, fidelity, interrater reliability, social validity, materials, procedures, data analysis, and threats to validity. The method for this study was created using the quality indicators outlined by Gersten et al. (2005) for group design studies (Appendix A).

Active Reading is an approach to read aloud that incorporates rich vocabulary instruction and interactive shared reading. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effects of short-term, specific, and targeted teacher training in Active Reading on student outcomes in vocabulary, listening comprehension, and reading comprehension. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on the reading and language outcomes (vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension) of first grade students across classroom settings?

- a. What is the effect of short-term, specific, and targeted training in Active Reading on the reading and language outcomes of first grade students who are at risk for reading failure?
- 2. What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on teacher fidelity of implementation?
- 3. What are teachers' perceptions of Active Reading related to implementation of read aloud and student outcomes? How do teachers perceive the usability, feasibility, and trustworthiness of Active Reading as a research-based practice?

Participants and Setting

Students from four first grade classrooms were recruited. From those classrooms, 57 participants were recruited with parent consent (Table 3.1). During the study, one student moved, resulting in an attrition rate of 2%. Fifty-six students completed the study. 100% of the students provided written assent.

Table 3.1.

Participants

Condition	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Attrition (Percent)
1	16	16	0 (0%)
2	13	12	1 (1%)
3	15	15	0 (0%)
4	13	13	0 (0%)
TOTAL	57	56	1 (2%)

School Setting

The study took place in an elementary school in a suburban area in the Southeastern United States. The school served children grades pre-K through fifth grade. More than 750 students (786) attended the school in 2016. Student reading scores

averaged below district and state averages for the percent of students reading at "college or career readiness" in reading. According to the state assessment, a level 4 or 5 indicates "college and career readiness" in reading. A level 4 or 5 also corresponds to a proficient reading score on the National Assessment of Educational Progress. In contrast, a level 3 indicates that the student is able to read words, but may need support to comprehend grade level text. A level 1 or 2 indicates that the child struggles to read grade level text with the appropriate word reading skills, accuracy, and fluency. In 2016, 33.5% of students at the school scored at a level 4 or 5 on the end of grade reading tests; 11% scored at a level 3; 55.5% scored at a level 1 or 2. On average, class sizes at this school were greater than those in the district or state (23 compared to 20 at the district and 19 at the state level).

During the study, Active Reading instruction took place in the general education classrooms. The professional development took place in teachers' classrooms. The coaching took place at the school in the teachers' classroom.

Teacher Participants

Four first grade classrooms were identified for the study by the school administration and were identified for one of four conditions (Table 3.2) by school administration. One condition was a control condition; students in this group were taught reading by the teacher who also lead Condition 2, however the teacher was instructed not to replicate the Active Reading instruction with students in Condition 1. The teacher in Condition 2 was provided with texts and materials to implement Active Reading and told to implement the instruction as if she had been given the curriculum or as if she had found it on the Internet. The teacher in Condition 3 was provided with a 90-minute

professional development in the purpose and practices of Active Reading. The teacher in Condition 4 was provided with a 90-minute professional development and five coaching sessions that used supervisory coaching (Kretlow & Bartholemew, 2010) to provide feedback and suggestions for improvement. In identifying teachers for each condition an attempt was made to collaborate with the school to simulate how the school would assign supports (Van Keer & Verhaege, 2005). The aim of this type of sampling was to create conditions with participants who would be most likely to engage in each of three experimental conditions, as in typical case sampling (Patton, 2002). The teacher identified for Conditions 1 and 2 was identified because of her strong teaching capacity and schedule. The teacher identified for PD and coaching (Condition 4) was identified because the school administrator indicated that she was a good candidate for coaching. Table 3.2.

Conditions

Control	Materials	Professional	PD + Coaching
(Condition 1)	(Condition 2)	Development	(Condition 4)
		(Condition 3)	
Business as	Active Reading	Active Reading	Active Reading
usual (no use of	handbook, texts,	handbook, texts, and	handbook, texts, and
Active	and lesson plans	lesson plans	lesson plans
Reading)			
		90-minute	90-minute
		professional	professional
		development	development
		•	Ongoing observations
			and coaching
			_

The teachers identified to participate in the study were provided with an overview of the study and the opportunity to sign a consent form before beginning. All teachers consented. The English language arts teachers differed in the number of years teaching

experience, with the teacher who received professional development and coaching (Condition 4) with the greatest number of years teaching. They also differed slightly in age. They were similar in their ethnicity, education background, and expertise in reading as indicated by additional training or an endorsement in reading (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3. *Teacher Participants*

	Conditions 1 and 2	Condition 3	Condition 4
	Control and	Professional	Professional Development
	Materials	Development	+ Coaching
Number of	6	7	23
years teaching			
Age	34	53	49
Ethnicity	White	White	White
Highest level of	Bachelor's	Bachelor's	Bachelor's
education			
Reading	N	N	N
Endorsement			
Expertise in	N	N	N
reading			

^a Additional expertise in reading as identified by attending additional courses in reading instruction beyond university coursework.

Student Participants

All parents/guardians of the students enrolled in the participating teachers' first grade classrooms were notified of the study and were provided with the option to consent to their child's participation in the assessments related to the study and video taping of lessons. All students in the participating teachers' classrooms in the treatment conditions participated in instruction since reading instruction is a typical part of their instructional day. In order to be included in the analysis, students met the following criteria: (a) had strong attendance such that they missed no more than 20% of school days during the intervention window (no more than six days during the 33-day intervention period); (b)

returned the parental consent form; and (c) were a student in one of the consenting teachers' classrooms for the duration of the intervention. There was a greater percent of African American students in Condition 2, and a greater percent of Hispanic students in Conditions 3 and 4 (the dual language classrooms; Table 3.4). Students who were English language learners were only included in Conditions 3 and 4 (the dual language classrooms).

Table 3.4.

Classroom Demographics

	Condition 1	Condition 2	Condition 3	Condition 4	TOTAL
Number of	16	12	13	15	56
Students					
Mean Age ^a	6 years 5	6 years 9	6 years 9	6 years 8.5	6 years 8
	months	months	months	months	months
% of					
Students					
who were					
Male	38% (6)	42% (5)	54% (7)	47% (7)	44% (25)
Female	63% (10)	58% (7)	46% (6)	53% (8)	55% (31)
% of	,		,		· /
Students					
who were					
White	56% (9)	42% (5)	31% (4)	33% (5)	41% (23)
African	25% (4)	42% (5)	23% (3)	27% (4)	29% (16)
American	()	()	()	()	,
Hispanic	6% (1)	17% (2)	46% (6)	33% (5)	25% (14)
Asian	6% (1)	0	0	0	2% (1)
Other	6% (1)	0	0	7% (1)	4% (2)
English	0	0	31% (4)	20% (3)	12.5% (7)
Language			()	()	
Learners					

^a Mean age calculated at the culmination of the study.

In each classroom, students at risk (SAR) for reading difficulties were identified. Students at risk were identified using the GRADE Vocabulary composite (vocabulary word meaning and word reading). Students who scored in the bottom 33rd percentile of

norm referenced scores at pre-test were identified as "at risk." At risk status was used as an independent covariate in analyses investigating the effect of risk on outcomes. Students were included in this portion of the analysis if they met the following inclusion criteria: (a) they were identified in the bottom 33rd percentile according to pretest GRADE vocabulary composite scores, (b) they have returned the parent consent form, and (c) they had strong attendance such that they missed no more than 20% of school days during the study.

Table 3.5.

Demographics of Students at Risk

	Condition 1	Condition 2	Condition 3	Condition 4	TOTAL
Number of Students	7 (43%)	5 (42%)	5 (38%)	7 (47%)	24 (43%)
(%) Mean Age ^a	7 years 1 month	6 years 10 months	6 years 5 months	6 years 8 months	6 years 9 months
Students who are:					
Male	43% (3)	40% (2)	60% (3)	43% (3)	46% (11)
Female	57% (4)	60% (3)	40% (2)	57% (4)	54% (13)
Students	()		· /	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	,
who are:	570/ (4)	0	4007 (2)	420/ (2)	200/ (0)
White	57% (4)	0	40% (2)	43% (3)	38% (9)
African	29% (2)	60% (3)	20% (1)	29% (2)	29% (7)
American					
Hispanic	0	40% (2)	40% (2)	29% (2)	25% (6)
Asian	14% (1)	0	0	0	4% (1)
English	0	0	40% (2)	14% (1)	12.5% (3)
Language			()	()	()
Learners					
	1 1 4 1 4 41	1 ' ' ' C.1	, 1		

^a Mean age calculated at the culmination of the study.

Classroom Setting

The elementary school contained multiple first grade classrooms with various configurations (e.g., K-1 combination classrooms). The four classrooms identified for the

study included two that were dual language programs and two that were not. In the two dual language classrooms (Conditions 3 and 4), students participated in an alternating schedule that involved one full instructional day in English followed by one instructional day in Spanish. The dual language classrooms used a two-way immersion (TWI) model that provided all students enrolled with instruction in education in English and Spanish. The TWI model has proven effective as a model in early elementary settings, namely preschool (Barnett et al., 2007). In these classrooms, the intervention was delivered in English three to four days per week by either the teacher (when she had them in her class for the reading block) or the researchers (when the students were in the Spanish language classroom for the day).

In the classrooms that were not dual language ("standard classroom"), two classrooms of students received reading instruction from one teacher who specialized in English Language Arts. The teacher leading the control and materials condition (Conditions 1 and 2) was the ELA teacher for the students in the standard classrooms.

In the English language arts instruction in both the DLL and standard classrooms, the reading block consisted of a combination of guided reading, independent reading, and technology-assisted reading instruction (e.g., i-Ready reading practice, Reading A to Z practice). Teacher-delivered Active Reading lessons took place from 12 to 12:30 each day in a block of time between lunch and the students' "specials" (i.e., gym, art). If the teachers had not been doing Active Reading, they would have been providing writing, social studies, or science instruction during that time. Researcher-delivered lessons were provided in the Spanish language classrooms from 8:00-8:30 AM for Condition 4 and 12-

12:30 for Condition 3. For students in Condition 4, this took the place of morning meeting time.

The students in Condition 1 (control condition) were in their math and science classroom during the Active Reading time period. According to the teacher, during this time, students in Condition 1 experienced a read aloud chapter book (Horrible Harry) as well as writing and social studies instruction. They did not receive any Active Reading lessons in their English language arts classroom during the seven-week instructional period.

Researchers

The first researcher was a former special educator with 10 years of experience in elementary schools as a teacher, school, and district-level instructional coach. The primary researcher was certified in Special Education, General Curriculum in North Carolina. At the time of the study, the researcher was pursuing a doctoral degree in special education. The researcher served as the trainer for the professional development conditions, and the coach for the coaching condition. The researcher also conducted all assessments, observations, and interviews.

The researcher was assisted by a doctoral student in special education (the second researcher). The doctoral student supported by providing assistance with implementation, observation, and assessment interrater reliability.

Procedure

The instructional procedure involved read aloud lessons using scripted Active Reading lesson plans and storybooks. The lessons were delivered in a whole group setting during 20-30 minute time slots.

Materials

Materials for the study included the researcher-created Active Reading handbook and Active Reading lessons (Appendix B), as well as seven high quality picture books. The teachers in Conditions 2, 3 and 4 received the handbook, lessons, and picture books at the start of the study.

Active Reading handbook. The Active Reading handbook was provided to teachers in the materials, professional development, and coaching conditions (Appendix B). The handbook provided an overview of Active Reading as well as scripted lessons for four repeated readings of each book (Appendix B).

Active Reading books. Each teacher was provided with seven picture books to be used during the study (Table 3.6). The books were chosen based on (a) recognized high-quality books (e.g., Caldecott winner *Officer Buckle and Gloria* by Peggy Rathman), (b) a combination of detailed illustrations, rich vocabulary, and strong story (e.g., *Beekle: The Unimaginary Friend* by Dan Santat), and (c) established early read aloud texts (e.g., *Ferdinand the Bull* by Munro Leaf and *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day* by Judith Viorst).

Table 3.6.

Storybooks selected for Active Reading

Week	Storybook	Author	Language	Publication Date
1	Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day	Judith Viorst	English	July 15, 1987
2	The Story of Ferdinand	Munro Leaf	English	March 31, 2011
3	Stand Tall Molly Lou Melon	Patty Lovell	English	August 27, 2001
4	The Adventures of Beekle	Dan Santat	English	April 8, 2014
5	Officer Buckle and Gloria	Peggy Rathman	English	September 28, 1995
6	Wolfie the Bunny	Ame Dyckman	English	February 17, 2015
7	Last Stop on Market Street	Matt De la Pena	English	January 8, 2015

Active Reading Lessons

The Active Reading lessons were completed over the course of eight calendar weeks in the fall of 2017. During one week Active Reading lessons were not implemented because of the limited school schedule due to the Thanksgiving holiday. One lesson was completed each week. Each lesson consisted of a picture book being read three to four times across four days (once each day). During two weeks, because of the school schedule, the lessons were truncated to provide reading three times across three days. In Condition 2, the final book was read three times instead of four due to a classroom conflict. This resulted in completion of 25 lessons for Condition 2 and 26 lessons for Conditions 3 and 4.

The lessons incorporated rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010), and questioning that built from story comprehension questions to critical thinking discussion

questions (e.g., interactive shared reading [Baker et al., 2013]). Active Reading lessons also provided questions that encouraged students to make connections between the text and their own lives and experiences. These components served to reinforce the ABCs of Active Reading: Ask Questions, Build Vocabulary, and make Connections.

Ask Questions. Interactive shared reading addressed reading comprehension through incorporating of strategies identified by the NRP (2000) that improve comprehension (Table 3.7). As in the study by Baker et al. (2013), during repeated readings of text, teachers modeled sentence-level inferencing and summarizing using a graphic organizer (Appendix B). Students were asked questions and teachers modeled how to respond, then provided students with time to collaboratively respond to questions through a pair-share procedure (Turn and Talk). Students were also encouraged to generate questions. Questions were scaffolded across lessons to increase in complexity from basic comprehension and higher order thinking questions.

Table 3.7

Evidence-based components

Component	Explanation and Application to Active Reading
Comprehension	Teachers explain and model understanding while reading.
monitoring ^a	Teachers pause and address specific words in text when
	appropriate, make inferences, refer back to previous text,
	and summarize.
Cooperative learning ^a	Students are taught how to use pair-share to retell stories
	and answer questions.
Graphic and semantic	Students are taught to use a four-column graphic organizer
organizers ^a	to support summarization after the reading of each text.
Story structure ^b	Students are taught the difference between text genres and
	how text genre can be used to support comprehension.
Question answering ^a	Teachers asked strategically scaffolded questions
_	throughout the question. Teachers model how to use the text
	to answer questions. Teachers provide questions that
	advance in difficulty across multiple readings.
Question generation ^a	Teachers teach basic questions that students can ask while
	reading to predict before and during reading.
Summarization ^a	Students are taught a systematic process for retelling and
	summarizing narrative text.

^aDenotes components that are incorporated into Active Reading

Reading 1. During the first reading, teachers asked questions focused on the story characters and setting. During this reading, teachers asked questions that focused on the literal meaning of the text. For example, in Reading 1 Week 5, *Officer Buckle and Gloria* (Rathman, 1995), the teachers asked: What does it mean that the students roared? What might happen? What do you think the best safety tip is?

Reading 2. During the second reading, the focus was on asking questions that helped students summarize what happened in the beginning, middle, and end of the story. Teachers either talked students through a summarization or recorded it on chart paper that mirrored the format of the graphic organizer provided. Questions during Reading 2

^bComponent was not included because genre is not a significant aspect of the intervention.

^cNRP, 2000

focused on what was happening in the plot and to the characters. For example, during the second reading of *Wolfie the Bunny* (Dyckman, 2015), the teacher in Condition 4 led students through the following summarization:

Teacher: Okay, so at the beginning we have Wolfie. We're going to get our beginning started (takes out paper to write on). What happened?

Student: Wolfie was left at the doorstep.

Student: They came home

Teacher: We don't want to say everything, so we might say, who came home?

Student: The bunny family

Teacher: So we can say Mama and Papa and who?

Student: Dot

Student: And Dot found Wolfie.

Teacher: What happened then? The very first night, what happened?

Student: Dot watched Wolfie.

Teacher: So Dot watched Wolfie all night. So we have our beginning, let's keep reading and see what happened next.....Then what happened in the middle of the story?

Student: Wolfie grew up.

Teacher:...Remember, this is the middle, this is a lot of your meat (referring to hamburger summary). Wolfie grew up and then what happened?

Student: They went to the carrot patch store.

Teacher: And what happened? Who went?

Student: Wolfie and Dot

Student: The bear wanted to eat Wolfie.

Teacher: Okay, we'll say, they met a bear. He tried to eat Wolfie. (Transcribes)

Then what happened?

Student: Dot came forward.

Student: How did my story end?

Student: She said that she was going to eat him.

Teacher: What happened at the end of the story.

Student: Dot rescued Wolfie.

Teacher: I like how you used the word rescued. You could say saved, from who?

Student: The bear.

Teacher: And then what happened? Think about Dot and Wolfie. What happened at the end?

Student: They hug.

Teacher: You're telling me what they are doing. What happened to their relationship?

Student: They made a friend together.

Teacher: They became what?

Student: Closer

Teacher: We can say, they became closer. (Transcribes).

Reading 3. In the third reading, teachers asked questions about how the character felt at the beginning, middle, and end to encourage sentence-level inferencing. Questions in reading 3 focused on making inferences about how the characters felt based on what they did and said. In Reading 3, Condition 4, *Last Stop on Market Street* (de la Pena, 2016):

Teacher: How did CJ feel coming out of the church?

Student: Happy

Teacher: Okay, does someone else have a word?

Student: Sad

Teacher: I need you to look back at the illustration, look at his feet, his hands,

does he look sad? Look at the illustration and listen to me read it (reads text).

Student: Excited.

Teacher: Excited and happy, they mean the same thing, those are good words.

When we describe feelings we always say because, so CJ felt excited because.

Student: Because he is feeling the air.

Teacher: That he's outside, so we can look back in that sentence and think how do we know that he's excited. What words do they use?

Student: He opened the door wide, and started skipping down the stairs.

Teacher: Yes, we normally, he pushed through the doors and skipped down the stairs. That shows that he's excited.

Reading 4. In the fourth reading, teachers asked questions that addressed what students could connect to or learn from the book. Students concluded the reading with a discussion of what they could learn from the story. For example, in Condition 2 while reading *Stand Tall, Molly Lou Melon* (Lovell, 2001):

Teacher: Was there a lesson?

Student: Yes, there was because she learned how to stand tall and think strong and she learned how to believe in herself.

Teacher: That was a great explanation.

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Student: If there is a bully, to show him the right way to be.

Teacher: That was a great lesson, if a bully is mean to you, show him the right

way to behave, didn't that change Ronald?

Make Connections. Teachers encouraged students to make connections to their

own life through questions such as, from *The Adventures of Beekle: The Unimaginary*

Friend (Santat, 2014): Think about a time when you made a friend. What was it like?

What do you think about when you are scared that helps you continue on? Teachers also

encouraged students to make connections from the beginning of the story to the end with

questions like: How did Beekle feel leaving the park? How was this different than how he

felt when he entered the park?

Concluding Reading. In Active Reading lesson plans, teachers were provided with

prompts to support summarization and a culminating discussion. This included a question

prompt and a graphic organizer.

Teachers implemented this aspect of Active Reading differently. For example,

during Reading 3 of Officer Buckle and Gloria (Rathman, 1995) in Condition 3, after

talking students through what had happened in the story and how the character felt, the

teacher asked a series of questions about feelings that students responded to chorally:

Teacher: Have you ever felt like this?

Students: Yes

Teacher: Yes, sometimes? Can you think about a time when you felt proud of

yourself?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: How do you look when you feel proud of yourself? Oh, I like the way you did that. You sat up nice and straight. Have you ever felt sad or disappointed?

Students: Yeah.

Student: I felt miserable.

Teacher: Miserable, that's a terrible feeling. Have you ever just felt happy? What about sad? What would ecstatic look like? What about shocked?

Students act out shocked.

Teacher: Some of you guys look a little scared instead of shocked. Did you guys like this book?

Students: Yes.

In comparison, the teacher in Condition 4 identified improving student summaries as a focus for coaching, so she incorporated five-finger summarization into the final weeks of the intervention. For example, in Reading 3 of Last Stop on Market Street (de la Pena, 2016), the teacher modeled a five-finger summary:

Teacher: So quickly, put up your finger, name your character. (points to thumb)

Students: (Choral response) CJ and Nana.

Teacher: (points to pointer finger) Second, setting.

Students: (choral response) bus, soup kitchen.

Teacher: (points to middle finger) Beginning, CJ got on the.

Students: (choral response) bus and he wasn't happy.

Teacher: (points to ring finger) In the middle, he gets to meet different people on the bus. He met a what?

Students: (Choral response) blind man.

Teacher: And he met a man with a guitar and how did that make him feel?

Students: (choral response) happy.

Teacher: What happened at the end? (points to pinkie finger)

Student: He was helping.

Teacher: He was helping at the...

Students: (choral response) soup kitchen.

Teacher: That summed up our story and how CJ felt throughout the story, from the beginning, middle and end. Do characters feelings change or stay the same?

Students: (choral response) change.

Professional Development Procedures

Teachers in two conditions (Conditions 3 and 4) received support to implement Active Reading.

Professional development. Teachers in Conditions 3 and 4 participated in a two-session professional development held during two planning periods in October 2017 for a total of 90 minutes. During the professional development, the research behind read aloud in the primary grades was explained, including the primary outcomes of read aloud (language, vocabulary, and comprehension; Appendix C). The model for Active Reading was shared and discussed. The ABCs of Active Reading (Ask questions, Build vocabulary, and Connect to the child's world) was discussed. Finally, the procedures related to teaching vocabulary (rich vocabulary instruction) and comprehension (interactive shared reading) were reviewed within the context of the lessons provided.

Before the professional development, teachers were given a five question assessment (Appendix C). At pre-test, the teacher in the Condition 3 answered 0

questions correctly. The teacher in the Condition 4 answered 1 question correctly. After the professional development, the teacher in the Condition 3 answered 3 questions correctly. The teacher in Condition 4 answered 3 questions correctly.

Coaching. Coaching provided to the teacher in Condition 4 incorporated best practices from previous research. These critical components include aspects that were prevalent in all studies identified in the review of studies that examined coaching as an independent variable by Kretlow and Bartholomew (2010): (a) high-quality group training, (b) five total observations, and (c) specific feedback that incorporated the use of fidelity data and self-reflection provided during the teacher's planning period the day of the observation.

Coaching consisted of five observations and follow up meetings, totaling 71% of weeks (Table 3.8). Coaching feedback was provided using the fidelity observation form. The protocol for feedback involved (a) asking the teacher what she noticed in the lesson and what she thought students were gaining or learning, (b) providing specific strengths and an area of focus, and (c) talking about a way to address the area of focus in subsequent lessons. As the coaching sessions progressed, time was spent talking about how changes that were made were being implemented and the outcomes that the teacher was seeing.

One unique aspect of this instruction was that the teacher in Condition 4 and the researcher were both involved in delivering the intervention (the teacher and the researcher alternated instruction days because of the dual language class schedule).

Because of this, the researcher also implemented changes that were discussed and agreed on in the coaching sessions.

Table 3.8.

Coaching Overview

Coaching Session	Strength Provided	Constructive Feedback Provided	Next Step Agreed On	Observed Change
1	Teacher did a great job expanding on student statements and helping students reach the right answer without "telling them." Teacher did a nice job calling on all students.	Provide explicit vocabulary instruction. How to incorporate Turn and Talk with a focus on struggling readers.	Provide Turn and Talks consistently in lessons. Provide Turn and Talk pairs that are heterogeneous by student level.	Turn and Talk was consistently implemented.
2	Teacher did a good job of enforcing a clear Turn and Talk procedure that engaged all students. Teacher did a nice job of circling back to students who contributed. Teacher did a nice job of supporting student predictions.	Talked about how to increase whole group discussion.	During the introduction to the lesson, encourage whole group discussion that involves students listening to and adding to each other's contributions.	Teacher attempted to encourage active listening in students.
3	Teacher asked a lot of questions.	Talked about how to help students generalize what they learned in the read aloud to other reading contexts.	Teacher would think about how students could incorporate skills learned in read aloud to other contexts.	Later, teacher identified that this was difficult given student reading levels.
4	Teacher did a nice job correcting student misunderstandings. Teacher did a nice job using the illustrations to	There were a lot of Turn and Talks; however, for at least one, students were not ready to talk about the question, so it	Use Turn and Talk to reinforce summarization. Focus on building students' ability to summarize.	Teacher uses Turn and Talk to reinforce summarization.

	support student understanding.	was not productive. Talked about ways to use Turn and Talk to support the core skill of summarization.		
5	The focus of the lesson was on creating a summary. Students were able to provide summary of short sections of the text (beginning, middle, and end).	Students may benefit from more modeling of how to summarize. Talked about how to adjust the lesson to provide time for summarizing.	Reduce questions to increase time for modeling and practice with summarization.	Teacher engaged students in five finger summary.

Experimental Design and Assessment

The experimental design was a sequential explanatory mixed-methods quasiexperimental, pretest/posttest design. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected before and after the intervention to provide information about the effects of the intervention.

Dependent Variables and Measurement

There were four student dependent variables: researcher created vocabulary, and standardized norm-referenced word reading and meaning (general vocabulary), sentence level comprehension, and listening comprehension subtests (Table 3.9).

Table 3.9. *Quantitative Assessments*

Dependent	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Reading	Listening
Variable	(Taught)	(Transfer)	Comprehension	Comprehension
Assessment	Word List	GRADE	GRADE	GRADE
		Vocabulary sub-test	Sentence comprehension subtest	Listening comprehension subtest
Standardized or Researcher Created	Researcher Created	Standardized	Standardized	Standardized

GRADE Assessment. The Group Reading Assessment and Diagnostic Evaluation (GRADE) is a group-administered, norm-referenced measure of reading. The GRADE has been assessed for internal reliability (mean = 0.96, range 0.91-0.99) with children age 4-18 (American Institutes of Research, 2017). The GRADE has also been assessed for validity; criterion validity for students in grades 1 through 6 ranged from 0.69 to 0.9 (median = 0.83), predictive validity for students in grades 2, 4, and 6 ranged from 0.76 to 086 (median = 0.77; AIR, 2017). Form A was used at pretest and Form B was used at posttest.

General Vocabulary. The GRADE vocabulary measure consists of word reading and word meaning tests. The word reading test requires students to listen to words read aloud and mark the corresponding word. The word meaning test requires students to read a word and identify the picture that corresponds to that word. Standardized scores, a normalized transformation of raw scores into normal curve equivalents, were used to analyze the data.

Listening Comprehension. The listening comprehension GRADE assessment requires students to listen to sentences read aloud and then mark the corresponding picture from four choices.

Sentence Comprehension. The sentence comprehension assessment requires students to independently read a sentence and identify the missing word from four to five choices.

Researcher Created Vocabulary Assessment. Students' vocabulary development was assessed using a researcher-created assessment of 21 words (three from each text) that addressed words taught through the Active Reading instruction (Appendix D). The word list included 14 words that were explicitly taught and seven words that were not explicitly taught. This was to gauge the impact of explicit vocabulary instruction on student word learning compared to incidental word learning (Maynard et al., 2010). During the assessment, students were asked yes or no questions about each word (e.g., Does smitten mean to be in love with?) and were asked to respond to each statement by marking yes or no for their answer.

Inter-Rater Reliability

Pre-Assessment. Fifty-seven students were administered the GRADE and researcher created assessments in October 2017. Of those, assessments for 26 students (46%) were double scored for inter-rater reliability. A total of five assessments per student were double scored, totaling 130 individual assessments. Assessments for seven students (27% of double scored) were found to have discrepancies (seven out of 130 assessments scored or 5%), and 100% were remedied.

Post-Assessment. Fifty-six students were administered the GRADE and researcher created assessments in December 2017. Of those, assessments for 22 students (39%) were double scored for inter-rater reliability. A total of five assessments per student were double scored, totaling 110 individual assessments. Assessments for eight students (36% of double scored) were found to have discrepancies (eight out of 110 assessments or 7%) and 100% were remedied.

Fidelity Observations

A total of 20 Active Reading lessons were observed out of 76 that were administered across the three conditions, resulting in 26% of lessons observed. Three researcher-delivered lessons were observed for fidelity.

The fidelity observation record included space to record the core elements of Active Reading lessons including book introduction, asking questions, teaching vocabulary, engaging students in discussion, concluding and summarizing, and reading with fluency and prosody (Appendix F).

The purpose for collecting fidelity data was to provide an understanding of how Active Reading was typically implemented across the three treatment conditions. Fidelity was calculated by dividing the number of implemented components of the Active Reading lesson by the total number of lesson components to calculate a percentage (Appendix F). For researcher-implemented lessons, the goal was to achieve a score of 85% or higher across sessions.

Qualitative Measurement

In addition to the measurement of the dependent variables, qualitative data served to provide an understanding of (a) how teachers' read aloud practices change across

levels of training in Active Reading, and (b) teachers' perceptions of the Active Reading approach as it pertains to their use of the materials, read aloud sessions, and student growth. The following measures were used: (a) fidelity observations of Active Reading sessions, and (b) semi-structured interviews with teachers.

Teacher Interviews. Qualitative interviews were conducted to, as Patton (2002) wrote: "capture how those being interviewed view their world, to learn *their* terminology and judgements, and to capture the complexities of *their* individual perceptions and experiences" (p. 348). In order to collect information related to how teachers in the study experienced Active Reading, standardized open-ended interviews were conducted.

During standardized open-ended interviews, an established set of questions were asked to each participant. The list of questions was presented in the same order to each participant (Appendix E). The strengths of this approach included the ability to compare responses across participants and provided ease in organizing the data (Patton, 2002). Weaknesses of this approach included lack of flexibility in questioning, which may limit the relevance of responses.

Interviews were conducted with teachers during weeks 0 and 1 and after the intervention (week 8). Half of the interviews (one from each participant) were second coded by the second researcher with an acceptable discrepancy agreement of 90-100%.

Data Analysis

Three approaches to data analysis will be used to address each of the research questions: quantitative analysis (RQ1), descriptive and quantitative analysis (RQ2), and qualitative analysis (RQ3).

Quantitative Analysis

An Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to answer both components of Research Question 1: What is the effect of short-term, specific, and targeted teacher training in an Active Reading program have on the reading and language outcomes of first grade students across various classroom settings? And, what is the effect of short-term, specific, and targeted training in Active Reading on the reading and language outcomes of first grade students who are at risk for reading failure?

An ANCOVA is used to make inferences about situations that involve factors that are between and within subjects. The ANCOVA is used for studies regardless of the number of factors involved or the relationship between or within factors (Huck, 2012). This test allows researchers to determine whether or not population means for a dependent variable are the same across a factor (independent variable) adjusting for the differences in a covariate (Huck, 2012).

In this study, random assignment was not used, so group equivalence cannot be assumed. In a case that involves two measures taken at two points in time to gauge the effect of a treatment, a pre-existing condition, or something else, a t-test on the changes in scores or analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) controlling for pre-test is used (Wright, 2006). In this case, the goal was to compare if there are differences between effects, not in the specific amount of improvement, so the ANCOVA was the most appropriate test (Wright, 2006).

For each quantitative assessment that was administered, the pretest scores of students in each condition were tested for group equivalency using a one-way ANOVA. In a one-way ANOVA the null hypotheses states that the population means are equal.

The alternative hypotheses states that there is at least one mean is significantly different from the others. A nonsignificant p-value indicates group equivalency, or the lack of difference across groups at pre-test. This test establishes the starting point for further analyses and addresses the threat to internal validity of selection, or the concern that the groups would differ significantly which would have an impact on the results.

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_{3 \neq} \mu_4$$

The following assumptions must be met in order to run an ANOVA: (a) a continuous dependent variable, (b) a categorical independent variable, (c) cases that have values in both the dependent and independent variable, (d) groups that are independent of one another, (e) random sampling from the population, (f) approximate normal distribution of the dependent variable for each group, (g) homogeneity of variance or an equal variance across groups, and (h) no outliers. In addition, the following rules are often held for one-way ANOVAS: (a) group of six or more, and (b) a balanced design.

For an ANCOVA the same assumptions that are required for ANOVAs hold in addition to (a) a linear relationship between each dependent variable and covariate, (b) homogeneity of regression slopes, and (c) a covariate that is independent of treatment effects. These assumptions were met.

Using the students' scores at pre-test as the covariate, ANCOVAs were run for each of the assessments administered. The null hypothesis for an ANCOVA states that there is no difference between the means of the various conditions. The alternative hypothesis states that there is a difference between at least two of the means.

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4$$

 $H_1: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 \neq \mu_4$

To address each part of Research Question 1, ANCOVAs were run with two factors, Condition and risk status. The Condition factor had four levels (Conditions 1, 2, 3, or 4). The at risk status factor had two levels (at risk and not at risk). Pretest scores were used as the covariate because they were assumed to have a linear relationship with the dependent variable and to be unaffected by other independent variables. The results of the ANCOVA provided information about the interaction effect and main effect. An interaction effect occurs when the effect of one outcome depends on the value of the other. A main effect is the effect of one independent variable on a dependent variable without considering other independent variables.

For this analysis, the alpha level for significance was set at p < .05. From this, we determine there is strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis when p < .05. Put another way, when p < .05, we have strong confidence that any effect was the result of the interaction or effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, not due to chance or another factor. When there was a significant result, the Bonferroni post hoc adjustment was used to compute post hoc pairwise comparison on significant differences. The Bonferroni post hoc adjustment was used to lower the possibility that the null hypothesis can be rejected; when testing multiple hypotheses, there is an increased likelihood of obtaining a statistically significant result. The Bonferroni correction adjusts for this. Hedge's g was used to determine the effect size because of the small number in the study and the unequal number of participants in each group across the four conditions.

Analysis of Implementation

A combination of descriptive statistics, observational data, and a one-way ANOVA will be used to address Research Question 2: What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on teacher fidelity of implementation?

Active Reading implementation in Conditions 2, 3, and 4 was tracked using a fidelity checklist of key elements that mirrored the lesson plans (Appendix F). The key elements included: introducing the book using rich vocabulary instruction, setting a purpose, and activating students' background knowledge. It also incorporated asking questions and building vocabulary with recordings of how many questions were asked, as well as the incorporation of at least one open-ended question an opportunity for students to discuss. Discussion was defined as when multiple students answered the same question with an opportunity for students to listen to and contribute to one another's ideas. Building vocabulary was gauged by whether teachers followed the rich vocabulary instruction procedure for each key word during book reading. This involved (a) stopping and identifying the vocabulary word, (b) having students repeat the word and definition, and (c) asking a question about the word as used in the story. After reading, the following concluding reading aspects were recorded: completing the graphic organizer, modeling summarizing, engaging students in a culminating discussion, and restating the big idea for the day. Also incorporated was how teachers engaged students in turn and talk or whole group discussion and how they modeled fluent, prosodic reading. Finally, data were collected around the number of opportunities that students were provided to respond (the number of choral responses, turn and talk, individual student responses, and whole class discussion opportunities).

Each of the core elements of Active Reading was analyzed using descriptive statistics and observational data. This was to provide an overview of what happened during Active Reading in each Condition. To gauge four key elements of Active Reading: time spent reading, opportunities to respond, total fidelity (percent), and rich vocabulary instruction (build vocabulary) were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA.

A one-way ANOVA is used to make inferences about multiple means, determining whether or not the means of each group are equivalent to each other (Huck, 2012). In this study, the one-way ANOVA was used to compare the mean minutes spent reading, number of opportunities that students had to respond, recorded fidelity percent across all sessions observed, and score of vocabulary aspects recorded. For significant results, a Tukey post hoc test was determined to be the logical next step because the homogeneity of variances assumption was met.

Qualitative Analysis

Teacher interviews were conducted to answer Research Question 3: What are teachers' perceptions of Active Reading related to implementation of read aloud and student outcomes? How do teachers perceive the usability, feasibility, and trustworthiness of Active Reading as a research-based practice?

The goal of this question was to better understand how teachers perceive the implementation of read aloud research based practices within the three limitations identified by Carnine (1997): accessibility, feasibility, and trustworthiness. This is important, first, because of an established research-to-practice gap in special education

(Burns & Ysseldyke, 2009), and because students who are at risk for reading failure because of disability are most often served in general education classrooms (NCES, 2017a). Understanding how teachers perceive key elements of accessibility, usability, and trustworthiness related to implementing strong teaching practices can inform how school leaders approach the implementation of new and established practices and how researchers approach future school-based research.

The intent of the qualitative analysis is to conduct an in-depth inductive analysis of interviews in order to understand how teachers understand and interpret their experience. To that end, a conventional content analysis approach was used to analyze the data from teacher interviews (Figure 3.1; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

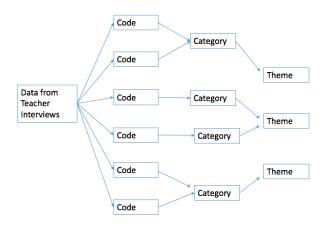


Figure 3.1. Qualitative Analysis

Once the data were collected, codes were created to capture, as Saldaña (2016) wrote, "a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute" for phrases and sentences in the teacher interview data (p. 4). During the process of coding, a code book was established to maintain organization and consistency (Saldaña, 2016). Then, the data were imported into NVivo software and was coded electronically. Analytic memos

were maintained throughout the coding process to capture process and decisions made (Saldaña, 2016).

Collaborative coding, or the process of two or more people coding the same data, casts a "wider analytic net" and provides a "reality check" for each other (Saldaña, 2016, p. 37). For this purpose, and to ensure the validity of the coding done by the primary researcher, 50% of data (one interview from each teacher participant) were coded by both researchers for the purpose of Intercoder Agreement. The acceptable outcome for intercoder agreement was 80-90% agreement across all three interviews that were second coded.

During intercoder agreement, the second researcher reviewed the codebook and for each printed and highlighted interview, read each highlighted or coded section, then reviewed the codebook and decided where to code it. If a suggested section was not included in the codebook, the second researcher indicated that as well. Finally, the researchers went through each interview to determine the initial intercoder agreement (total agreement/total coded segments) and resolve any discrepancies. Of the codes that were second coded (Table 3.10), 57 sections were identified, seven codes were discrepancies (13% of the total). Of the discrepancies, 100% were resolved by recoding, creating new codes, or subsuming two nodes into one.

Table 3.10.

Intercoder Agreement

Interview	Total Codes Reviewed	Agreement	Number of Discrepancies Resolved (%)
1: Pre-Interview (Condition 3)	16	13 (81%)	3 (100%)
2: Post interview (Condition 4)	17	16 (94%)	1 (100%)
3: Post interview (Condition 2)	20	17 (85%)	3 (100%)
TOTAL	53	46 (87%)	7 (100%)

Once the data were coded at the phrase and sentence level into individual codes, the codes were subsumed into themes. If all three of the teachers mentioned a similar code, then this commonality was established as a theme (Harding, 2013).

A codebook was created with options that aligned with the interview questions. Space was provided for responses to address both read aloud in general, and Active Reading in particular. The nature of the structured interview provided some implicit structure for coding of teacher comments, meaning that interview questions were targeted to address specific aspects of the codebook. However, words, phrases, and statements were coded according to how they aligned with the codebook. Then, the codes were reviewed and subsumed into categories and, finally, into themes. For example, if a teacher responded to a question about the expected outcomes from read aloud instruction with a comment about building students' vocabulary, the phrase would be coded under the category of "outcomes." If both other teachers also mentioned vocabulary as an outcome, then vocabulary would be identified as a theme related to outcomes.

Social Validity

When investigating an intervention that will take place in a school setting, it is important to consider the usability and acceptability of the intervention (Briesch, Chafouleas, Neugebauer, & Riley-Tillman, 2012). Usability refers to the teacher's motivation and ability to implement the intervention within the classroom context.

Acceptability refers to the teacher's understanding of the intervention as something that is beneficial, fair, and appropriate (Briesch et al., 2012).

Social validity data was collected at the conclusion of the study to gauge how much teachers' perception of Active Reading as a usable and acceptable practice. The goal was to ascertain whether teachers would use Active Reading as part of their typical classroom work. A social validity survey was created using the Usage Rating Profile-Intervention (URP-I; Chafouleas, Briesch, Riley-Tillman, & McCoach, 2009). The URP-I was designed to understand factors that make an intervention one that teachers would adopt and use in their classrooms (Breisch et al., 2012). Items from the URP-I were selected and used to gauge social validity (Appendix G).

Four questions were asked to gauge teachers' enthusiasm regarding the practice (Table 3.11). Teachers responded on a Likert scale of 1-6 with 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 6 representing Strongly Agree. There was some discrepancy across teachers, but on the whole, teachers indicated enthusiasm towards the practice of Active Reading.

Table 3.11.

Social Validity: Enthusiasm

Question	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Average
Active Reading easily fits with my current reading practices.	5	6	2	4.3
I have positive attitudes about implementing Active Reading in the future.	5	6	4	5
In the future, I would be resistant to implementing Active Reading	2	1	4	2.3
In the future, I would implement Active Reading with enthusiasm	5	6	2	4.3

Four questions were asked to gauge teachers' understanding of the practice (Table 3.12). Teachers responded on a Likert scale of 1-6 with 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 6 representing Strongly Agree. Teachers indicated a high level of understanding of Active Reading, ability to explain it, and plan their own lesson.

Table 3.12.

Social Validity: Understanding

Question	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Average
I understand the procedures of Active Reading	5	6	5	5.3
I could explain Active Reading to a peer	5	4	5	4.6
I am knowledgeable about Active Reading components	5	4	5	4.6
I would need additional information to plan my own Active Reading lessons	3	5	2	3.3

Six questions were asked regarding teachers' perception of the integrity of the intervention (Table. 3.13). Teachers responded on a Likert scale of 1-6 with 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 6 representing Strongly Agree. Teachers indicated the most support for Active Reading as a way to teach vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. There was slightly less support for Active Reading as a way to teach students who struggle or English language learners.

Table 3.13.

Social Validity: Integrity

Question	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Average
Active Reading is a good way to teach vocabulary	6	5	6	5.7
Active Reading is a good way to teach reading comprehension	6	5	6	5.7
Active Reading is a good way to teach listening comprehension	5	5	6	5.3
Active Reading was a good way to teach students who struggle to learn to read	4	4	6	4.7
Active Reading would be a good way to use the time set aside for read aloud	5	3	6	4.7
Active Reading was a good way to teach students who are learning English	5	4	5	4.7

Eleven questions were asked to gauge teachers' assessment of the feasibility of the intervention (Table 3.14). Teachers responded on a Likert scale of 1-6 with 1 representing Strongly Disagree and 6 representing Strongly Agree. There was variability in how feasible teachers thought Active Reading was for their classroom instruction. Of note, overall, teachers indicated that Active Reading fit in with the mission of their school. Teachers indicated that they did not think that Active Reading took a reasonable

amount of time. Teachers also indicated that Active Reading was something that they could implement without extensive additional training or resources.

Table 3.14.

Social Validity: Feasibility

Question	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Average
Active Reading easily fits in with my current teaching practices	5	2	6	4.3
Active Reading took a reasonable amount of class time	2	2	4	2.7
I could plan Active Reading lessons myself	5	5	5	5
The materials and resources needed for Active Reading were reasonable	5	5	5	5
Active Reading is too complex to implement accurately	2	2	2	2
The time I needed to prepare for Active Reading lessons was minimal	3	2	5	3.3
Active Reading is consistent with the mission of my school	5	5	6	5.3
Active Reading is consistent with how things are done at my school	5	3	4	4

Active Reading is consistent with what is expected of me in my job	5	3	6	4.7
I would need additional training to implement Active Reading	3	2	3	2.7
I would need additional resources to carry out Active Reading	5	2	5	4

Potential Threats to Validity

Threats to Internal Validity

The goal of this study was to identify and examine relationships between variables. If internal validity was low, then it would be more difficult to conclude that the independent variable (level of teacher training in Active Reading) caused the change in the dependent variable (student outcomes). Potential threats to internal validity in this study included history, contamination, maturation, attrition, and testing.

External professional development. It was possible for additional professional development or information obtained by teachers to influence their read aloud. An attempt was made to control this by providing an overview of the study that explained the importance of limiting access to professional development in read aloud during the course of the study. Teachers were also asked in the post-interview if they had engaged in any additional professional development in (a) literacy instruction and (b) read aloud. Teachers did receive a professional development in intentional read aloud and vocabulary instruction (the Frayer model) on the second to last day of the intervention from the state

Department of Public Instruction. None of the teachers indicated changing their instruction in the final day of the intervention based on this additional training. It is anticipated that this additional professional development did not have an impact on the results from this study.

Teacher knowledge. Another potential confounding variable was teacher knowledge of read aloud practices. Teachers may have little knowledge, or extensive knowledge, depending on their education and experiences. This was addressed by providing specific lesson plans that aligned with Active Reading and focusing on fidelity for the length of the study. Teachers were asked about any additional expertise they had in literacy instruction before the study. Also, teachers in conditions 3 and 4 were provided with a pre and post-quiz after Active Reading professional development.

Beyond their formal education, none of the teachers indicated having additional training or expertise in reading instruction. And, using the pre-test in Active Reading, teachers were not well versed in Active Reading at the start of the intervention.

Contamination. Contamination occurs when one group finds out about what is happening in another group and this impacts the practices across groups. For example, the teacher in Condition 3 may share ideas with the teacher in Condition 2. Or, a teacher in a treatment condition may share book titles with the teacher in the control condition. Teachers in the same building may communicate and, therefore, techniques and strategies or text selections may be incorporated into teachers' lessons. This poses a threat to internal validity and was addressed by explaining the purpose and approach to the research to teachers before starting the study and being explicit about the need to not share ideas or practices until after the study was over. Specifically, the teacher in

Condition 2 was instructed not to use the Active Reading lessons or materials with the students in the Control condition (Condition 1). The researcher connected with the teacher in Condition 2 regularly and she indicated that she had not had time to even do a read aloud with the students in Condition 1.

Student Maturation. Student maturation, or the typical progress that students make during a school year, is another threat to internal validity. As discussed in the analysis section, this was controlled by comparing similar groups of students and conducting an analysis that included the establishment of equivalence of groups at pretest.

Attrition. At any school, there is the threat of attrition and attrition that creates unequal groups over the course of the study. Attrition was not a concern in this study as total attrition was low (2%).

Testing. A final threat to internal validity is the risk that students will learn from the pretest and that learning will impact posttest scores. To control for this, different forms of the GRADE assessment were used and different questions were used on the researcher created vocabulary assessment for pre and post test.

Threats to External Validity

In educational research, one goal is to generate research that provides information that can be generalized to other educational settings. If external validity is low, it is more difficult to conclude that the results of the tested intervention will transfer or generalize to other students or education settings. Threats to external validity include population validity and ecological validity.

Population validity. Population validity, or how well the results generalize across settings, was provided for by including a detailed description of the students in this population (Tables 3.4 and 3.5), and examining any potential effects that are specific to this population. Specifically, students who are ELL or SAR.

Ecological validity. Ecological validity, or generalizability across settings, was addressed by interviewing teachers about how they implemented Active Reading in their classroom.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

A sequential explanatory quasi-experimental pretest/posttest design (Ivankova et al., 2006) was used to research (a) the effect of a short-term, specific, targeted Active Reading program the reading and language outcomes of first grade students across classroom settings, (b) the effect of the level of professional development on teacher fidelity and implementation, and (c) the effect of teacher training in Active Reading on teacher perception of Active Reading and student outcomes. Active Reading is an interactive shared reading instructional procedure that involves multiple readings of a complex picture book and incorporates components of rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010) and shared reading (Baker et al., 2013). The intervention consisted of 25 to 26 Active Reading lessons across seven instructional weeks.

Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative data were collected to answer the two parts of Research Question 1:

(a) What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on the reading and language outcomes (vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension) of first grade students across various classroom settings? and, (b) What is the effect of short-term, specific, and targeted training in Active Reading on the reading and language outcomes of first grade students who are at risk for reading failure?

Five tests (four standardized and one researcher-created) were administered before and after the intervention (weeks 0 and 8). As indicated in Table 4.1, there were some clear differences in means at post-test, particularly for vocabulary measures.

Table 4.16

Descriptive Statistics: All Students

	Condi	ition 1	Cond	ition 2	Cond	ition 3	Cond	ition 4
	Pretest	Posttes	Pretes	Posttes	Pretest	Posttes	Pretest	Posttes
	Mean	t	t	t	Mean	t	Mean	t
	(SD)	Mean	Mean	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)	Mean
		(SD)	(SD)	(SD)		(SD)		(SD)
N	16	16	12	12	13	13	15	15
GRADE	13.44	14.87	14.17	14.08	14.08	14.92	14.47	15.07
Listening	(3.65)	(2.06)	(2.37)	(2.91)	(2.6)	(2.18)	(3.14)	(2.1)
Comprehensio								
n								
GRADE	4.94	7.25	5.33	9.08	7.85	9.31	6.67	9.47
Sentence	(5.6)	(6.2)	(4.98)	(7.75)	(6.69)	(7.31)	(5.25)	(6.42)
Comprehensio								
n								
GRADE	92.31	100	94.42	101.75	101.23	109.23	96.33	108.47
Vocabulary	(24.06	(21.3)	(24)	(21.56	(20.19)	(16.48	(17.87)	(17.68
Composite))))))
Standard								
Scores								
Researcher	12.13	12.56	12.67	18.08	9.85	16.62	8.4	16.07
Created	(2.42)	(2.97)	(3.39)	(2.23)	(3.44)	(2.43)	(2.75)	(3.43)
Vocabulary						, ,	, ,	
(Total)								
Vocabulary	7.94	8.56	8.33	12.67	7.08	12.15	5.47	11.93
	(1.84)	(2.56)	(2.5)	(1.88)	(2.6)	(1.63)	(1.77)	(2.63)
words)			, ,			, ,	, ,	
Vocabulary	4.19	4.0	4.33	5.42	2.77	4.46	2.93	4.13
(Untaught	(1.28)	(1.16)	(1.44)	(.9)	(1.59)	(1.13)	(1.44)	(1.88)
words)	. ,	` /	. ,	` /	, ,	. ,	` ,	` ,
Researcher Created Vocabulary (Total) Vocabulary (Taught words) Vocabulary (Untaught	7.94 (1.84) 4.19	(2.97) 8.56 (2.56) 4.0	(3.39) 8.33 (2.5) 4.33	(2.23) 12.67 (1.88) 5.42	7.08 (2.6) 2.77	(2.43) 12.15 (1.63) 4.46	(2.75) 5.47 (1.77) 2.93	(3.43 11.9 (2.63 4.13

In this study, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether or not there was a statistically significant difference between groups at pre-test for each of the assessment measures. Then, an ANCOVA with pretest scores as covariates, post-test scores as the dependent variable, and teacher Condition and student risk status as the factors was used to address Research Question 1.

Prior to running the ANCOVA, the assumptions were analyzed for all variables (Table 4.2 and Table 4.3). Groups were independent of one another; no student was involved in more than one condition. No outliers were noticed in any of the data sets. The groups were not created through random sampling; one-way ANOVAs were run on pretest variables to establish equivalency at pretest to control for this. Also, three of the outcome measures (GRADE listening comprehension, sentence comprehension, and vocabulary subtests) did not produce normal distributions. This was taken into consideration in the interpretation of the results with the understanding that this will limit the power of the analysis.

Table 4.2.

ANOVA Assumptions: GRADE Assessments

Assumption	GRADE Listening Comprehension	GRADE Sentence Comprehension	GRADE Vocabulary
			Subtests
Continuous	Listening	Sentence	Vocabulary
Dependent Variable	Comprehension	Comprehension	Composite
	Assessment	Assessment	Standard Score
Categorical Independent Variable	Condition	Condition	Condition
Cases with values in both the DV and IV	Yes	Yes	Yes
Independent Groups	Yes	Yes	Yes
Random Sampling	No*	No*	No*
Normal Distribution	No**	No**	No**

Homogeneity of	$F_{3,52} = 1.096, p =$	$F_{3,52}$ = .628, p = .6	$F_{3,52} = .658, p =$
Variance	.359		.582
(Levene's Test)			

^{*}Samples were existing 1st grade classrooms. Due to the nature of the research, complete random sampling was not possible. Classes were assigned to conditions based on factors other than student performance.

Table 4.3

ANOVA Assumptions: Vocabulary Assessments

Assumption	Vocabulary: All	Vocabulary: Taught	Vocabulary:
	Words	Words	Untaught Words
Continuous	Vocabulary	Vocabulary	Vocabulary
Dependent Variable	Assessment	Assessment	Assessment
Categorical Independent Variable	Condition	Condition	Condition
Cases with values in both the DV and IV	Yes	Yes	Yes
Independent Groups	Yes	Yes	Yes
Random Sampling	No*	No*	No*
Normal Distribution	Yes	Yes	Yes
Homogeneity of Variance	F _{3, 52} = .574, <i>p</i> = .635	F _{3,52} = .792, p = .504	F _{3, 52} = .373, <i>p</i> = .773

^{*}Samples were existing first grade classrooms. Due to the nature of the research, complete random sampling was not possible. Classes were assigned to conditions based on factors other than student performance.

Once the assumptions were met for each variable, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to establish pre-test equivalency. There were no significant differences at pretest across conditions on GRADE listening comprehension (F $_{3,52}$ = .315, p = .815),

^{**}The distribution for these variables does not represent a normal curve. It is understood that this will reduce the power of the analysis.

GRADE sentence comprehension (F $_{3,52}$ = .758, p = .523), or GRADE vocabulary composite standard score (F $_{3,52}$ = .429, p = .733).

There was a significant difference between condition means at pretest for the researcher created vocabulary test for all words (F $_{3,52} = 6.352$, p = .001), the vocabulary test of taught words (F $_{3,52} = 4.917$, p = .004), and the researcher created test of vocabulary of untaught words (F $_{3,52} = 4.481$, p = .007). In all cases, the means for Conditions 3 and 4 were lower at pretest than the means of Conditions 1 and 2.

Quantitative Results

To address Research Question 1, for GRADE listening comprehension, sentence comprehension, and vocabulary composite measures, ANCOVAs with pretest as the covariate were run to achieve precise estimation of the intervention effects. For GRADE assessments there were no differences at pretest. For researcher created vocabulary measures, there were differences at pretest. The ANCOVA model included two factors. Factor 1 was the Condition with four levels (Condition 1, 2, 3, and 4). Factor 2 was the status of students with 2 levels (at risk or not at risk). In this case, an interaction effect would indicate that an effect for the Condition varied by student risk status. If the interaction effect was not significant, a main effect for Condition would indicate that there were differences across Conditions (RQ1a). A main effect for risk would indicate that there was a difference between SAR and SNAR (RQ1b).

Research Question 1a: What effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on the reading and language outcomes (vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension) of first grade students across various classroom settings?

None of the interaction effects were significant for the GRADE subtests and researcher created vocabulary tests (Table 4.3). This indicates that the effects of the intervention did not vary by risk-status across Conditions. That is, students at risk (SAR) and students not at risk (SNAR) students performed similarly regardless of the instructional condition.

Table 4.4.

Interaction Effect Results

Assessment	F	P
	(3, 51)	
GRADE Listening Comprehension	2.545	.67
GRADE Sentence Comprehension	.915	.441
GRADE Vocabulary Composite (Standard	.496	.687
Scores) Researcher Created Vocabulary (all)	.338	.798
Researcher Created Vocabulary Taught words	.174	.913
Researcher Created Vocabulary Untaught Words	1.335	.274

The main effect on the researcher created vocabulary assessment was significant by Condition (F $_{3,52}$ = 12.044, p = .000). There were differences between the control group (Condition 1) and Conditions 2, 3, and 4. There were no significant differences in the means between the three treatment groups (Conditions 2, 3, and 4). There was a large effect between Conditions 1 and 2 (g = 1.97), between Conditions 1 and 3 (g = 1.65) and Conditions 1 and 4 (g = 1.43).

The main effect on the researcher created assessment taught words was significant by condition (F $_{3,52} = 11.531$, p = .000). There were differences between Condition 1 (control group) and Conditions 2, 3, and 4. There were no significant differences in the means between the three treatment groups (Conditions 2, 3, and 4). There was a large effect size between Conditions 1 and 2 (g = 1.69), between Conditions 1 and 3 (g = 1.70) and between Conditions 1 and 4 (g = 1.52).

The main effect for the researcher created assessment of untaught words was significant by Condition (F $_{3,52} = 4.237$, p = .010). In this case, the difference between means of Conditions 1 and 2 for untaught words was significant. The mean for untaught words was higher for students in Condition 2 compared to Condition 1 with a large effect size (g = 1.34). There were no significant differences between Condition 1 and Conditions 3 or 4. There were no significant differences in the means between the three treatment groups (Conditions 2, 3, and 4).

Taken together, these results indicate a difference in vocabulary learning for total words and taught words for students regardless of the instructional Condition. All students that received the Active Reading intervention demonstrated change in their vocabulary knowledge, though the level of short-term, structured professional development did not impact student vocabulary learning. For untaught words, there was a difference between Conditions 1 and 2, indicating that students who received instruction from the teacher who received only materials learned significantly more untaught words than those in the control group.

Research Question 1b: What is the effect of short-term, specific, and targeted training in Active Reading on the reading and language outcomes of first grade students who are at risk for reading failure?

Five tests (four standardized and one researcher-created) were administered before and after the intervention (weeks 0 and 8). As indicated in Table 4.5, there were some clear differences in means at post-test, particularly for vocabulary measures between SAR and SNAR.

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics: Students at Risk and not at Risk

	Students not at Risk		Stud	ents at Risk	Total	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
	Mean	Mean (SD)	Mean	Mean (SD)	Mean	Mean
	(SD)	,	(SD)	` ,	(SD)	(SD)
N	32	32	24	24	56	56
Listening	14.91	15.44	12.83	13.88 (2.6)	14.02	14.77
Comprehension	(1.91)	(1.74)	(3.71)		(2.98)	(2.26)
Sentence	8.69	12.66	2.79	3.46 (2.98)	6.16	8.71
Comprehension	(6.05)	(6.06)	(2.38)		(5.62)	(6.75)
GRADE	110.19	115.94	76.87	89.92 (14.91)	95.91	104.79
Vocabulary	(12.94)	(13.9)	(14.16)		(21.33)	(19.25)
Subtests						
Researcher	11.31	16.47 (3.2)	9.92	14.5 (3.56)	10.71	15.63
Created	(3.33)		(3.34)		(3.37)	(3.47)
Vocabulary						
Total						
Vocabulary	7.87	11.81	6.21	10.33 (2.9)	7.16	11.18
Taught Words	(2.28)	(2.53)	(2.23)		(2.39)	(2.77)
Vocabulary	3.44	4.66 (1.1)	3.71	4.17 (1.31)	3.55	4.45
Untaught	(1.67)		(1.43)		(1.56)	(1.21)
Words						

One-way ANCOVAs were conducted to examine the differences between two factors (Condition and risk factor) on the following outcomes: GRADE listening comprehension, GRADE sentence comprehension, GRADE vocabulary composite

(standard score), researcher created vocabulary test for all words, taught words, and untaught words.

The main effect for SAR on the GRADE listening comprehension subtests was significant (F $_{1,54} = 4.462$, p = .04, g = -.560). Students at risk scored lower than SNAR on listening comprehension.

The main effect for SAR on the GRADE sentence comprehension assessment was significant (F $_{1,54} = 16.663$, p = .000, g = -1.064). Students at risk scored lower than SNAR on sentence comprehension across all four Conditions.

Overall, the main effects on the researcher created vocabulary assessments were not significant for SAR compared to SNAR; for total vocabulary words (F $_{1,54} = 3.874$, p = .055), taught words (F $_{1,54} = 2.568$, p = .116), and untaught words (F $_{1,54} = 3.003$, p = .090). That is, there was no difference in vocabulary words correct (taught, untaught, or total) at posttest for SAR and SNAR.

Overall, controlling for differences between students at pretest, results indicate that SAR scored lower on listening comprehension and sentence comprehension at post-test compared to SNAR. There was no difference in general vocabulary composite (GRADE standard scores) between SAR and SNAR. Finally, there was no difference between SAR and SNAR for the researcher created vocabulary measure.

In summary, for the researcher created vocabulary test, there was no interaction effect for SAR by Condition, indicating that SAR in Conditions 2, 3, and 4, who received Active Reading scored at the same level of vocabulary knowledge at post-test compared to SNAR in Conditions 2, 3, and 4. There was a main effect for vocabulary learning by Condition, indicating that students who received Active Reading across all three

Conditions, regardless of teacher training received, had higher vocabulary learning compared to the control group. This was true for both the total words learned and taught words learned by students participating in Conditions 2, 3, and 4. For untaught words, the students in Condition 2 demonstrated significantly higher post-test scores than the students in Condition 1.

Implementation of Active Reading

The second research question was: what effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on teacher fidelity of implementation?

In this study, 25 to 26 Active Reading sessions were implemented across the seven-week intervention period. The Active Reading lesson plans included four repeated readings of each text. Due to the school calendar (e.g., holidays and teacher work days) for two books, covering two weeks of instruction, students received three readings instead of four. On those weeks, readings 2 and 3 were combined. Conditions 3 and 4 implemented 26 lessons, Condition 2 implemented 25 lessons (the fourth lesson of *Last Stop on Market Street* was omitted for a class-related event). An overview of the overall intervention, including book titles and number of lessons implemented for each title is included in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Active Reading Book List and Instructional Sessions

Book Title	Author	Number of Sessions Implemented
Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No	Judith Viorst	4
Good, Very Bad Day		
Ferdinand	Munro Leaf	3
Stand Tall Molly Lou Melon	Patty Lowell	4
The Adventures of Beekle	Dan Santat	3
Officer Buckle and Gloria	Peggy Rathman	4
Wolfie the Bunny	Ame Dyckman	4
Last Stop on Market Street	Matt de la Pena	4
		26

Implementation Fidelity

A total of 18 (36%) Active Reading sessions were observed for implementation fidelity (Table 4.7). The purpose of this was to (a) collect information about how closely teachers were aligning with the Active Reading procedures and (b) observe and document any differences and similarities across conditions. One of the goals of this study was to determine how teachers with differing levels of training in Active Reading implemented the procedures as well as the practices that were most easily incorporated in a realistic classroom setting. The purpose was more to assess what was happening in Active Reading sessions than to ensure a certain level of fidelity.

Across the three conditions that implemented Active Reading, 50 sessions were delivered by the teachers (in Conditions 3 and 4 the remaining sessions [14 in Condition 3 and 13 in Condition 4] were implemented by the researchers).

Table 4.7

Fidelity Observations

Condition	Number of Sessions Observed	Number of Sessions Delivered	Percent of Sessions Observed (out of total number delivered)
2	5	25	20%
3	6	12	50%
4	6	13	46%
OVERALL	18	50	36%

The time spent in teacher-delivered Active Reading lessons was approximately the same across the three conditions (Table 4.8). This could be because the time of day provided for the intervention was a 30-minute time slot between lunch and "specials" (i.e., gym class, art class).

Table 4.8

Time Spent in Active Reading

Condition	Time Spent in Minutes	
	Mean (SD)	
2	23 (3.90)	
3	24.71 (5.38)	
4	24.29 (5.22)	
OVERALL	24.9 (5.09)	

Opportunities to respond consisted of times that teachers invited a response from students, including choral responses, calling on individual students, and Turn and Talk opportunities. The total opportunities for students to respond were approximately the same across all three conditions, ranging from 37 to 41.12 (Table 4.9). Overall, teachers had a high level of asking individual students to answer questions, and choral responses. There were fewer opportunities for students to Turn and Talk.

Table 4.9

Opportunities to Respond

Condition	Total Mean (SD)	Choral Responses Mean (SD)	Turn and Talk Mean (SD)	Individual Student Mean (SD)
2	37 (12.17)	10.87 (6.7)	0.866	25.73
			(0.92)	(11.37)
3	41.12 (12.69)	10.88 (6.15)	1.12 (1.17)	29.23
				(13.69)
4	39.35 (13.3)	10.11 (6.66)	1.11 (1.17)	28.24
				(13.62)
OVERALL	39.05 (13.47)	9.95 (6.48)	1 (1.15)	28.21
				(13.27)

Whole group discussion was defined as a teacher-provided opportunity for students to share ideas with one another. In the classroom, this would be observed by an open-ended question followed by multiple students responding to the question and to one another. During Active Reading lessons, there were few opportunities for whole group discussion as defined by the researchers (Table 4.10). It is of note that the school had set a focus on discussion (students listening to and responding to one another) so teachers would have had this as a consideration when making decisions about how to involve students. Condition 4 had the highest observation of the opportunity for discussion and incorporating discussion was one of the talking points during coaching sessions.

Table 4.10

Opportunities for Whole Group Discussion

Condition	Sessions that	Total Sessions	Percent that
	Included	Observed	Included
	Discussion		Discussion
2	0	5	0%
3	2	6	33%
4	3	6	50%
OVERALL	5	17	29%

The total fidelity (percent of elements included in each Active Reading lesson) was essentially the same across all three conditions (Table 4.11). However, the fidelity scores for Condition 2 decreased across the 7 weeks from 93% to 63% while the scores for Condition 4 increased from 67% to 81% (Figure 4.1). In later lessons, the teacher in Condition 1 did not engage students in the concluding reading aspects of the Active Reading lessons (modeling summarization, engaging students in a culminating discussion). In the final lesson observed, she did not complete the full vocabulary prompts, leaving off one word that would have been taught during the reading.

Table 4.11

Total Fidelity

Condition	Fidelity Percentage
	Mean
	(Range)
2	75%
	(60 % - 91%)
3	76%
	(65% - 89%)
4	76%
	(67% - 81%)
OVERALL	76%
	(60%-93%)

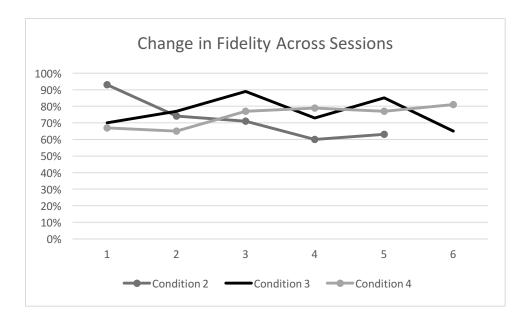


Figure 4.1 Change in Fidelity Percent Over Time

Table 4.12

Change in Fidelity Percent Over Time

Condition	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4	Session 5	Session
						6
2	93%	74%	71%	60%	63%	
3	70%	77%	89%	73%	85%	65%
4	67%	65%	77%	79%	77%	81%

Overall, teachers modeled fluent, prosodic reading during every Active Reading session as well as enthusiasm for the text. For example, teachers indicated aspects of the text that were funny or interesting (e.g., pointing out a clever cover illustration). Teachers also pointed out aspects of the texts that influenced their fluency and prosody (e.g., naming bolded text). Teachers consistently scored three out of three for this aspect on fidelity observations.

Teachers also scored high on book introduction aspects (Table 4.13). Book introduction included: introducing the purpose for reading (e.g., to talk about the

characters, to summarize what happened), teaching or reteaching two key vocabulary words, and engaging students in discussion of one review or connection question. Of the five elements of book introduction, teachers implemented 3.95 of them on average.

Table 4.13

Book Introduction Fidelity

Condition	Mean (Range)
2	3.8 (3-5)
3	4 (1-5)
4	3.88 (3-5)
TOTAL	3.95 (1-5)

^a Out of 5 points total

Teachers also implemented Asking Questions with fidelity (Table 4.14). Asking questions involved asking a minimum of five literal story questions, and at least one open-ended question while reading. It is important to note, however, that the fidelity measure examined how teachers were asking questions, not how well students were answering them.

Table 4.14

Asking Questions Fidelity

Condition	Mean (Range)
2	5.87 (5-6)
3	6
4	5.88 (5-6)
TOTAL	5.89 (5-6)
20 . 06 1	<u> </u>

^a Out of 6 points total

The elements of building vocabulary included the rich vocabulary instruction procedure: stating the word within text, having students repeat the word, and asking students a question about the word as it was used in the story. Teachers implemented the build vocabulary aspect with a range of fidelity. While they consistently reviewed words

at the start of each reading, they sometimes neglected to identify the word in text or have students answer a context-driven question while reading (Table 4.15).

Table 4.15

Build Vocabulary Fidelity

Condition	Mean (Range)
2	4.6 (2-6)
3	4.29 (3-6)
4	4.47 (3-6)
TOTAL	4.47 (2-6)

^aOut of 6 points total

There were aspects of Active Reading that were not implemented with strong fidelity. These included concluding reading and engaging students.

Concluding reading. In Active Reading lesson plans, teachers were provided with prompts to support summarization and a culminating discussion. However, during some lessons, this was omitted entirely because teachers ran out of time. During other lessons, teachers asked questions about students' basic reaction to the book (Have you felt this way? Do you like the book?) instead of asking the open-ended question in the lesson plan. These questions elicited a whole group response, but did not address comprehension of the story. Teachers also asked questions and provided responses from one or two students, without providing space for discussion. For example, during Reading 3 of *Officer Buckle and Gloria* (Rathman, 1995), after talking students through what had happened in the story and how the character felt, the teacher in Condition 3 asked a series of questions about feelings and students provided choral responses:

Teacher: Have you ever felt like this?

Students: Yes

Teacher: Yes, sometimes? Can you think about a time when you felt proud of yourself?

Students: Yes.

Teacher: How do you look when you feel proud of yourself? Oh, I like the way you did that. You sat up nice and straight. Have you ever felt sad or disappointed?

Students: Yeah.

Student: I felt miserable.

Teacher: Miserable, that's a terrible feeling. Have you ever just felt happy? What about sad? What would ecstatic look like? What about shocked?

Students act out shocked.

Teacher: Some of you guys look a little scared instead of shocked. Did you guys like this book?

Students: Yes.

Overall, the concluding reading portion differed greatly from teacher to teacher and was often rushed resulting in a low fidelity overall (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16

Concluding Reading Fidelity

Condition	Mean (Range)
2	1.13 (0-3)
3	1.33 (1-2)
4	1.23 (0-3)
TOTAL	1.32 (0-3)

^a Out of 4 points total.

Engaging students. Teachers in conditions 3 and 4 were encouraged to think about Active Reading as starting a conversation with students about the book. In

implementing discussion, teachers most frequently used Turn and Talk to engage students in discussion and rarely provided the opportunity for whole group discussion.

Teacher response to student questions. A difference in teacher delivery was the teacher response to student questions. The fidelity measure did not gauge student responses to teacher questions, however observations highlighted differences in how teachers led students through questioning. In Reading 3 of *Officer Buckle and Gloria* (Rathman, 1995) in Condition 3:

Teacher: But then Gloria came and what happened? What happened when Gloria came?

Student: She was doing tricks.

Teacher: She started doing tricks behind Officer Buckle and what happened?

Student: The kids started listening.

Teacher: And they weren't having as many accidents. How was Officer Buckle feeling about that?

Student: Happy.

Teacher: He was happy. He was proud because the kids were listening. But later he found out what?

Student: Gloria was doing tricks.

Teacher: He found out that Gloria was doing all those tricks and how did he feel then?

Student: Disappointed.

Teacher: Disappointed, right, because he thought they were watching him and applauding him and they really wanted to see him when they wanted to see Gloria. So he

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was kind of upset right? He was disappointed and upset, he said I'm not doing speeches

anymore they're not listening to me they just want to see Gloria doing tricks. And then

after he found out about the accident he felt?

Student: Shocked.

Teacher: But then he got the note from Claire...how do you think he's feeling at

the end of the story?

Student: Happy.

Student: Ecstatic.

Teacher: I wouldn't say ecstatic, ecstatic would be over the top, like woohoo! I

think he's glad to have Gloria and he even came up with a safety tip based on having

Gloria.

In comparison, the teacher in Condition 2 asked questions and allotted for

lengthier student responses before providing expansion or feedback. For example, in

Reading 3 of *Stand Tall Molly Lou Melon* (Lovell, 2001):

Teacher: How does Molly Lou feel about being the shortest girl in first grade?

Student: She doesn't mind because she enjoys just being her.

Student: Happy because it kind of looks like she's happy.

Teacher: She doesn't mind that she's short.

Student: Joyful.

Teacher: She's joyful? Why?

Student: Because she can do a lot of things.

Teacher: She has some good self-confidence doesn't she? Meaning that she loves

herself, doesn't she? She's standing tall. (Teacher reads) Molly Lou Melon had buck teeth

that stuck out so far she could stack pennies on them. She didn't mind. Her grandma told her smile big and the world will smile alongside you. How does Molly Lou feel about having buck teeth?

Student: Happy because she can stack pennies on them.

Student: She was happy because she was just herself.

Teacher: You are answering these questions really well... *Then Molly Lou Melon moved to a new town. She had to say good bye to her grandma and all her friends and start in a new school.* Turn to your partner and talk, whisper: how do you think Molly Lou feels about moving to a new school?

Students turn and talk.

Teacher: Some people said Molly Lou is going to feel sad because she's going to leave her grandma. I heard somebody say happy because she might want to start in a new school. I heard some people say excited. Anna, what did you say?

Anna: Upset, because she didn't want to leave her grandma.

Researcher-Led Lessons

Researchers implemented half of the lessons in Conditions 3 (14 lessons) and 4 (13 lessons). Three of these were recorded and fidelity was collected (11% of total lessons delivered). Researcher-led lessons averaged 27.25 minutes with total fidelity averaging 88% across the three sessions. There were an average of 45.25 opportunities for students to respond (Table 4.17). Across the three observed sessions, whole group discussion was incorporated into one reading session (33%). For researcher-led sessions, Book Introduction averaged 5 (out of 5), asking questions averaged 6 (out of 6), building vocabulary averaged 5 (out of 6), and concluding reading averaged 2.33 (out of 4). As

with teacher-led lessons, the initial reading procedures (teaching vocabulary, setting a purpose, engaging students in an initial discussion) were implemented with greater consistency than concluding aspects of the lesson.

Table 4.17

Opportunities to Respond in Researcher Led Lessons

Total Mean (SD)	Choral Responses	Turn and Talk	Individual Student
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
45.25 (15.17)	7 (3.38)	1.625	37.38
		(1.69)	(13.61)

Control Condition

The ELA teacher for the Control Condition was interviewed in regards to the instruction that students received. During the length of the study, students in the control condition heard a read aloud of a chapter book (Horrible Harry) during the 12 to 12:30 time slot. They also received social studies and writing instruction. They did not receive additional vocabulary instruction.

Coaching Condition

One of the goals of this study was to examine the impact of coaching on teacher implementation and student outcomes. The teacher in Condition 4 received coaching. This teacher had similar on average fidelity compared to the other two conditions. However, the fidelity did improve over time, increasing from 67% to 81% (Table 4.11).

A one-way ANOVA was used to test the null hypothesis for group equivalency across conditions for fidelity by group. The following aspects were examined: time spent reading, opportunities to respond, total fidelity percent, and build vocabulary aspect of the fidelity observation measure.

Table 4.18

ANOVA Assumptions: Fidelity Measure

Assumption	Time Spent	Opportunities	Total Fidelity	Build
	Reading	to Respond	Percent	Vocabulary
Continuous	Minutes spent	Number of	Recorded	Number of
Dependent	reading	Opportunities	fidelity	vocabulary
Variable			percent	aspects recorded
Categorical	Condition	Condition	Condition	Condition
Independent				
Variable				
Cases with values	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
in both the DV				
and IV				
Independent	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Groups	3.7. di	3.7. di	3.7. di	3.7 d
Random	No*	No*	No*	No*
Sampling	3.T 44	% T 44	3 T	እ፣ ቀቀ
Normal	No**	No**	No**	No**
Distribution	T 455	E 104	F 502	E 242
Homogeneity of	,	$F_{2,14} = .124, p$,	
Variance	= .644	= .885	p = .566	p = .716
(Levene's Test)				

^a Samples were existing first grade classrooms. Due to the nature of the research, complete random sampling was not possible. Classes were assigned to conditions based on factors other than student performance.

Once the assumptions for ANOVA were met for each variable, the one-way ANOVA was conducted to gauge difference between groups. There was a significant difference across conditions for time spent reading (F $_{2, 14} = 5.375$, p = .019). A Tukey post hoc test was run to confirm the difference in group means and control the error rate. The Tukey post hoc test was determined to be the logical next step because the homogeneity of variances assumption was met. The Tukey post hoc test indicated a difference between the time spent reading between Conditions 2 and 4. Condition 4 spent

^b The distribution for these variables does not represent a normal curve. It is understood that this will reduce the power of the analysis.

more time in Active Reading lessons than Condition 2. There was no significant difference in the time spent reading between Conditions 3 and 4 or 2 and 3.

There was no significant difference between conditions for opportunities to respond (F $_{2, 14}$ = 1.671, p = .223), fidelity percent (F $_{2, 14}$ = .300, p = .745), or build vocabulary F $_{2, 14}$ = 1.117, p = .355).

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative data was collected through teacher interviews before and after the Active Reading instruction to address Research Question 3: What are teachers' perceptions of Active Reading related to implementation of read aloud and student outcomes? How do teachers perceive the usability, feasibility, and trustworthiness of Active Reading as a research-based practice?

Pre-Interview Read Aloud Practices

The teachers involved in the study enjoyed doing read aloud and expressed a desire to do more read aloud lessons. For example, the teacher in Condition 3 said: "I miss the days when you could just sit and read four to five books every day for the kids...Reader's Workshop has its good points, but I think the kids are missing out on good books."

Despite their expressed love of read aloud, teachers were not engaging in daily read alouds at the start of the study. Two teachers mentioned the school requirements and testing schedules that interfered with read aloud. The teacher in Condition 3 said that she had not started read aloud that year yet because: "we have to do reading, math, we have to get science, social studies, writing, and there's not enough time in the day to do anything else until we really get into a good routine." The teacher in Condition 4 said:

"We did a book until I started doing testing and it took away from our schedule." When teachers did do read aloud lessons, they mentioned implementing read aloud for a brief period of time (10 to 20 minutes). Teachers also mentioned having read aloud be a spring event, when they would read a chapter book "as a treat" (Condition 2).

Findings

Five themes were identified relating to the purpose, outcomes, and implementation of Active Reading compared to previous read aloud instruction.

Theme 1: After Active Reading, teachers' stated purpose for read aloud broadened from enjoyment to skills. At pre-interview, all three teachers mentioned that a primary purpose for read aloud was for students to enjoy the book and build an interest in and love of reading. The teacher in Condition 2 said: "The purpose of read aloud in my classroom is to build a love of reading for my students. While I address the Common Core standards in my read alouds, I also do read alouds to get my students excited about reading."

At post-interview, one teacher mentioned student interest as a specific outcome, and all three teachers mentioned vocabulary and comprehension. The teacher in Condition 4 talked about comprehension in terms of discussion: "They're getting to share out to me and everyone their take on the story...its exposing them to different lessons in the books." The teacher in Condition 2 talked about comprehension regarding students' ability to answer questions: "Exposing the lower readers to more in depth questions and text...it helped get the lower readers thinking about a text because they can't read all the words."

Theme 2: The challenge of time was a constant concern. At pre-interview, two teachers mentioned time as a challenge in implementing read aloud lessons.

After Active Reading, all three teachers mentioned time. The teacher in Condition 2 said that she felt challenged to complete the entire book each day because she did not want to detract from students' discussion: "I feel like sometimes I didn't get through the whole book every day because the discussion took time and I didn't want to take away from discussion." She also mentioned not completing the Active Reading lessons, namely the writing portion, because of time. The teacher in Condition 3 said that "fitting it in" was the biggest challenge. The teacher in Condition 4 said it was difficult to find the time to complete the lesson. "It's just the time," she said, "because it's one of those things that the kids, if they get going with it, and having to cut it off, that's hard."

Theme 3: After Active Reading, teachers mentioned a broader range of outcomes for read aloud instruction, but not all teachers saw generalization of improvements to other settings. At pre-interview, teachers mentioned some skills, such as making text-to-text connections (Condition 4), ask and answer questions (Condition 2), and learn and use new vocabulary (Condition 3). Two teachers mentioned generating interest in reading as an outcome of read aloud. The teacher in Condition 4: "I hope read alouds open up that interest that they ... start looking at different genres." The teacher in Condition 3 indicated that after she read chapter books aloud, "all" of her students wanted to read chapter books.

At post-interview, all three teachers mentioned building vocabulary as an outcome. The teacher in Condition 2 said that her students were using the vocabulary words outside of the read aloud time frame. For example, when students were on the

playground, they said they were "being foolish" (a vocabulary word from *Stand Tall Molly Lou Melon*) or when they were reading a book about tigers they connected that to the vocabulary word "fierce" (from *The Story of Ferdinand*).

Teachers expressed outcomes in student comprehension through changes in discussion and retelling. The teacher in Condition 3 mentioned comprehension generally: "I can tell they were gaining comprehension skills." The teacher in Condition 4 mentioned discussion skills: students learned how to discuss the book, "I've seen some of that in small group when we're talking about characters, some of them knowing how to discuss it." And, the teacher in Condition 2 mentioned retelling: "Students were able to elaborate more, not just with retelling the text, but retelling character feelings and bringing in the connections and not just one word answers...when they were talking about feelings." The teacher in Condition 4 also mentioned that students were making inferences during discussion.

While teachers mentioned a range of outcomes, one teacher also mentioned not seeing dramatic shifts in vocabulary and comprehension. The teacher in Condition 4 indicated that she had not seen growth in students' vocabulary or comprehension. For example, when talking about vocabulary: "I don't see much right now...I'm not seeing them using those words, they are discussing more but vocabulary growth I think will come as they get exposed to more books. Hopefully we'll see some of that too in nonfiction because it deals with a lot of vocabulary."

Theme 4: Teachers saw value in Active Reading, but would make changes to the format if they were to continue it. At pre-interview, all three teachers indicated that they liked doing read aloud lessons, this was consistent with post-interview findings. After the

Active Reading lessons, all three teachers said they liked the Active Reading lessons, including the texts chosen and the engagement with students. One reason for continuing Active Reading was students' engagement and enjoyment of the stories (Condition 2). When asked if they would continue the Active Reading lessons, three teachers indicated that they would, but would shorten the amount of time and number of days. For example, teacher in Condition 3: Yes, I like doing it...it'll be one of those things we have to fit in two to three days a week, it won't be every day or as lengthy.

Of note, the teacher in Condition 3 did mention that she would want to see clearer outcomes from Active Reading to continue it and that Active Reading should not take away from other subjects: "If I can fit it in and teach my kids how to write something, then possibly [I would continue Active Reading], but if I'm not able to get them where they need to be in science, social studies, and writing, then I would say no [I would not continue it]."

Teachers also mentioned similar ways they would adapt Active Reading to fit it within existing constraints. All three mentioned shortening the length of time spent on Active Reading lessons. The teacher in Condition 4 suggested breaking the texts into chunks instead of reading the full book each time. The teacher in Condition 3 mentioned doing fewer repeated readings. The teacher in Condition 2 identified combining readings 3 and 4.

Theme 5: Student participation was the primary outcome for struggling readers participating in Active Reading. When asked about how struggling readers engaged with read aloud, participation was mentioned by the teachers (Conditions 2 and 3) during the pre-interview as a way to support struggling readers. The teacher in Condition 2 said:

"Most of my struggling readers do okay with the comprehension and questions since I'm reading the story." The teacher in Condition 3 said: "It helps with the lower kids because they feel like 'I can do this just like...higher readers.""

After Active Reading, all three teachers talked about struggling readers' participation. The teacher in Condition 2 indicated that she was able to gain a better understanding of what her struggling readers understood through the Active Reading lessons: "The big thing I noticed [was] the lower readers...they're getting it, they just can't read the words." The teachers in Conditions 3 and 4 indicated that increasing attention and participation among struggling readers was a change for Active Reading. The teacher in Condition 3 said: "One of the biggest things, some of the lower kids were more attentive, and they wanted to answer questions...they're waving at me to answer questions. That helped them quite a bit." The teacher in Condition 4 said: "Just them raising their hand to participate and share out was something that was a big improvement...they felt good about it and they wanted to share their answer." Overall, teachers noticed struggling readers' engagement and willingness to participate in the read aloud lessons, and speculated that this impacted their academic (language and comprehension) outcomes.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

A sequential explanatory quasi-experimental design (Ivankova et al., 2006) was implemented to determine the effect of short-term, specific, and targeted professional development on the student reading outcomes, implementation, and teacher perceptions of Active Reading. Active Reading is a read aloud instructional procedure that combine elements of rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010) and shared reading (Baker et al., 2013). Teachers in three treatment conditions received various levels of materials, professional development, and coaching to implement Active Reading across seven instructional weeks. Students in the control condition did not receive Active Reading lessons during the study. Students were assessed in listening comprehension, sentence comprehension, generalized vocabulary, and specific vocabulary learning before and after the instructional period. Teachers were also interviewed before and after the instructional period, and fidelity observation data were used to gauge teacher implementation. This chapter provides a discussion of the results, implications for practice for teachers and school leaders, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Previous research on read aloud has addressed the impact of read aloud approaches (e.g., dialogic reading, interactive read aloud) on student outcomes in preschool through the early grades (Baker et al., 2013; Lever & Senechal, 2009; Pinnell & Fountas, 2006; Whitehurst et al., 1994). There is consensus in the research that explicit read aloud approaches (e.g., dialogic reading) have an impact on young children's language and early literacy skills (Whitehurst et al., 1994). However, as children enter elementary school, even though read aloud continues to be a common practice (Jacobs et

al., 2000; Pinnell & Fountas, 2006), there are fewer studies supporting specific read aloud practices and subsequent student outcomes.

Investigating how read aloud, as implemented in actual classroom settings, impacts student learning is a nascent area of research. Mol et al. (2009) identified the need to determine which teacher practices during read aloud instruction, outside of tightly monitored and controlled research studies, could impact student outcomes. The current study combined a condition in which a teacher was provided with materials to implement Active Reading, but no additional professional development or support beyond the briefing on the study with two conditions that involved higher levels of researcher participation and teacher development (professional development and coaching). Results indicated that there was no difference between teacher implementation by condition, and no difference in significant student outcomes by condition. This is important because it provides some insight into how teachers may take and implement a curriculum, in this case, Active Reading, within everyday instruction scenarios and constraints. Overall, results from this study indicated that there was no effect on standardized reading measures, which aligns with previous studies (e.g., Baker et al., 2013; Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002). There was a significant effect on vocabulary word learning, which also aligns with previous research (e.g., Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Maynard et al., 2010; Penno et al., 2002).

Effects on Student Outcomes

The first research question addressed the effects of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program on the reading and language outcomes (vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension) of first grade students

across various classroom settings and for students who are at risk for reading failure.

Overall, results from this study indicated student change in vocabulary learning, but not in standardized assessment scores (listening comprehension, sentence comprehension, vocabulary composite).

Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension has been correlated with students' reading skill (Diakidoy et al., 2005), however, classroom read aloud has shown mixed results. Kraemer et al (2012) found positive change in student listening comprehension related to read aloud, while Baker et al. (2013) found no effect on listening comprehension after a read aloud intervention. This study confirmed results from Baker et al. (2013) as read aloud instruction did not produce differences in students' listening comprehension. One reason may have been that students were not explicitly instructed in listening skills that could have improved their listening comprehension. Another reason may be that students in this study started with relatively strong listening comprehension scores (students' average score was 14.47 out of 17 [standard deviation = 3.14] on the listening comprehension subtest at pretest) and the assessment used measured comprehension of brief statements. Therefore, the measure used may not have been adequate for capturing any difference between groups in students' ability to listen to and understand entire stories, rather than understanding individual sentences. In comparison, students in Kraemer et al. (2012) were provided with open-ended questions to respond to in a listening comprehension assessment, which may have allowed for greater demonstration of change in listening skills than the assessment used in this study. In this case, providing read aloud instruction did not produce a negative change in students' listening

comprehension, though improving general sentence-level listening comprehension may not be an explicit outcome of Active Reading.

General Vocabulary Development

There is consensus that language is an important part of developing strong reading skills (Nation & Snowling, 2004; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002) and read aloud is a practice that may address student language skills (Feitelson, Kita, & Goldstein, 1986). Mol et al. (2009) found that the effect of read aloud on students' oral language was moderate and decreased as students aged.

In this study, general language was measured using the GRADE vocabulary composite (word reading and identifying word meaning). There was no effect of condition for outcomes on the vocabulary composite. This may reflect students' general language development during the instructional period (e.g., maturation) or relate to the use of a standardized assessment measure. The words assessed on the standardized measure used reflected general language knowledge, not specific target words taught during the intervention. Providing instruction on word reading, common (Tier 1) words, or requiring student responses that incorporate the use of more complex language structures than was emphasized in this intervention may have produced greater change on a general word knowledge measure.

Specific Vocabulary Learning

Improvement in student vocabulary, or knowledge of specific, taught words, has been a consistent outcome from read aloud (Baker et al., 2013; Maynard et al., 2010). Specifically, read aloud instruction that encourages student engagement with target words (e.g., interactional read aloud), produced greater gains than other kinds of read aloud on

student vocabulary (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Lever & Senechal, 2009). This study supports prior research with strong effects for vocabulary learning both across a total vocabulary measure (which included untaught words contained within the text), and taught vocabulary words. Specifically, for total words taught, this study produced effect sizes (ranging from g = 1.43 to g = 1.97 for total vocabulary words assessed) that were within range of Biemiller and Boote (2006; d = 1.21), but smaller than Maynard et al. (2010; ranging from d = 3.60 to d = 5.16). These results support prior research indicating that there are strong effects for teaching target vocabulary through explicit instruction (e.g., rich vocabulary instruction) within read aloud. The rich vocabulary procedure was taken from Maynard et al. (2010), so the strong effects on vocabulary strengthen the support for use of that word-learning strategy.

Other studies have found mixed effect on student learning of untaught words after read aloud instruction. Justice et al. (2005) found no effect of read aloud on student learning of untaught words, while Penno et al. (2002) found that repeated readings of books increased students' knowledge of untaught words. In this study, it was expected that students would learn the untaught words because of the repeated readings of text and the engagement with the story overall. There was a difference in the number of untaught words learned between the Condition 1 and Condition 2 (g = 1.34), but there was no difference in the learning of untaught words between Condition 1 and Conditions 3 and 4. In this study, the teacher in Condition 2 was the only teacher who mentioned having a procedure for students to identify unknown words during read aloud which may have influenced the students' exposure to words and their meanings. The teacher taught students to raise their hands if they heard a word they did not know, then she would stop

and teach students the word. This teacher's focus on vocabulary may have influenced student vocabulary learning, by shaping which words that were not listed in the lesson plans received additional attention within Active Reading lessons, however caution is taken when drawing such a conclusion without further study. Still, this finding is important because it implies that students can learn untaught words through read aloud, and establishes a potential focus on investigating practices that teachers use that contribute to vocabulary learning within the context of the classroom (e.g., having students raise their hands when they hear an unfamiliar word). Future research that provides for examination of how teachers' established vocabulary prompting and impromptu instruction would help to clarify the understanding related to this finding.

Reading Comprehension

Read aloud is one way for students in the elementary school grades to learn how adults comprehend and integrate that into their own behaviors when reading text (Smolkin & Donovan, 2001). In other studies, the effects of read aloud on comprehension have been mixed. Brabham and Lynch-Brown (2002) found no overall impact of differing teacher read aloud styles on comprehension using a multiple choice test related directly to the texts read, though there was a difference in comprehension when books were read in an interactive style compared to when they were read with no student engagement. On the other hand, students who received dialogic reading had higher narrative ability, or ability to retell stories using story structure, than students who did not (Lever & Senechal, 2009). Also, students who received interactive shared reading had higher narrative retell (Baker et al., 2013).

Narrative retell, or the ability to retell stories using accurate story grammar, is a different measure than was used in this study which included a standardized measure of sentence comprehension to gauge post-test differences in reading comprehension between groups. There was no significant effect across conditions for sentence comprehension, or the ability to identify words that complete simple sentences. This conclusion should be interpreted with caution, however. First, all three teacher participants indicated that they saw comprehension outcomes in students in postinterviews. It is possible that the measure used to capture reading comprehension skills relied too heavily on students' word reading, a skill that was not addressed through Active Reading instruction, and too little on students' ability to answer questions about what was read, retell or summarize, and make inferences from text read aloud to show any changes that students incurred. The results of student comprehension may have differed if students were asked to demonstrate comprehension using a narrative retell (e.g., Baker et al., 2013) or text-specific measure (e.g., Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002). In addition, combining teacher observation with standardized assessment effects, an implication may be to learn more about how teachers gauge students' reading comprehension, and attempt to align reading comprehension assessment measures with skills that teachers notice in the classroom and those that are important for later reading success.

Finally, as indicated in the fidelity observations, teachers often truncated Active
Reading lessons before engaging students in the core comprehension components
(summarizing, using a graphic organizer, and final discussion). This may have limited the

effect of Active Reading on student comprehension as the lessons did not address reading comprehension as much in practice as they were designed to do.

Effects on Students at Risk

Some research has addressed the impact of read aloud on students at risk because of disability or other factors (i.e., family background, current reading performance; e.g., Justice et al., 2005). A meta-analysis of read aloud interventions for students in pre-kindergarten and kindergarten classrooms (Marulis & Neuman, 2010) found that read aloud produced the same level of gains on vocabulary words learned for SAR because of family income, English language learning, low academic achievement, or special needs. Specifically, vocabulary interventions designed for SAR produced similar effect sizes compared to interventions designed for SNAR (for SAR g = .85, SNAR g = .91) and when SAR were included in studies, similar word learning was maintained by both SAR and SNAR, creating parallel learning trajectories. Based on the conclusion that SAR require interventions that accelerate learning so that SAR can catch up to SNAR, Marulis and Neuman (2010) hypothesized that the trajectory of learning may be a concern because it would maintain, if not intensify, the gap between SAR and SNAR over time.

Similar to Marulis and Newman (2010), the current study was based on the assumption that SAR require interventions that will produce a greater learning trajectory so that they can catch up to their peers in terms of vocabulary and other skills (e.g., Zigmond & Kloo, 2011). One difference was the type of risk that was measured. In Marulis and Newman (2010) risk factors were assigned based on a variety of factors (i.e., family income, identified disability), in the current study SAR were identified according to initial language risk. The results of this study confirm those found in Marulis and

Neuman (2010) related to vocabulary learning, and extend it into first grade classrooms that have a variety of SAR and SNAR based on language skill.

In a recent study in first grade classrooms, Baker et al. (2013) implemented a 19-week whole group systematic read aloud intervention focused on vocabulary and before, during, and after reading comprehension strategies using both narrative and nonfiction text. Students at risk because of language, literacy, or a combination demonstrated lower gains on narrative retell and vocabulary development compared to students at low-risk. Effect sizes ranged from d = .56 for students with both language and literacy risk to d = 1.33 for low-risk students (overall d = 1.02).

The process and results of the current study align with Baker et al. (2013) in the focus on implementing read aloud instruction within realistic classroom parameters, as well as outcomes on vocabulary for SAR. In the current study, students who were identified as at risk by their performance on the GRADE vocabulary composite at pretest demonstrated no difference in vocabulary learning compared to students scoring average on GRADE vocabulary (i.e., there was no interaction effect across conditions and risk status on outcomes). This indicates that SAR because of word reading and word meaning knowledge (as measured on the GRADE vocabulary composite) can benefit from Active Reading and rich vocabulary instruction.

While Marulis and Neuman (2010) indicated that vocabulary learning through read aloud was a concern because it did not accelerate the pace of learning for SAR, it may be that incorporating effective vocabulary instruction into classroom read aloud so that the same level of learning is achieved by both SAR and SNAR could provide a strong starting point for teachers. One implication from this would be that teachers using

Active Reading and rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010) could look for common vocabulary learning outcomes among groups of students, and accelerate the vocabulary gains of SAR through additional vocabulary practice during other instructional routines. Another implication relates to vocabulary goals for SAR in elementary school; when students in elementary school start at approximately the same point in terms of word knowledge (e.g., none of the students in a class know the target words), producing the same outcome in SAR and SNAR provides opportunity to build students' vocabulary overall, which creates opportunity for continued vocabulary learning for both groups of students. While researchers and teachers may look to additional intervention to eliminate existing vocabulary gaps between SAR and SNAR, having confidence that explicit vocabulary instruction through read aloud, as in Active Reading, can teach all students new vocabulary clarifies and focuses the use of whole group read aloud instruction. Put another way, when whole class instruction produces the same outcomes for readers with various levels of risk, as it did in this study and others (e.g., Baker et al., 2013; Marulis & Neuman, 2010), it indicates that whole group instruction that incorporates research-based practices can benefit SAR and SNAR, without significant levels of teacher support or accommodation.

Teacher Coaching and Student Outcomes

Teacher coaching towards improved fidelity on classroom procedures has been found to have an impact on teacher accuracy of implementation, but relatively few studies have found an impact on student performance (Yoon et al., 2007). Results of this study reinforced prior research on coaching that found no difference in student outcomes when teachers received brief professional development (90 minutes) compared to weekly

coaching or no training at all; it also added to the literature by adding an additional form of teacher development beyond standard instructional sessions (Condition 2). The supports provided in this study mirrored those that may be provided in a district during the school year when teachers are given new materials to use, and provided with either directions to use them, a brief in-service and/or ongoing coaching, depending on school resources.

It may be that teachers need additional support in order to impact student outcomes. Yoon et al. (2007) found that when teachers received only brief amounts of training it produced less change in teacher behavior. Teachers in this study received a total of 90 minutes of in-service. In comparison, teachers in the Baker et al. (2013) study received a full-day in-service on interactive shared reading before implementing the intervention, this additional time would provide for the incorporation of multiple research-based strategies in adult learning (e.g., Yoon et al., 2007).

In this study, coaching did not have an impact on student outcomes in reading or vocabulary. This could be because of the limited amount of time provided for professional development and coaching. The teacher received only five coaching sessions across seven weeks, which left little time to implement changes that may have impacted student outcomes. For example, the final focus was on student summarizing which was only implemented one time before the study concluded. It may be that coaching requires additional time to have an effect on both teacher behavior and student outcomes.

The incorporation of Condition 2, in which the teacher only received materials, adds to the literature and suggests that when teachers are provided with strong instructional materials they can deliver instruction that produces strong student outcomes.

However, this study was limited in the number of sessions that were implemented by the teachers and researchers in Conditions 3 and 4, as well as the small sample size and limited time for implementation, so these results should be interpreted with caution.

Teacher Implementation

Fidelity data were collected and analyzed to assess the impact of teacher training on the fidelity of implementation of Active Reading lessons to address Research Question 2: what effect does the level of short-term, specific, and targeted training in an Active Reading program have on teacher fidelity of implementation?

Overall, the teacher in the coaching condition started with the lowest level of fidelity and demonstrated increased fidelity over time. The teacher in Condition 2 started with the highest level of fidelity which decreased over time. In addition, teachers achieved similar scores in various aspects of the Active Reading practice. For example, they had similar high scores in the implementation of asking questions (asking at least five story questions and one open-ended question), and low scores in the area of engaging students in discussion.

Teacher Coaching

Coaching has been shown to change teacher behavior (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010) and this study supports that finding. In this study, the teacher who received coaching (Condition 4) demonstrated increases in fidelity over time, though not to a level higher than the average fidelity across the three treatment Conditions, or higher than the fidelity in the other two treatment Conditions. Overall, while there was a difference in the amount of time spent in Active Reading lessons between Conditions 2 and 4, there was no significant difference across conditions in the total implementation of Active Reading

as well as in two aspects of Active Reading (rich vocabulary instruction and opportunities to respond). Whether or not teachers received training in Active Reading, their ability to implement the lessons was not significantly different based on the information collected.

During each coaching session, the teacher was given feedback based on the fidelity checklist and an area of focus was set for the subsequent week. The teacher followed through on the suggestions, which likely increased the fidelity score. Additional factors that may have increased fidelity include increased comfort and familiarity with the lessons or texts, which allowed for an increase in efficient use of time and an understanding of what to include in each lesson.

The similarities in overall fidelity between the treatment Conditions may point to a strength of the Active Reading lessons that included explicit, scripted questions page-by-page for each reading, making them easy to follow. Also, due to the limited time frame of this study (seven weeks) additional time may have been necessary to change teacher behavior enough to achieve stronger implementation fidelity.

Coaching did improve teacher fidelity in Active Reading lessons, indicating that coaching may be beneficial for teachers at the start of a new intervention. However, it may not be necessary for all teachers; the teacher in Condition 3 maintained a consistent level of fidelity across the seven weeks without coaching support. It is important to note, however, that the goal of this study was to use fidelity checklists to gauge what was happening in classrooms, not to achieve a minimum level of implementation. If a higher level of fidelity was warranted, additional intervention may be necessary to ensure that all teachers were meeting the minimum fidelity and, based on this study and others (Kretlow & Bartholemew, 2010) coaching could be one way to achieve that.

Implementation within Active Reading Lessons

Teachers were consistently strongest in their implementation of the introduction to each lesson that included (a) teaching two target vocabulary words, (b) asking a question that supported students' background knowledge related to the text, and (c) setting a purpose for the day's reading. Teachers were also strong in their implementation the core elements of asking questions and building vocabulary. Questions and vocabulary instruction were scripted into Active Reading lesson plans. Teachers' implementation of the concluding aspects of Active Reading (summarizing the text, reviewing the purpose for reading, and engaging students in a final discussion) were not as strong, and it was evident that the challenge of finding time resulted in truncated lessons. In particular, teachers often ended lessons abruptly to transition students to another class. This may have had an impact on the skills that students took away from the intervention; without completion of the Active Reading lessons, students missed the opportunity to summarize and write about their reading, they may not have developed comprehension and writing skills that they could have otherwise.

Student Engagement

Interactive read aloud is meant to be "highly interactive," though it often is not (Fisher et al., 2004), with few questions asked or a limited number of students responding. Teachers in Active Reading all had high levels of opportunities for students to engage, whether it was with choral responding or Turn and Talk procedures (average opportunities to engage: 39.05 [standard deviation 13.45] during an average 24.9 minute lesson). Before the study, teachers were asked if they had a Turn and Talk procedure in place, all three indicated that they did. During Active Reading, lessons provided

opportunities for Turn and Talk or whole group discussion, though the procedure was part of teachers' prior practice. In observations, teachers in Conditions 2 and 3 relied on established classroom procedures and expectations around teacher and student engagement. For example, the teacher in Condition 2 used Turn and Talks and allowed students to call out. The teacher in Condition 3 encouraged choral responding and called on individual students primarily. No new discussion practices were introduced through the lessons. The teacher in Condition 4 identified increasing whole group discussion as a goal and encouraged students to listen to and respond to one another during select portions of the lesson (e.g., the beginning or culminating discussion). Teachers brought their own expectations around student engagement to the study and incorporated those into Active Reading lessons, so the high levels of engagement may have resulted from the questions provided combined with prior teacher practice. Though, in post-interviews, teachers mentioned increases in participation, particularly among SAR, as a positive outcome of Active Reading.

Teacher Perception of Active Reading

Teachers were interviewed before and after implementing Active Reading lessons to answer Research Question 3: What are teachers' perceptions of Active Reading related to implementation of read aloud and student outcomes? How do teachers perceive the usability, feasibility, and trustworthiness of Active Reading as a research-based practice? The goal of this question was to better understand how teachers perceive the implementation of Active Reading practices within the research-to-practice gap and limitations (accessibility, feasibility, and trustworthiness [Carnine, 1997]).

One relevant finding from this study is related to how teachers implemented read aloud outside of the Active Reading lessons. Prior to Active Reading, teachers indicated that they either were not leading read aloud lessons, or that they were planning to incorporate read aloud lessons later in the year when they had a "routine" in place, or when the students were ready to listen to a chapter book. Teachers cited school scheduling and requirements, such as testing, as things that limited their ability to incorporate read aloud lessons regularly into the school day. This contrasts with prior research (e.g., Jacobs et al., 2000) that identified read aloud as a highly used instructional practice, however the sample for this study (three teachers) is small and a more recent survey of teachers may indicate changes in how teachers use their time.

Teachers did indicate that read aloud and Active Reading were accessible practices. Prior to Active Reading, all three teachers had all implemented read aloud lessons. In interviews, they mentioned favorite books or ways to choose books that would engage students, and had established classroom practices around discussion and student engagement (e.g., Turn and Talk). Teachers were able to fluently talk about read aloud procedures, the purpose and anticipated outcomes for read aloud. The purpose identified by teachers at the start of the study related more to engaging students in reading (e.g., fostering enjoyment, exposing students to new genres of text) than to specific skills. After Active Reading, teachers did not cite challenges related to implementing the lessons as they were written.

The primary challenge for teachers was time (Theme 2). Initially, finding time to implement Active Reading within the school day, and then completing the lessons within the allotted time. Teachers expressed their frustrations around time in different ways. One

teacher (Condition 2) expressed that she struggled to complete the lessons within the allotted time (30 minutes) because she wanted to engage her students in more discussion. Another teacher (Condition 3) expressed the challenge around time as relating to what had to be eliminated from her schedule as a result. Both concerns are valid and are important considerations when thinking about the usability of research-based practices.

Related to time, after Active Reading, one change teachers said they would make was reducing the time spent doing Active Reading lessons (Theme 4). The time allotted for read aloud has been studied with mixed results. Meyer et al. (1994) found that when teachers devoted more time to read aloud, students' reading scores were lower and speculated that the time spent in read aloud took away from other reading instruction. In the current study, teachers indicated not taking time from the reading block for Active Reading, but from science, social studies, or writing. Furthermore, teachers communicated at pre-interview that they were spending 10 to 20 minutes each day on read aloud when they implemented it, so to improve teacher read aloud practice while addressing the issue of time as a usability factor would require school leaders and researchers to think about either (a) how to prioritize time for teachers to implement longer research-based read aloud instruction (e.g., Baker et al., 2013) or (b) what aspects of read aloud instruction are most important that could fit into the time already set aside for read aloud (this would align with Meyer et al. [1994]).

Teachers identified high levels of participation of SAR as an important outcome of Active Reading (Theme 5). Student participation was an immediate outcome observed across all three classrooms, compared to benefits in comprehension and vocabulary, which were not universally observed by teachers (Theme 3). This increase in observed

participation by SAR, in addition to an observation by the teacher in Condition 2 that Active Reading was particularly beneficial for lower level readers when it demonstrated their knowledge and comprehension using books far beyond their independent reading level, points to trustworthiness. When teachers can see immediate outcomes, they may be more likely to have confidence that what they are doing is producing a change in student outcomes, and, therefore, be more likely to continue to implement the practice.

Another relevant finding is in the reasons that teachers stated for valuing read aloud compared to the purpose and outcomes for Active Reading. At pre-interview, teachers talked about student enjoyment, building a love of reading, and creating excitement around reading (Theme 1). This aligns with previous research that has found that teachers lead read aloud to instill a joy of reading (Morrow, 2003), interest students in text (Altwerger, Diehl-Faxon, & Dockstader-Anderson, 1985), and motivate children to read (Sulzby & Teale, 2003). After implementing Active Reading lessons, one teacher mentioned student interest as an outcome, but teachers identified more specific outcomes, such as vocabulary and comprehension. The outcomes teachers mentioned before and after Active Reading also expanded from one teacher mentioning vocabulary at preinterview to all three teachers mentioning vocabulary as an important outcome (Theme 3). Perceived outcomes do not relate directly to Carnine's (1997) barriers to implementation of research-based practices as they are not related to how accessible a practice is, the ease at which teachers can implement it, or how much teachers trust the source or practice, however, understanding teacher perceptions of what they hope to gain from read aloud lessons does provide insight into what may motivate teachers to spend time implementing a practice like Active Reading. From these findings, read aloud

practices that combine clear academic outcomes (e.g., clear vocabulary gains) with student motivation (e.g., building enthusiasm for reading) may be valuable for teachers.

Finally, teachers indicated that they liked doing Active Reading lessons, but would change the format or delivery if they continued doing them (Theme 4).

Specifically, all teachers indicated that one change they would make was reducing the number of repeated readings from four to two or three. Repeated reading of text has been shown to have a positive impact on students' word learning (Elley, 1989; Penno et al., 2002; Suggate et al., 2013). However, teachers indicated that they did not perceive the repeated readings, after the second reading, as useful. This indicates that teachers may make classroom level decisions that go against research-based instruction. While this is expected, it is important to provide teachers with information about what aspects of an intervention must be included, and where they can make decisions to maximize impact.

In summary, these findings point to aspects of a read aloud practice that may encourage and limit teacher use of research-based practices. Teachers indicated that read aloud and Active Reading were accessible, and they saw some immediate outcomes (e.g., student enjoyment, student participation). However, time constraints and some aspects of the intervention (e.g., repeated readings) limited their ability to continue implementing Active Reading as it was intended.

Limitations

The results of this study should be interpreted with caution because of the overall group size (N = 56) and the small group sizes across conditions (range 12-16 students). Additional limitations in this study include the population, differences between groups, time, assessments, and changes made to the original instruction.

The findings were limited to four small classrooms and to 56 students (24 students at risk) at a school in the Southeast United States. They may not translate to students who are in other geographic areas or contexts (e.g., students in more urban school settings).

Two of the classes involved were part of a DLL program, which incorporated a combination of Spanish language and English language instruction. As a result, the classes have differing demographic profiles. Despite this, there was no difference in outcomes between instructional conditions, including two DLL classrooms and one standard classroom. This may be because of the prevalence of students who spoke English at home (only seven students across all four classes or 12.5% of the total student population received services for English language learning). Caution should be taken in interpreting these findings as they may not translate to all classroom structures (DLL, English immersion, etc).

Time was a limitation in two ways. First, the instructional window was brief (seven weeks). This is a short period of time and may not have been enough time to gauge how the instruction impacted students' listening, language or comprehension skills, particularly on standardized assessment measures. Diakidov et al. (2005) reported that the correlation between students' listening comprehension and student reading ability strengthened as students progressed through school, so a brief intervention in only one grade may not be long enough to demonstrate an impact on student listening skills. In addition, lessons were short (average 24.9 minutes) and they often had to be truncated to adapt to the general school schedule. This impacted the fidelity of the intervention, specifically related to summarization, use of a graphic organizer, and final discussion.

Furthermore, the time provided for teacher training was also truncated because of teacher schedule. Teachers in conditions 3 and 4 were provided with training across two days totaling 90 minutes of instruction. This is not a lot of time for training and, therefore, may have impacted how much the professional development provided impacted teacher behavior and subsequent student outcomes (Yoon et al., 2007).

The tests used were group administered, and so, were limited in the type of information collected. Collecting information about how students verbalized their understanding of stories read aloud, or how students demonstrated core comprehension skills (e.g., answering questions, retelling, summarizing) or how students engaged in narrative retelling (e.g., Baker et al., 2013) may have produced additional findings. Also, the vocabulary measure used collected information only about basic understanding of words, additional information about how students used the vocabulary words in context would have provided information about the depth of student knowledge produced (e.g., Coyne et al., 2009).

Related to teacher interviews, teacher self-reporting of behaviors related to Active Reading may be inaccurate. Furthermore, the interviews were conducted with the primary researcher who had worked with the teachers. As a result, teachers may have provided responses that aligned with perceived expectations, rather than completely objective responses. Finally, as with any qualitative research, there is the risk of researcher bias and idiosyncrasies.

Finally, at the start of the study, because of the teachers' schedule in the DLL classrooms, it was decided that the researchers would deliver half of the Active Reading lessons for Conditions 3 and 4. This limited the ability to understand how the various

levels of support impacted outcomes and teacher experience. It also limits the extrapolation of these findings to other studies that incorporate multiple levels of teacher support.

Practical Implications

The results of this study have practical implications for teachers and school administrators in the consideration of how to provide read aloud instruction and how best to support teachers in the implementation of best practices.

Practical Implications Related to Active Reading and Student Outcomes

Overall, this study supports the use of Active Reading for vocabulary learning in early elementary classrooms. Specifically, teachers should feel confident implementing Active Reading, including rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010), in a whole class formats that incorporate students who are at risk for reading failure with an expectation that SAR can gain the same vocabulary knowledge as SNAR when lessons incorporate explicit instruction in vocabulary words that includes practice, student-friendly definitions, and multiple opportunities to engage with words through questioning using story and life context.

Another practical implication is that the level of professional development did not produce differences across the effects of each condition on student reading outcome. This has implications for teachers who are interested in incorporating evidence or research-based practices or programs. Even without coaching, teachers who have a strong foundation and classroom procedures, as these teachers did, can still have an impact on student learning without significant professional development. Teachers and school administrators may evaluate teacher initial knowledge and skill when deciding how to

provide a teacher with professional development, primarily coaching. One way to implement this implication would be to monitor teacher fidelity of implementation at the start of a new practice and provide differentiated coaching to teachers who have the lowest levels of fidelity rather than applying a broader, more generalized approach to coaching at the school level (Wood, Goodnight, Bethune, Preston, & Cleaver, 2016).

Furthermore, the success of Condition 2, wherein the teacher did not receive any professional development farther than an explanation of the study, yet produced the same results, indicates that there are teacher and classroom-level considerations that support strong implementation of curriculum that are, themselves, well-structured and easy to implement. Active Reading incorporated clear directions for vocabulary implementation, questions to ask and expectations around how teachers could engage students in answering questions. There are other, similar, resources available (e.g., The Read Aloud Project) and school leaders may be strategic when thinking about how to assign professional development to teachers.

For read aloud lessons, specifically, teachers must be able to evaluate lessons for quality and foundational research. Currently, teachers have varied access to read aloud materials. There are read aloud lessons freely available on the Internet (e.g., The Read Aloud Project) as well as through published curriculum and those that teachers create themselves (e.g., Teachers Pay Teachers). These lessons vary in quality and rigor. As teachers select and implement read aloud lessons, care should be taken to ensure that read aloud materials incorporate research-based practices, such as robust vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010) and elements of reading comprehension (e.g., Baker et al., 2013), so that student outcomes may align with researched practices.

Practical Implications of Teacher Implementation

The implications from Research Question 2 are around addressing the research-topractice gap and supporting teacher use of evidence based practices in practical
classroom settings. In fidelity observations it was evident that teachers were able to
implement the majority of Active Reading lesson components with minimal support.

However, thinking about full implementation, additional supports, including time, would
have been necessary to advance teachers to full fidelity.

In this study, teachers elicited high levels of student engagement. An implication of this is that it is possible for students to have high levels of engagement during brief read aloud lessons. Also, teachers noted an increase in participation among SAR. The implications of this participation in terms of student outcomes was not addressed by this study, however, focusing teachers on levels and type of student participation, particularly from SAR, can be an important implication for teachers who are monitoring the impact of instruction.

A final implication related to teacher implementation is in teacher decision making. All three teachers adjusted their lessons based on schedule constraints. This resulted in lower fidelity and truncated lessons. One of the key aspects of teacher implementation of research-based practices identified by Carnine (1997) is usability, or the ability of teachers to implement an intervention as planned. If teachers are not able to complete instruction because of larger constraints the practice will not be feasible in the long term. Future interventions, both read aloud and otherwise, should take teacher time constraints and the reality of school limitations into account.

Practical Implications of Teacher Perceptions of Active Reading

Implications related to teacher perceptions of Active Reading relate to addressing the research-to-practice gap. In this case, while read aloud lessons were accessible to teachers, and they were able to identify immediate outcomes, they struggled with usability (Carnine, 1997). Finding time to complete Active Reading lessons were concerns for all teachers, and not seeing strong academic outcomes were a concern for some teachers. An implication from this is that school leaders and researchers should consider realistic time constraints when planning, studying, and assigning teachers to implement new research-based practices.

Another implication from teacher interviews is the importance of combining student enjoyment of instruction with academic outcomes, both in research and practice. In research, gauging student engagement and enjoyment with an intervention or practice would help inform how specific instruction contributes to the motivation aspect of learning. In practice, considering how teachers and students perceive enjoyment during instruction may enhance the likelihood of certain practices taking hold.

Future Research

Research on read aloud practices has produced mixed results on some aspects of comprehension (Baker et al., 2013) and reading achievement (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Meyer et al., 1993). Still, considering the ubiquitous nature of read aloud in early elementary classrooms (Jacobs et al., 2000), future research into (a) how read aloud may impact students' language and comprehension skills over time, and (b) how specific teacher-led reading practices can be best utilized to support student skills is warranted.

Future Research on the Effects of Active Reading on Reading Outcomes

The research on read aloud instruction is robust (Marulis & Neuman, 2010; Mol et al., 2009). This study adds to the research in a few important ways; namely related to SAR and in the ability of teachers to implement strong lessons to produce student outcomes. Given the discrepancy between the findings in this study and other research related to reading comprehension, future research in early elementary school read aloud should investigate how to best evaluate the skills that young readers need to develop in order to become proficient readers in later grades, and how read aloud may or may not impact those specific skills. Also, longitudinal research that can gauge the impact of read aloud instruction on student reading outcomes in later grades would help support the use of read aloud in the early grades as it relates to general reading skills as they compound over time. Future research in the area of early childhood read aloud instruction may focus on generalized language and reading comprehension skills over time, and how to address word learning in more specific ways. In addition, longitudinal research on read aloud practices may incorporate general reading measures and advance the understanding of how students develop core reading skills through read aloud instruction.

Related to vocabulary learning, this study pointed to the potential of Active

Reading to increase student knowledge of untaught words. Future research may

investigate additional ways that students can learn words through exposure or indirect

experiences with words. This is important for students who are at risk for reading failure,

and who have low levels of word knowledge. While previous research has identified

repeated reading (Biemiller & Boote, 2006) as a way to increase student learning of

untaught words, additional research could investigate how procedures in early elementary

classrooms (e.g., having students signal for the teacher to stop when they hear a word they do not know) contributes to student word learning.

The results of this study have implications for students who are at risk for reading failure, and future research that investigates how whole class instructional practices can impact students who are at risk for reading failure could help inform how teachers use their instructional time for the improvement of students who are most in need of high-impact instruction. Specifically, gaining an understanding of how whole class instructional practices can impact students at risk such that they end with the same level of skill or knowledge as their peers who are not at risk would be important to help shape teacher instruction, teacher training, and school level decision making.

Additional questions about the impact of coaching in school settings exist, including what "dose" of coaching teachers should receive to create a lasting impact in their practice, and how to determine the dose by teacher characteristics (Kretlow & Bartholomew, 2010). In this study, a brief dose of coaching may have improved teacher fidelity, but did not have an impact on student outcomes. Future research that addresses how much coaching is needed and to what level of fidelity to produce student outcomes would add to the understanding of how coaching supports the implementation of research based practices.

Finally, the results from this study indicated a difference between SAR and SNAR for listening comprehension and sentence comprehension. There were no interaction effects across conditions, so these findings are likely related to general maturation or factors unrelated to Active Reading. However, future research may investigate the best ways to help SAR maintain and increase early reading skills. For

example, studying whether providing explicit instruction in listening skills within small groups for SAR produces change in student listening skills that supports the ability of students to maintain the level of listening skill aligned with SNAR. This would add to previous research about language development in the early grades (Diakidoy et al., 2005; Wise et al., 2007).

Future Research in Teacher Implementation

Future research on the implementation of evidence based practices in classrooms should continue to develop the number of conditions studied in an effort to better understand (a) the effect of various levels of support on teacher implementation and student outcomes, and (b) to better understand teacher decision making and how those decisions (e.g., when to end a lesson and what to cut from a lesson for constraints) impact student outcomes. In this case, research into how many times students need to experience a read aloud lesson and in what format would help teachers with the feasibility aspect of implementation.

Another area of future research would be to investigate how teachers' interaction with students differs across settings and student groups. Baker et al. (2013) found that, during read aloud sessions, only a few students were consistently engaged in the lesson. While teachers provided many opportunities to engage in Active Reading lessons, the quality and intentionality varied across teachers. For example, the teacher in Condition 2 mentioned ways that she engaged lower level readers (e.g., repeating questions). However, the teacher in Condition 3 indicated that she did not make any accommodations for lower level readers during Active Reading lessons. An investigation about how lower level readers are engaged during read aloud lessons may provide insight into how to

maximize student interaction during read aloud that could provide insight into how to maximize this type of whole group instruction for students who need to advance quickly in their skills.

Similarly, this study examined teacher behaviors, not the resulting student behaviors. Future research that examines both teacher behaviors and student responses in terms of the fidelity of implementation of interventions and instructional procedures would provide information about how teacher behavior translates into student outcomes (e.g., the length of student responses, the number of complete sentences used by students). This would support research by Gamez et al. (2016) that investigated how teacher talk during book reading impacted student outcomes. Specifically, read aloud should stimulate and expand classroom discussions. Research is needed to identify the aspects of interaction during read aloud that influence discussion, how that impacts student outcomes, and what that looks like in early elementary classrooms (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002).

Finally, in this study, the portions of the intervention that were implemented with the lowest level of fidelity were those related to the concluding discussion, summarizing, and student writing. Future research could investigate how much flexibility there is in read aloud procedures as well as other interventions that would produce the same outcomes. When teachers make decisions that impact the fidelity of an intervention, how much flexibility can they take without changing the student outcomes? And, are there teacher decisions that produce greater student outcomes?

Future Research in Teacher Perception of Active Reading

One of the outcomes that teachers mentioned was an increase in participation from SAR during Active Reading. An area for future research is in the frequency and level of participation of students at risk for reading failure during whole group lessons, and how that impacts teacher perception and student outcomes. This would support other research investigating how student engagement impacts outcomes (e.g., Gamez et al., 2016).

Teachers mentioned focusing read aloud experiences on chapter books at the end of the year and, in post-interviews, teachers indicated that they would have waited to use chapter books rather than spend as much time reading picture books. Future research could use chapter books in the early grades to investigate how this teacher choice impacts student experience and outcomes, as well as how teachers can use novels in the early grades to build student reading skills.

Teachers also mentioned the importance of student enjoyment of books read during Active Reading, and other research has highlighted the importance of class read alouds related to supporting group connectedness and reading motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Future research could study the impact of group read aloud on young students' motivation to read both immediately and as they develop independent reading skills. This would contribute to the current understanding of how reading motivation develops in the early years, which could contribute to a better understanding of how motivation to read develops over time and what classroom features create and sustain students' motivation to read.

Conclusion

Read aloud is a common classroom practice (Jacobs et al., 2000) that has a research base to support its outcomes for vocabulary (Maynard et al., 2010) and comprehension (Baker et al., 2013). Given that students who are at risk for reading failure are included in various forms of general education instruction throughout the day, understanding how students at risk for reading failure are impacted by whole group instruction in addition to the effect on all students is important. The current study adds to the literature that documents effects of explicit read aloud instruction related to vocabulary learning for students in general and students at risk for reading failure, in particular. The current study also adds to the literature related to teacher perceptions of a common reading practice, while starting to consider how various levels of professional development may impact teacher implementation of reading instruction and the eventual student outcomes.

The findings of the current study indicated that similar to SNAR, SAR can reach the same level of vocabulary learning after read aloud instruction. Teachers who received differing levels of professional development were able to implement explicit read aloud lessons with no difference in overall fidelity across sessions. It also indicated that, while teachers enjoy read aloud instruction, they felt pressed for time to complete lessons while fully engaging students. Because teachers were pressed for time, the implementation of certain aspects of the Active Reading lessons were incomplete, namely modeling and practicing summarizing. Two areas of interactive read aloud that teachers were most successful at were engaging students with questions and frequent opportunities to respond.

Based on this study, teachers can implement read aloud instruction that incorporates explicit instruction in vocabulary and high levels of student engagement in vocabulary and questioning with results in vocabulary learning for students who are and are not at risk for reading failure based on their general word knowledge. Also, teachers who establish and reinforce vocabulary learning may support student vocabulary learning beyond words chosen for explicit instruction. This is within the capacity of teachers and can also be supported by short-term coaching focused on developing teacher skills around fidelity of implementation to maximize the effect of read aloud instruction on all students.

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APPENDIX A: QUALITY INDICATORS FOR GROUP EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Participants	
Who was the intervention for? Information describing the participants and demonstrated difficulties or disabilities	 Participants will include students in four 1st grade classrooms Information that will be included about classes includes: age (range and mean), ELL status, percent receiving IEP services Information will be provided about the school as well (urban, Title 1, reading proficiency across the school) Participants who are struggling readers will be identified using the bottom 33% in each class according to DIBELS and TOSREC measures
How were participants assigned to study conditions? Procedures to increase comparability across conditions are evident	 Teachers will be assigned to conditions in collaboration with school site coordinator A description of how students were assigned to classrooms will be included
Did groups stay consistent across the study? Attrition across groups is documented. Is overall attrition less than 30%?	 Attrition will be documented Any attrition will be addressed and accounted for within the analysis and limitations
Materials	•
What is the intervention? The intervention is clear enough to be replicable	 The intervention will be described through previous research conducted on the components as well as a description of what a lesson included A sample lesson will be included as a table or figure Book lists and other materials will be provided to provide additional context for the intervention
Procedures	
Who is capable to administer the intervention? Information about the intervention providers is sufficient; and procedures are taken to ensure that the intervention providers were comparable across conditions What is the intervention? The intervention is clear enough to be replicable	 Information will be provided about the teachers involved (years teaching, level of expertise in reading instruction) The comparability across conditions will be discussed The intervention implementation will be clearly described in a step-by-step format

How well was the intervention implemented? Fidelity is described and assessed in terms of whether it happened (surface) and how well it was done (quality)	 Fidelity to the intervention will be conducted for 30% of lessons observed Fidelity will include a checklist that shows how well the teacher followed and included each step as well as a rating scale to measure quality of each step that was included (0-2) 20% of fidelity checks will be double scored by an additional observer
What happened in comparison? The comparison instruction was documented	The comparison classroom will be observed the same number of times as the condition classrooms. The same data that is taken in the intervention classrooms will be taken in the comparison classroom.
Outcome Measures	
Multiple measures are used to measure both immediate effects of the intervention and generalized performance	 The immediate effects of the intervention are measured using 1 measure per DV Generalized performance is measured through teacher interviews and observations
Did the study provide internal consistency reliability, test-retest	Two standardized measures are used (DIBELS, TOSREC)
reliability, and interrater reliability for outcome measures?	Researcher created measures will be explained and examples given
Outcomes for capturing the intervention effect are measured at	• Students will be assessed at week 0, 5, and 10
the appropriate times	• Teachers will be interviewed in weeks 0 and 10
Data collectors and/or scorers are blind to study conditions and unfamiliar with examinees across conditions	While I will not be a blind scorer, other people involved in helping with data work (i.e., Dr. Beach, Dr. Gilson) will be blind to the conditions
Adequate interscorer agreement is documented	20% of assessments will be co-scoredIRR should be higher than 90%
Data Analysis	1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
Were the data analysis techniques appropriately linked to the key research questions and hypothesis? Were they appropriately linked to the unit of analysis in the study?	A rationale for the analysis selected will be included
Did the research report include not only inferential statistics but effect size calculations?	Effort will be made to include effect sizes

Were outcomes for capturing the intervention's effect measured	This will depend on timing; if I can start earlier, I may add an additional
beyond an immediate posttest?	assessment 3-4 weeks out

(Gersten et al., 2005)

APPENDIX B: ACTIVE READING HANDBOOK AND LESSON PLANS

Beekle: The Unimaginary Friend by Dan Santat

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Idea
Students will be able to	Students will be able to	Authors tell stories about
define the words	summarize the events in the	experiences that we can
unimaginable and familiar	story in sequential order.	connect to.
within the context of the	Students will be able to	
story.	answer basic	
	comprehension questions	
	about the story.	
	Students will be able to	
	answer inference questions	
	about the story.	

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Reading 1

Purpose: Basic comprehension, Understanding that authors create characters. Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.
- 2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front cover	Tell students that while we	Define experience: An
	read this book, we will be	experience is something
	learning two new words:	that happens to us. Have
	unimaginable and familiar.	students talk about an
	Write each word and have	experience that has
	students repeat the word	happened to them, you may
	aloud.	need to model this.
	Tell students that	Tell students that Authors
	unimaginable means	tell stories about
	something that you cannot	experiences that we can
	even imagine, or dream of.	connect to.
	Have students repeat the	Tell students that the
	definition.	purpose for reading today
	Tell students that familiar is	is to learn more about the
	something that you already	character in the story.
	know. Have students repeat	Refer to the cover of the
	the definition.	book. Ask: Who do you
		think the main character
		is? What might his name
		be?
He was born on an		Ask: What is an
island far away		imaginary friend? What
isiana iai away		imaginary friends are on
		the island?
		Share out: Ensure that
		students understand that
		imaginary friends are
		friends that kids make up.
		They are not real.
Every night he stood		Ask: How do the
		imaginary friends get
		picked? What happens
		next?
		Share out

His mind filled with thoughts		Ask: What does he imagine his "friend" is doing? Share out
He did the unimaginable	Unimaginable: Define the word Tell students that Beekle is doing something unimaginable, something that he could never have dreamed of doing. Ask: What is he doing? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Beekle is leaving the island without being chosen, like the friends usually do.	
But thinking about his friend gave him the courage		Ask: What is he thinking about? How does this help him? Share out
Until he reached the real world		Ask: Why does the author call this the "real world"? Share out: Ensure that students understand that the place he is coming from is imaginary
Then he finally saw something familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat the word and the definition. Ask: What familiar thing did he see? Share out: You may refer back to the page with the imaginary friends	
He had a good feeling		Ask: What does it mean to have a good feeling about a place? Share out: Ensure that students understand that this means that you think something good will happen, or that you will find what you are looking for

		Ask: Can you think of a time when you had a good feeling about something? What happened? Turn and talk
He thought about how far he'd come		Ask: How far had he come? Share out Ask: How long had he waited? Share out
Her face was friendly and familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat and define the word. Ask: What does it mean that something felt just right? Share out	
After a little while		Ask: What is the imaginary friend's name? Share out Ask: How did he get his name? Share out
The world began to feel a little less strange		Ask: What does it mean that the world felt less strange? Share out: Ensure that students connect this with the word familiar
And together they did the unimaginable	Unimaginable: Have students repeat the word and definition	Ask: What do we know about Beekle? Turn and Talk: Have 1 or 2 students share out. Model how to complete the first column in the graphic organizer. Revisit the big idea. Tell students that tomorrow we are going to think more about the experiences Beekle has.

Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Reading 2

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story, Understanding that authors create events/experiences.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the word	Remind students that Authors
	unimaginable and familiar.	tell stories about experiences that
	Write them and define them.	we can connect to.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize
		what happened to Beekle. We
		are going to think about the
		experiences he has.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about Beeklefrom yesterday's
		reading?
		Whole group: Call on 1-2
		students.
He was born on an		Ask: Where was Beekle born?
island far away		Share out
		Ask: What do the imaginary
		friends do on the island?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the friends play
		and wait.
Every night he		Ask: What did Beekle do? Why
stood under the		did he do this every night?
stars		Share out
His mind filled with		Ask: What does Beekle think is
thoughts		happening to his friend? Why
		isn't his friend imagining him?
		Share out
He did the	Unimaginable: Have	
unimaginable	students repeat and define	
	the word.	

	Ask: How does Beekle leave the island? Why is this unimaginable? Turn and Talk	
But thinking about his friend gave him the courage		Ask: What happened to Beekle when he was sailing? Share out
No one stopped to hear the music		Ask: What happens in the real world? Share out Ask: What does Beekle think of the real world? Share out: You may refer students to the line, "the real world was a strange place"
Then, he finally saw something familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat the word and the definition Ask: What does he see that is familiar? Share out	
But he looked everywhere		Ask: Where did he look for his friend? Share out Ask: Was that a good place to look? Why? Turn and Talk
He climbed to the top of a tree He thought about		Ask: What did Beekle do? Share out Ask: What did Beekle hear?
how far he'd come Her face was friendly and familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat the word and definition Ask: What about Alice was familiar? Share out: Students may talk about her being a friend, or they may refer to the illustration and her picture of them meeting at the tree	Share out
After a little while they realized		Ask: How did they become friends? Share out

		Ask: Think about a time you
		made a friend; what was it
		like?
		Turn and Talk
Beekle and Alice		Ask: What did Beekle and
had many new		Alice do together?
adventures		Share out
And together they	Unimaginable: Have	Ask: Now, let's summarize
did the	students repeat and define	what happened to Beekle in
unimaginable	the word	this story. Model how to
	Ask: What did they do that	summarize the events into key
	was unimaginable?	events using the list of summary
		statements that you recorded.
		Have students complete the
		second column in the graphic
		organizer.
		Ask: Authors create characters
		that have experiences that are
		similar to ours. What
		experience has Beekle had that
		is similar to one that you had?
		Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3
		people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings, Understanding how to infer characters' feelings.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the word unimaginable and	Remind students that Authors tell stories about experiences that we
	familiar. Write them and	can connect to.
	define them.	Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize
		how Beekle feels about what
		happens to him
		Ask: What do you remember
		about Beekle from yesterday's
		reading?
		Share out: Have students recall
		the summarization from the
** 1		previous day.
He was born on an		Ask: How do the imaginary
island far away		friends feel?
		Share out: Students may say that
		they feel excited, or anxious. You
		may refer to the word eagerly to
He weited for		talk about how they feel. Ask: How does it feel to wait
He waited for		now? How is that different than
many nights		how it felt to wait at the
		beginning?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that waiting gets more
		difficult and frustrating the more
		you wait. You may use the
		previous pages to support
		students' understanding.

But his turn never		Ask: How does he feel? How
came		can you tell?
		Share out
He did the	Unimaginable: Have	
unimaginable	students repeat and define	
	the word	
	Ask: How do you think	
	Beekle felt when he did the unimaginable?	
	Share out	
But thinking about	Share out	Ask: What did he need to face
his friend gave		scary things? How do you think
him the courage		he felt while he was sailing?
		Share out
No one stopped to		Ask: What did Beekle think
hear the music		would happen in the real
		world?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Beekle thought
		that it would be more fun; they
		may refer back to the page where
		Beekle is imagining what his
		friend is doing instead of imagining him.
Then, he finally	Familiar: Have students	magming mm.
saw something	repeat the word and the	
familiar	definition	
	Ask: Why was it	
	important to see	
	something familiar? How	
	do you think it made	
	Beekle feel?	
5 1 1 1 1	Share out	
But he looked		Ask: What does it mean to have
everywhere		a "good feeling"?
		Share out
		Ask: Why do you think Beekle had a good feeling about the
		park?
		Share out
		Ask: How did Beekle feel
		leaving the park? How was this
		different than how he felt when
		he entered the park?
		Turn and Talk

He thought about how far he'd come		Ask: How did Beekle feel? Share out: Encourage students to think of different ways to express how Beekle felt using synonyms of sad that might be more specific (despondent, frustrated, in despair) Ask: How do you think Beekle felt when he heard Alice say hello? Share out: Students may say hopeful, excited
Her face was friendly and familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat the word and the definition Ask: How do you think Beekle felt to see something familiar? Share out	
After a little while they realized		Ask: How does it feel to make a friend? Share out
The world began to feel a little less strange		Ask: How did it feel to have a friend? Share out
And together they did the unimaginable	Unimaginable: Have students repeat the word and definition	Ask: Now, let's summarize Beekle felt in the story. Share out: Have students work together to summarize the feeling statements that you recorded through the reading to complete column 3 in the graphic organizer. Ask: Have you ever felt like this? Turn and Talk: Have 1 to 2 people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives, Understanding that authors create experiences that we can connect to

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.
- 4. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

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Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the word	Remind students that Authors
	unimaginable and familiar.	tell stories about experiences
	Write them and define them.	that we can connect to.
		Tell students that the purpose
		for reading today is to talk
		about how we connect to
		Beekle's experience, and what
		we can learn from it.
		Ask: Think about a time when
		you made a new friend. What
		happened?
		Turn and talk
		Ask: How did Beekle feel
		about what happened to him?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall</i>
		the summarization from the
		previous day.
He waited for many		Ask: How does it feel to wait
nights		for a long time?
		Share out
But his turn never		Ask: How does Beekle feel?
came		Have you ever had an
		experience where you felt like
		your turn never came?
		Turn and Talk
He did the	Unimaginable: Have students	
unimaginable	repeat and define the word	
J	Ask: Have you ever done	
	something unimaginable?	
	How did you feel?	

	Share out	
But thinking about his friend gave him the courage		Ask: What do you think about when you are scared to help you continue? Turn and Talk Ask: What do you think Beekle has learned so far? Share out: Students may talk about how Beekle has learned to be brave, or to do things he didn't think he could
No one stopped to hear the music		Ask: Have you ever been in a place that was different than you imagined? Talk about it. What did you learn? Turn and Talk
Then he finally saw something familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat the word and the definition	
Her face was friendly and familiar	Familiar: Have students repeat the word and the definition Ask: Have you ever met someone who felt familiar to you? Turn and Talk	
After a little while they realized		Ask: What do you think Beekle learned about making friends? Share out
And together they did the unimaginable	Unimaginable: Have students repeat the word and definition	Complete the 4 th column in the graphic organizer. Ask: What did Beekle learn? Share out Ask: Authors create characters that have experiences that are similar to ours. What can we learn from Beekle? Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Who are the main characters in the story?	What happened in the beginning?	How did the character feel at the beginning?	What did the character learn from this story?
Where does the story take place?	What happened in the middle?	How did the character feel in the middle?	What can we learn from this story?
	What happened at the end?	How did the character feel at the end?	

Ferdinand by Munro Leaf

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Idea
Students will be able to	Students will be able to	Authors show us how
define the words	summarize the events in the	characters feel by what the
lonesome and fierce	story in sequential order.	character does and what
within the context of the	Students will be able to	they say.
story.	answer basic comprehension	
	questions about the story.	
	Students will be able to	
	answer inference questions	
	about the story.	

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Reading 1 Purpose: Basic comprehension

Preparation:

1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.

2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece

of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Tell students that this week	Define character: A character
	we are going to learn the	is a person or animal in a story.
	words lonesome and fierce.	Ask students to name
	Write each word and have	characters in other stories they
	students repeat the word	have read.
	aloud.	Tell students that Authors
	Tell students that lonesome	show us how characters feel by
	means to be lonely. Have	what the character does and
	students repeat the word and	what they say.
	definition.	Tell students that the purpose
	Tell students that fierce	for reading today is to learn
	means to be mean and violent.	more about the character in
	Have students repeat the word	the story, in this case
	and definition.	Ferdinand. Refer to the title for
		the main character's name. Read the title and author.
		Record the title and author on
		the graphic organizer/chart
		paper for this book.
Once upon a time		Ask: What do we learn about
in Spain		Spain from this page? What
III Spwiii		do you know about Spain?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Spain is a
		country that is far away, and
		that the setting for this story is
		rural Spain (we can see the
		castle and the surrounding
		land). The setting of the story
		is important because of the
		main event (a bull fight), which
		is something that is traditional
TP1 1: 1 1://1		to Spain.
There lived a little		Ask: Who is Ferdinand?
bull Post west Femilia and		Share out
But not Ferdinand		Ask: What does Ferdinand
		like to do?

	T	
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand is
		happy sitting under the tree,
		smelling the flowers.
Sometimes his	Lonesome: create a kid	
mother	friendly definition (to be	
	lonely, to feel alone, to not	
	have anyone that you are	
	friends with)	
Why don't you run		Ask: "shake his head" what
and play		does Ferdinand tell his
		mother?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		know that Ferdinand is telling
		his mother 'no'
A 11 41 41 11-		
All the other bulls		Ask: What did the other bulls
		want?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the bulls
		wanted to be picked to fight in
		Madrid.
One day five men		Ask: Where are the men
		coming from?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		know that the men are coming
		to pick the bulls from Madrid,
		the capital/a city
All the other bulls	Fierce: Create a student	1
	friendly definition (mean,	
	aggressive, likes to fight)	
Ferdinand knew	aggressive, likes to light)	Ask: What did Ferdinand do
		when the other bulls were
that they wouldn't pick him		fighting?
pick iiiii		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand went
Ha did?411		to sit under his cork tree.
He didn't look		Ask: What happened when
where he was		Ferdinand sat down?
sitting		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand sat
		on a bee.
Wow! Did it hurt!		Ask: What did Ferdinand
		do?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand was
		jumping around and pawing
	1	Jamping around and pawing

		the ground and acting very fierce
So they took him away		Ask: Where did they take Ferdinand? Share out: Ensure that students know that they took Ferdinand to Madrid
They called him Ferdinand the Fierce	Fierce: Define the word	
But not Ferdinand		Ask: What does Ferdinand do when he is in the bull ring? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Ferdinand did not fight.
And for all I know		Ask: What do we know about Ferdinand? Turn and Talk: Have 1 or 2 students share out. Model how to complete the first column in the graphic organizer. Revisit the big idea. Tell students that tomorrow we are going to think more about what happened to Ferdinand.

Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of words:	Remind students that Authors
	lonesome and fierce	show us how characters feel by
		what the character does and what
		they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize
		what happened to Ferdinand.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about Ferdinand from
		yesterday's reading?
		Whole group: Call on 1-2
		students.
All the other little		Ask: What do the other little
bulls		bulls do?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the other bulls
		are play fighting.
But not Ferdinand		Ask: How is Ferdinand
		different than the other bulls?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand does
		not like to play fight.
		Ask: What does Ferdinand do
		at the beginning of the story?
		Turn and Talk: Ensure that
		students understand that
		Ferdinand likes to sit under a tree
G 1:	T TT . 1	and smell the flowers.
Sometimes his	Lonesome: Have students	
mother	repeat the word. Define the	
	word.	
	Ask: Why was Ferdinand's	
	mother worried he'd be	
	lonesome?	

	Share out: Ensure that students understand that his mother is worried because he is sitting by himself.	
As the years went by		Ask: How did Ferdinand change? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Ferdinand grew into a big bull.
All the other bulls		Ask: What do the bulls want? Share out: Ensure that students know that the bulls want to fight in Madrid.
But not Ferdinand		Ask: What did Ferdinand want? Share out: Ensure that students know that Ferdinand did not want to fight in Madrid.
One day five men		Ask: What happened? Share out: Ensure that students understand that the five men came to choose a bull to fight in Madrid.
All the other bulls	Fierce: Define fierce. Have students repeat the word. Ask: What did the bulls do to look fierce?	
Ferdinand knew that they		Ask: What does Ferdinand do? Why? Turn and Talk
He didn't look where he was sitting		Ask: What happened? Turn and Talk
Wow! Did it hurt!		Ask: What happened when Ferdinand sat on the bee? Turn and Talk
So they took him away		Ask: What happened to Ferdinand? Share out
Then came the bull		Ask: What is a bull fight? Share out: Use the previous two pages to help students understand who is involved in a bull fight.

They called him	Fierce	
Ferdinand the	Ask: Why did they call him	
Fierce	Ferdinand the Fierce?	
	Turn and Talk	
Ferdinand ran to		Ask: What did the people do
the middle of the		when they saw Ferdinand?
ring		What did they think was going
		to happen?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the people
		clapped because they thought he
		was going to fight
But not Ferdinand		Ask: What did Ferdinand do?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand sat
		and smelled (refer back to the
		page where the flowers in the
		ladies' hair is mentioned)
He wouldn't fight		Ask: What did the people do?
and be fierce		Share out: Ensure that students
		know that Ferdinand did not
		fight, he went back to the
		pasture.
And for all I		Ask: Now, let's summarize
know		what happened to Ferdinand
		in this story. Model how to
		summarize the events into key
		events using the list of summary
		statements that you recorded.
		Have students complete the
		second column in the graphic
		organizer.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

developing k		Tally About Stories
Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors
	words: lonesome and fierce	show us how characters feel by
		what the character does and what
		they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize
		how Ferdinand feels about what
		happens to him. To do this, we
		are going to think about what
		Ferdinand says and does, and
		combine that with how we would
		feel if those things happened to
		us.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about Ferdinand from
		yesterday's reading?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall</i>
		the summarization from the
		previous day.
But not Ferdinand		Ask: What does Ferdinand do?
		Share out
		Ask: What does this tell you
		about the kind of bull
		Ferdinand is?
		Model understanding that
		Ferdinand is a peaceful bull
		because he likes to do peaceful
		things.
Sometimes his	Lonesome: Have students	
mother	repeat the word and the	
	definition	
	Ask: Was Ferdinand	
	lonesome? How do you	
	know?	

	Share out: Ensure that students know that Ferdinand was not lonesome because he was choosing to sit and smell the flowers	
His mother saw that he was not		Ask: What made Ferdinand
lonesome		happy? Share out: Refer back to the page
10110001110		that states that Ferdinand liked
		sitting quietly under the tree if
All the other bulls		necessary Ask: What are the other bulls
All the other other		doing all day? Have they
		changed from when they were
		young?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the bulls have not
		changed except for getting physically bigger
But not Ferdinand		Ask: What has stayed the same
Dat not i Gramana		about Ferdinand? What does
		this tell you about Ferdinand?
		Turn and Talk
Ferdinand knew		Ask: What does Ferdinand do
that they wouldn't		when the men come? What does
pick him		this tell you about what he
		wants? Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Ferdinand refuses
		to fight; he does not care if he
		gets picked to fight in Madrid.
		Ask: How do you think
		Ferdinand feels?
		Turn and Talk: Ensure that
		students understand that
		Ferdinand may feel happy or
		relieved that he doesn't have to
W ID:1:1		fight.
Wow! Did it hurt!		Ask: How does Ferdinand feel
		when the bee sits on him? Share out
		Ask: What does he do when he's
		hurt?
		Share out

So they took him		Ask: How do you think
away		Ferdinand feels at this point in the story? Why?
		Share out: Help students use text
		evidence to support their answers.
The called him	Fierce: Have students repeat	
Ferdinand the	the word and the definition.	
Fierce	Ask: Was Ferdinand really	
	fierce?	
But not Ferdinand		Ask: How does Ferdinand feel
		when he is in the bull ring?
		Why?
		Turn and Talk: Ensure that
		students understand that
		Ferdinand feels the same way he
		feels under the cork tree
And for all I		Ask: Now, let's summarize how
know		Ferdinand felt in the story.
		Share out: <i>Have students work</i>
		together to summarize the feeling
		statements that you recorded
		through the reading to complete
		column 3 in the graphic
		organizer.
		Ask: Have you ever felt like
		this?
		Turn and Talk: Have 1 to 2
		people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

4. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Review: lonesome and fierce	Remind students that Authors show us how characters feel by what the character does and what they say. Tell students that the purpose for reading today is to talk about what we can learn from Ferdinand. To do this, we are going to connect what happens to Ferdinand to our own life. Ask: Are there things about you that do not change? What are those things? Turn and talk Ask: What kind of bull is Ferdinand? Share out: Have students recall the summarization from the previous day.
His mother saw	Lonesome: Have	Ask: Does his mother do the right
that he was not	students repeat the word	thing? Why or why not?
lonesome	and the definition. Ask: Can you be alone	Share out
	and not be lonesome?	
	Share out: Ensure that	
	students understand that	
	you are lonesome when	
	you want to have people	
All the other	around you, but do not. Fierce: Have students	
bulls ran around	repeat the word and	
snorting	definition.	
	Ask: What did the	
	other bulls do to look	
	fierce?	

	Share out	
Wow! Did it		Ask: How was Ferdinand acting?
hurt!		Was this how he usually acts?
		Share out
		Ask: Have you ever had a time
		when you did something that was
		different than how you would
		usually act? What made you act
		differently?
		Turn and Talk
The five men		Ask: Should the men have chosen
		Ferdinand? Why or why not?
		Turn and Talk: Encourage students to
		use text evidence to support their
		opinions.
And for all we		Complete the 4 th column in the
know		graphic organizer.
		Ask: What do you think we can
		learn from Ferdinand?
		Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people
		share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Stand Tall Molly Lou Melon by Patty Lovell

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Ideas
Students will be able to	Students will be able to	Authors create characters
define the words foolish	summarize the events in the	that we can learn from.
and revealed within the	story in sequential order.	
context of the story.	Students will be able to	
	answer basic comprehension	
	questions about the story.	
	Students will be able to	
	answer inference questions	
	about the story.	

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Purpose: Basic comprehension, Understanding that authors create characters. Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.
- 2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front cover	Tell students that this week we	Define character: A character is
	are going to read a book with	a person or animal in a story.
	the words foolish and revealed.	Ask students to name characters
	Tell students the definitions for	in other stories they have read.
	foolish (silly) and revealed	Tell students that we are going to
	(showed).	learn from this character because
		authors create characters that we can learn from.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to learn more
		about the character in the story,
		in this case Molly Lou Melon.
		Refer to the title for the main
		character's name.
		Read the title and author. Record
		the title and author on the
		graphic organizer/chart paper for
		this book.
		Ask: What do you think it
		means to "stand tall"?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		know that stand tall is a phrase
		that means to be proud of
		yourself, like when you stand up
N. 11 T N. 1		straight.
Molly Lou Melon		Ask: What do we learn about
stood just taller		Molly Lou? Share out: Ensure that students
than her dog		know that Molly Lou is short.
		Ask: What does it mean to
		"look up to" someone?
		Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
		know that looking up to someone
		means that you admire them.
		You may give an example of
		someone you look up to, and ask

	students who they look up to in
	their lives.
So she did	Ask: What did Molly Lou do
So she did	that made people look up to
	her?
	Share out: <i>Use the picture to</i>
	understand that Molly Lou
	impressed everyone with her
	balancing on the banister. She is
	doing something that not
	everyone can do.
Molly Lou Melon	Ask: What are buck teeth?
had buck teeth	Share out: Ensure that students
nad buck teem	know that buck teeth are teeth
	that stick out straight.
	Ask: What does it mean that
	"the world will smile along
	with you"?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	know that this means that if
	Molly Lou is happy, then other
	people will be happy with her.
	That emotions are contagious.
	You may share a time that you
	were happy about something and
	people joined in your happiness,
	or ask students to share their
	experiences.
Molly Lou Melon	Ask: What does it mean that
had a voice	Molly Lou had a voice that
nad a voice	sounded like a bullfrog being
	squeezed by a boa constrictor?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	know that this means that her
	voice was not nice to listen to.
	Ask: What does it mean that
	the world will cry tears of joy?
	Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
	know that this means that people
	will be so happy to hear her
	sing, even if she isn't perfect.
So she did	Ask: What does Molly Lou
	Melon do?
	Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
	know that Molly Lou Melon is

		taking her grandmother's
		advice.
Molly Lou Melon		Ask: What does fumble
was often fumble		fingered mean?
fingered		Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
imgered		know that this means that she
		was clumsy. You may ask
		students to share a time when
		they were fumble fingered.
On the first day	Model: Notice the word	Ask: What does it mean to
of school	"foolish."	score a touchdown?
or sensor	Tell students that foolish	Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
	means to feel embarrassed	know that scoring a touchdown
	and silly. Have students	is a good thing.
	repeat the word, and repeat	is a good imig.
	the definition for scrunched.	
On the fourth day	Model: Notice the word	Ask: Why did the other children
J	"revealed."	ooh and aah?
	Tell students that revealed	Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
	means to show something.	understand that oohing and
	Have students repeat the	aahing means that you are
	word, and repeat the	impressed with something. You
	definition for scrunched.	may ask them about things they
		would ooh and aah over (a big
		cake, a nice drawing)
That night Molly		Ask: What do we know about
Lou Melon		Molly Lou Melon?
		Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 or 2</i>
		students share out.
		Model how to complete the first
		column in the graphic organizer.
		Revisit the big idea. Tell
		students that tomorrow we are
		going to think more about what
		experiences Molly Lou has that
		are like ours, and what we can
		learn from her.

Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Review the words foolish (silly) and revealed (showed)	Tell students that we are going to learn from this character because authors create characters that we can learn from. Tell students that the purpose for reading today is to talk about what happens to Molly Lou and we are going to summarize what happens to her. Ask: What do you remember about Molly Lou Melon? Share out
Molly Lou Melon stood / So she did		Ask: What does Molly Lou Melon do? Why? Model: I see that Molly Lou is standing on the banister on one hand, and I remember that her grandmother told her to be proud and let other people look up to her, so I'm thinking that she is taking her grandmother's advice. Ask: What else do you see on this page? Share out: Encourage students to notice that the animals and her friend are all looking up to her (literally).
Molly Lou Melon had buck teeth / So she did		Ask: What is Molly Lou Melon doing? Why? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Molly Lou Melon is taking her grandmother's advice

		. , 1 1 1
		again, to smile wide and not worry
		about what other people say.
Molly Lou		Ask: What is Molly Lou Melon
Melon had a		doing?
voice that		Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
sounded like / So		understand that Molly Lou is
she did		singing, even though she does not
		have a perfect voice.
Molly Lou		Ask: What is Molly Lou Melon
Melon was often		doing?
fumble fingered /		Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
So she did		understand that Molly Lou does
		not worry about being fumble
		fingered. She's not letting it hold
		her back.
And start in a		Ask: What happened to Molly
new school		Lou Melon?
new senioor		Share out
On the first day	Remind students of the word	Model: When I read this page, I
of school	foolish. Have students repeat	am thinking, what happened?
of school	the word. Have students	And I am going to summarize
		0 0
	define the word.	what happened in one sentence.
		I'm thinking about what
		happened to each character,
		Molly and Ronald and what
		each of them did. Ronald Durkin
		teased Molly when they were
		playing football, but Molly Lou
		Melon scored a touchdown.
		Record the summary.
On the second		Ask: What happened on this
day of school		page?
		Share out: <i>Encourage students to</i>
		create a 1-sentence summary of
		what happened. Record the
		summary.
On the third day		Ask: What happened on this
of school		page?
		Turn and Talk: Have students
		create a 1-sentence summary.
		Then, record a synthesis summary.
On the fourth	Remind students of the word	Ask: What happened on this
day of school	revealed. Have students	page?
day of school		Turn and Talk: <i>Have students</i>
	repeat the word. Have	
	students define the word.	create a 1-sentence summary.
		Then, record a synthesis summary.

On the fifth day	Ask: What happened on this
of school	page?
	Turn and Talk: Have students
	create a 1-sentence summary.
	Then, record a synthesis summary.
That night Molly	Complete the second column in
Lou Melon	the graphic organizer. Use the
	summary sentences to create a 3-
	sentence summary of what
	happened in the beginning,
	middle, and end.
	Ask: Authors create characters
	that we can learn from. What do
	you think we can learn from
	Molly Lou Melon?
	Share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings, Understanding that authors create characters that we can learn from.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

developing knowledge.		
Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors create
	words foolish and revealed.	characters that we can learn from.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize how
		Molly Lou feels and what she learns.
		To do this, we are going to think
		about what Molly Lou says and
		does, and combine that with how we
		would feel if those things happened
		to us.
		Ask: What happens to Molly Lou
		Melon in this story?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous
		day.
Molly Lou		Ask: How does Molly Lou Melon
Melon stood /		feel about being the shortest girl in
So she did		first grade?
		Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
		understand that Molly Lou does not
		mind (you may have to help students
		define this phrase as it did not
		bother her). You may ask students to
		talk about something that they "do
		not mind" or that does not bother
		them.
Molly Lou		Ask: How does Molly Lou Melon
Melon had buck		feel about having buck teeth?
teeth / So she		Turn and Talk: Reiterate that Molly
did		Lou does not mind.
Then Molly Lou		Ask: How do you think Molly Lou
Melon moved to		feels about moving to a new
a new town /and		school?

start in a new school		Turn and Talk: Encourage students to connect how they would or have felt about starting in a new school with how Molly Lou feels.
On the first day of school	Review the word foolish. Have students say the word. Ask: Why does Ronald Durkin feel foolish?	Ask: How do you think Ronald Durkin wants Molly Lou Melon to feel? Share out Ask: How does Molly Lou feel? Share out: You may connect this to how students have felt when they were teased and how Molly Lou was similar or different to them.
On the second day of school		Ask: How do you think Ronald Durkin wants Molly Lou Melon to feel? Share out Ask: How does Molly Lou feel? Share out: You may connect this to how students have felt when they were teased and how Molly Lou was similar or different to them.
On the third day of school		Ask: How do you think Ronald Durkin wants Molly Lou Melon to feel? Share out Ask: How does Molly Lou feel? Share out: You may connect this to how students have felt when they were teased and how Molly Lou was similar or different to them.
On the fourth day	Review the definition of revealed. Have students repeat the word. Ask: What does Molly Lou reveal?	Ask: How do you think Ronald Durkin wants Molly Lou Melon to feel? Share out Ask: How does Molly Lou feel? Share out: You may connect this to how students have felt when they were teased and how Molly Lou was similar or different to them.
On the fifth day		Ask: What does Ronald Durkin do? Share out Ask: How has Ronald changed? Share out

	l I	Ask: How does this make Molly
		Lou feel?
		Turn and Talk
That night	l I	Ask: How does Molly Lou feel at
Molly Lou	t	the beginning, middle, and end?
Melon		Complete the third column in the
	[graphic organizer. Use the summary
	s	sentences to create a 3-sentence
	s	summary of how Molly feels at the
		beginning, middle, and end.
		Ask: Authors create characters
	t	that we can learn from. What do
		you think Molly Lou Melon
	1	learned in this story?
		Share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives, Understanding that authors create characters that we can learn from.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

4. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors create
	words foolish and	characters that we can learn from.
	revealed.	Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to talk about what we
		can learn from Molly Lou Melon.
		Ask: Has anyone ever given you
		advice? What advice did they give
		you? What did you do with it?
		Turn and Talk
		Ask: What happens to Molly Lou in
		this story?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous day.
Molly lou melon		Ask: What did Molly Lou Melon's
stood just taller /		grandma tell her? What did she want
So she did		to teach her?
		Share out: Students should conclude
		that Molly Lou's grandmother wanted
		her to be proud and when she does,
		people will be proud of her.
Molly Lou Melon		Ask: What did Molly Lou Melon's
had buck teeth /		grandma tell her? What did she want
So she did		to teach her?
		Share out: Students should conclude
		that her grandma encouraged her to
		smile and not worry about what other
26.11.2		people think.
Molly Lou Melon		Ask: What did Molly Lou Melon's
had a voice / So		grandma tell her? What did she want
she did		to teach her?

Molly Lou Melon was often fumble		Share out: Students should conclude that her grandma taught her to use her voice and everyone else will be happy she did. Ask: What did Molly Lou Melon's grandma tell her? What did she want
fingered/ So she did		to teach her? Share out: Students should conclude that she should believe that she can do things.
On the first day of school	Review the pronunciation and definition of foolish.	Ask: What lesson do you think Molly Lou learns from this? Model: I think Molly Lou learned to ignore people who are teasing her, because she got the football and scored a touchdown and it made Ronald feel foolish.
On the second day of school		Ask: What lesson do you think Molly Lou learns from this? Share out: Students should conclude that Molly learned to ignore people who tease and do things she enjoys and that make her unique.
On the third day of school		Ask: What lesson do you think Molly Lou learns from this? Share out: Students should conclude that Molly Lou learns to use her voice when people are teasing her.
On the fourth day of school	Review the pronunciation and definition of revealed.	Ask: What lesson do you think Molly Lou learns from this? Turn and Talk
On the fifth day of school		Ask: What lesson do you think Molly Lou learns? Turn and Talk Ask: What do you think will happen to Ronald and Molly Lou next? Turn and Talk
That night Molly Lou Melon		Complete the 4 th column in the graphic organizer. Ask: What did Molly Lou learn? Share out Ask: Authors create characters that we can learn from. What can we learn from Molly Lou Melon? Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Officer Buckle and Gloria by Peggy Rathman

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Idea
Students will be able to	Students will be able to	Characters tell us how
define the words	summarize the events in the	they feel by what they do
command and shocked	story in sequential order.	and what they say.
within the context of the	Students will be able to	
story.	answer basic comprehension	
	questions about the story.	
	Students will be able to	
	answer inference questions	
	about the story.	

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Purpose: Basic comprehension, Understanding that authors create characters. Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.
- 2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Tell students that while we	Define character: A character is a
	read this book, we will be	person or animal in a story. Ask
	learning two new words:	students to name characters in
	command and applaud.	other stories they have read.
	Write each word and have	Tell students that Authors show
	students repeat the word	us how characters feel by what
	aloud.	the character does and what they
	Tell students that command	say.
	means to tell. Have them use	Tell students that the purpose for
	their pointer finger to sign	reading today is to learn more
	'tell' (moving their pointer	about the character in the story, in
	finger away from their	this case Offier Buckle. Refer to
	mouth). Have students repeat	the title for the main character's
	the word and the motion.	name.
	Tell students that applaud	Ask: What can we learn about
	means to clap. Model what it	Officer Buckle from the cover?
	looks like to clap. Have	Share out
	students repeat the word and	Read the title and author. Record
	the motion.	the title and author on the graphic
		organizer/chart paper for this
Officer Buckle		book. Ask: What does Officer Buckle
knew more		know?
		Share out: Ensure that students
safety tips		understand that Officer Buckle
		knows all about safety tips. You
		may want to ensure that students
		know what a "safety tip" is
		(something that we can remember
		to help us be more safe).
Officer Buckle		Ask: What does Officer Buckle
shared his safety		do?
tips		Share out: Ensure that students
•		understand that Officer buckle
		tells kids the safety tips.

A ftanward it		Ask: What does business as
Afterward, it was business as		usual mean?
usual		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that nothing changed
		after his speech.
Then one day		Ask: What did Officer Buckle
		get?
		Share out
Children, this is	Command: Define the word ,	
Gloria	have students repeat the	
	word, motion, and	
	definition.	
Officer buckle		Ask: What did Gloria do when
gave safey tip		Officer Buckle was presenting?
number one		Share out: Students may use the
		picture to answer
Officer buckle		Ask: What does "sitting at
checked to see if		attention" mean?
Gloria		Share out: Students may use the
Gioria		picture to answer
Safety Tip		Ask: What does "eyes popped"
number 2		mean?
Humber 2		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that this means that
Never leave a		the children were very surprised.
thumbtack		Ask: Why should you not sit on a thumbtack?
unumbtack		
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that thumbtacks are
0.00 1 11		sharp and will hurt you.
Officer buckle		Ask: What does it mean to
grinned		speak with plenty of
		expression?
		Model for students.
After every		Ask: How does Officer Buckle
speech		feel about Gloria?
		Share out: Refer to the line
		"Officer Buckle loved having a
		buddy"
When he	Applaud: Have students	Ask: What was safety tip
finished safety	repeat and define the word.	number 99?
tip number 99	<u> </u>	Share out
•		Ask: What did Gloria do? Why
		did she do this for this safety
		tip?
		Share out
		Silvi Cott

It started with a puddle of banana	Ensure that students understand "puddle of banana pudding"
pudding	
Safety tip #101	Ask: What do we know about
	Officer Buckle?
	Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 or 2</i>
	students share out.
	Model how to complete the first
	column in the graphic organizer.
	Revisit the big idea. Tell students
	that tomorrow we are going to
	summarize what happened to
	Officer Buckle.

Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the word command and applaud. Write them and define them.	Remind students that Authors show us how characters feel by what the character does and what they say. Tell students that the purpose for reading today is to summarize what happened to Officer Buckle. Ask: What do you remember about Officer Buckle from yesterday's reading? Whole group: Call on 1-2 students
Officer Buckle knew more safety tips than anyone else		Ask: How does Officer Buckle remember all his safety tips? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Officer Buckle keeps them all on a bulletin board. Model: Officer Buckle keeps all his tips on a bulletin board, that makes me think he wants to be able to see them all the time. That makes me think that these are important to him. You may ask students what else we keep on bulletin boards because it is important to us (refer to classroom bulletin boards).

Officer Buckle		Ask: What happens when
shared his safety		Officer Buckle shared his
tips		safety tips with everyone?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the children
		sleep through it; you may want
		to connect this to the name of
		the town (Napville).
Afterward, it was		Ask: What did Officer Buckle
business as usual		tell Mrs. Toppel? What do
		you think happened to Mrs.
		Toppel?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that Mrs. Toppel
TTI 1		probably fell off the chair.
Then one day		Ask: Why do you think
		Officer Buckle brought
		Gloria along?
		Share out: Students may
		suggest that Officer Buckle
		wanted a friend or because he
		thinks the children will like her.
		Encourage students to think
		about what has happened in the
		* *
		story so far (Officer Buckle
		does not yet know that Gloria
		will increase interest).
Children, this is	Command: Have students	
Gloria	repeat the word and the	
	definition.	
	Ask: What command did	
	Officer Buckle give?	
	What did Gloria do?	
	Share out	
Officer buckle	Share out	Ask: What did the children
gave safety tip		do? What were they staring
number one		at?
0.00		Share out
Officer Buckle		Ask: Does Officer Buckle
checked to see if		know what Gloria did? How
Gloria		do you know?
		Share out
Officer buckle		Ask: What does Gloria do?
gave safety tip		What is she acting out?
number two		Share out
number two	1	Share out

Officer Buckle checked on Gloria again Never leave a thumbtack		Ask: What is happening when Officer Buckle is giving his safety tips? What does Officer Buckle think is going on? Share out Ask: "The audience roared." What does this mean? Share out: Ensure that students understand that this means the
Officer buckle grinned		students laughed. Ask: What happened at this safety speech? What did the students do? Share out
The next day, an enormous envelope His favorite letter was written		Ask: What did Officer Buckle get? Share out Ask: What does it mean to "make a good team?" Share out
Officer Buckle was thumbtacking		Ask: What happens? Share out: Help students create a 1-sentence summary
Officer Buckle told his safety tips		Ask: What happened when Officer Buckle gave his safety tips? Share out
Then one day, a television news team		Ask: What happens to Officer Buckle? Share out
When he finished safety tip number ninety nine	Applaud: Have students repeat and define the word. Ask: Why were the students applauding? Share out	
Bravo, bravo		Ask: What did Officer Buckle do? Share out
That night, Officer Buckle watched himself		Ask: What does he see on the news? Share out: Students may need to refer back to the part where the television crew came to answer

The next day, the	Ask: What happens when the
principal of	principal calls to schedule a
Napville school	safety speech? Why?
	Share out
Someone else	Ask: What happens when
from the police	Gloria goes to the school by
station	herself?
	Share out
	Ask: What happened after
	Gloria came to the school?
	Share out
It started with a	Ask: What happened?
puddle of banana	Share out: Help students create
pudding	a 1 sentence summary
The next morning	Ask: What happened?
	Share out: Help students create
	a 1 sentence summary.
Safety tip #101	Ask: Now, let's summarize
	what happened to Officer
	Buckle in this story. Model
	how to summarize the events
	into key events using the list of
	summary statements that you.
	Have students complete the
	second column in the graphic
	organizer.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

developing kr		T
Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Review command and	Remind students that Authors
	shocked. Have students repeat	show us how characters feel by
	the words and the definition to	what the character does and
	go with them.	what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize
		how Officer Buckle feels about
		what happens to him. To do this,
		we are going to think about what
		Officer Buckle says and does,
		and combine that with how we
		would feel if those things
		happened to us.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about Officer Buckle from
		yesterday's reading?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall</i>
		the summarization from the
		previous day.
Officer Buckle		Ask: What is safety tip #77?
knew more safety		Why should you never stand
tips than anyone		on a swivel chair?
else in napville		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand what a swivel chair
		is.
		Ask: How did Officer Buckle
		come up with this safety tip?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		use the picture to figure out that
		Officer Buckle slipped on his
		own swivel chair so he came up
		with the safety tip.

		Ask: How do you think Officer Buckle comes up with the other safety tips? Turn and Talk: Students may say that Officer Buckle uses his own experience. Encourage them to use what they know about the story to answer the question.
Officer Buckle shared his safety tips		Ask: What did the students do while Officer Buckle was reading? How do you think this made him feel? Share out: Help students infer that students were bored; they were sleeping, which shows they were not interested.
Children, this is Gloria	Command: Have students repeat the word and the definition. Ask: What does it mean to obey a command? Share out	
Officer Buckle gave safety tip number 1		Ask: How was this different than what the children did before? Share out: Encourage students to refer back to the start of the book to answer.
Officer buckle checked to see if Gloria was sitting at attention Officer Buckle checked on Gloria again		Ask: Do you think Officer Buckle thought that Gloria was being mischevious? Why? Share out Ask: Officer Buckle says "good dog." Why do you think he says this? What does this tell us about what Officer Buckle knows? Share out
Officer buckle grinned		Ask: How did Officer Buckle feel? Share out: Point out the word surprised in the text. Ask: What happened after this safety speech? Share out

		Ask: Do you think he felt good
		about this speech? Why?
		Turn and Talk
Every letter had a		Ask: What did Officer Buckle
drawing		think about the letters?
5		Share out
His favorite letter		Ask: Do Officer Buckle and
was written		Gloria make a good team?
		Why or why not?
		Share out: Encourage students to
		use information from the story to
		answer
Officer Buckle		Ask: How do you think Officer
was thumbtacking		Buckle feels at this point?
		Share out: Encourage students to
		connect what is happening in the
		story with how they would feel
		to infer how Officer Buckle
		would feel.
Officer Buckle		Ask: How does Officer Buckle
told his safety tips		feel about the safety tip
		speeches now?
		Share out
When he finished	Applaud: Have students repeat	
safety tip number	and define the word	
ninety nine	Ask: What were the students	
	applauding for?	
	Share out	
Bravo bravo		Ask: How does Officer Buckle
		feel after giving the safety
		speech?
		Share out: Help students connect
		the feeling of being proud of
		what you accomplished with
		bowing on stage
That night, Officer		Ask: How do you think Officer
Buckle watched		Buckle is feeling?
himself		Share out: Encourage students to
		connect how they would feel to
		see themselves on TV with the
		story
		Ask: How is Gloria feeling?
		How do you know?
		Share out: Students may use the
		illustration to answer

The next day, the		Ask: Why doesn't Officer
principal of		Buckle want to give the
Napville school		speech? How is he feeling?
		Share out
		Ask: Officer Buckle frowned;
		how is he feeling?
		Share out
Someone else		Ask: How does Gloria feel
from the police		without Officer Buckle?
station		Share out
It started with a		Ask: Why does this happen?
puddle of banana		Share out
pudding		Ask: What happened because
		of the accident?
		Share out
The next morning	Shocked: what does it mean	Ask: How does Officer Buckle
	that Officer buckle was	feel to hear about the
	shocked? How did he feel?	accident? What do you think
		he realizes?
		Share out
Safety tip #101		Ask: Now, let's summarize
		how Officer Buckle felt in the
		story.
		Share out: <i>Have students work</i>
		together to summarize the
		feeling statements that you
		recorded through the reading to
		complete column 3 in the
		graphic organizer.
		Ask: Have you ever felt like
		this?
		Turn and Talk: Have 1 to 2
		people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 3. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 4. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

5. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front	Review applaud and	Remind students that Authors show us
Cover	command. Have students	how characters feel by what the
	repeat the words and the	character does and what they say.
	definitions/motions.	Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to talk about what we
		can learn from Officer Buckle.
		Ask: How did Officer Buckle feel
		about what happened to him?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous day.
Afterward,		Ask: What do you think would
it was		happen if Mrs. Toppel followed the
business as		safety tip?
usual		Share out: Encourage students to
		connect that Mrs. Toppel would not
		fall/she would be safe.
Children,	Command: Have students	
this is	repeat the word and the	
Gloria	definition.	
	Ask: What other	
	commands might you give	
	a dog?	
	Share out	
Officer		Ask: What happened after this safety
buckle		lesson? Should Officer Buckle feel
grinned		good about that?
		Share out
Every letter		Ask: What could Officer Buckle have
had a		learned from these letters?
drawing		Share out

When he finished safety tip number ninety nine After every speech	Applaud: Have students repeat and define the word Ask: What have you applauded after? What makes you applaud? Share out	Ask: How has Gloria and Officer Buckle's relationship changed from the start of the story?
The next day, the principal of Napville school		Share out Ask: Should Officer Buckle have stopped giving speeches? Why or why not? Turn and Talk
Someone else from the police station It started with a puddle of		Ask: What would have happened if Officer Buckle was there? How do you know? Share out Ask: What do you think the children learned? Share out
banana pudding The next morning, a pile of letters		Ask: What do you think Officer Buckle learned from the letters? Share out
Gloria gave officer buckle a big kiss		Ask: How do they feel about each other now? What do you think Gloria would tell Officer buckle if she could talk? Turn and Talk
Safety tip #101		Complete the 4 th column in the graphic organizer. Ask: What did Officer Buckle learn? Share out Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people share out. Ask: What do you learn from this story? Share out

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Wolfie the Bunny by Ame Dyckman

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Idea
Students will be able to	Students will be able to	Characters tell us how they
define the words smitten	summarize the events in the	feel by what they do and
and bundle within the	story in sequential order.	what they say.
context of the story.	Students will be able to	
	answer basic comprehension	
	questions about the story.	
	Students will be able to	
	answer inference questions	
	about the story.	

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Purpose: Basic comprehension, Understanding that authors create characters. Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.
- 2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Tell students that while we read	Define character: A character
	this book, we will be learning	is a person or animal in a story.
	two new words: bundle and	Ask students to name
	smitten.	characters in other stories they
	Write each word and have	have read.
	students repeat the word aloud.	Tell students that Characters
	Tell students that bundle means	tell us how they feel by what
	a small package. Have students	they do and what they say.
	repeat the definition.	Tell students that the purpose
	Tell students that smitten means	for reading today is to learn
	that you are in love with	more about the characters in
	something. Have students repeat	the story.
	the definition.	Look at the cover of the book
		and read the title. Ask: Who
		do you think one of the
		characters will be?
		Read the title and author.
		Record the title and author on
		the graphic organizer/chart
		paper for this book.
The bunny	Bundle: Have students repeat the	
family	word. Point out the bundle in the	
	picture	
	Ask: Where does the bunny	
	family find the bundle?	
TTI 1 1	Share out	
They peeked,		Ask: What was in the
they gasped		bundle?
TT 2	G :44 D C :44	Share out
He's going to eat	Smitten: Define smitten	Ask: Why might bunnies be
us all up	Ask: What were Mama and	worried about adopting a wolf?
	Papa smitten with? Share out	Share out: Ensure that students
	Share out	understand that wolves eat
		bunnies.
		bumiles.

Speaking of	Ask: What does Dot think
Speaking of	
eating	will happen? Why does she
	think this?
XX/1	Share out
When Mama	Ask: What does Dot think
opened the	happened to the carrots?
cupboard	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Dot thinks
	Wolfie stole the carrots
He wants to	Ask: What does Dot mean
help, said mama	when she says 'oh skip it'?
	Share out
Wolfie and Dot	Ask: What is the carrot
went to the	patch?
carrot patch	Share out
Dot was picking	Ask: What does Wolfie do?
one last carrot	Share out
	Ask: What does Dot think is
	going to happen?
	Share out
	Ask: What do you think is
	going to happen?
	Turn and Talk
Help! Cried the	Ask: What happened? Was
bear	your prediction correct?
	Share out
Then Wolfie	Ask: What do you think
pounced	Wolfie is doing?
F	Turn and Talk
Come on little	Ask: Was your prediction
brother	correct?
	Share out
	Ask: What do we know about
	Dot?
	Turn and Talk: Have 1 or 2
	students share out.
	Model how to complete the
	first column in the graphic
	organizer.
	Revisit the big idea. Tell
	students that tomorrow we are
	going to think more about what
	happened to Dot.

Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the word bundle and smitten and define them.	Remind students that Characters tell us how they feel by what they do and what they say. Tell students that the purpose for reading today is to summarize what happened to Dot. Ask: What do you remember about Dot from yesterday's reading? Whole group: Call on 1-2 students.
The bunny family came home	Bundle: Define the word bundle Ask: How do you think the bundle ended up on their doorstep? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Wolfie was abandoned/orphaned.	
They peeked		Ask: "He's ours," says Papa. What does Papa mean? Share out: Ensure that students understand that the bunny family is going to adopt Wolfie as their own child.
He's going to eat us all up	Smitten: Define smitten Ask: How are Mama and Papa showing they are smitten with Wolfie? Share out	
Dot did not		Ask: What does Dot do? Why? Share out

C 1: C	1 1 xxn , xe x
Speaking of	Ask: What are Mama and
eating	Papa doing? Why?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	connect Mama and Papa's
	actions with their being smitten
	with Wolfie; they can't see the
	danger that Dot sees
	Ask: What kind of wolf is
	Wolfie? What do mama and
	papa see in Wolfie?
	Share out
He's going to	Ask: What do Dot's friends
eat us all up,	think of Wolfie? Why do you
they screamed	think of worke. Why do you think they agree with Dot?
they screamed	• 9
F 41 6 44	Share out
For the first time	Ask: What does Wolfie do?
wolfie cried	Why?
	Share out
When Dot	Ask: What does Wolfie do?
returned, Wolfie	Share out
was waiting	Ask: How does Dot respond?
	Share out
	Ask: Is this how brothers and
	sister act?
	Turn and Talk
When Mama	Ask: What happened to the
opened the	carrots?
cupboard	Share out
Dot fetched the	Ask: What happens when Dot
carrot bag	goes to leave for the store?
Carrot bag	Share out
III	
He wants to help	Ask: What does Dot mean
said Mama	when she says "I've got my eye
	on you buster'?
	Share out
Dot was picking	Ask: What does "on guard"
one last carrot	mean? What is Dot doing?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Dot is preparing
	to fight
Dinner! Roared	Ask: What happens to Wolfie?
the bear	Share out
	Ask: What does Dot do?
	Share out
The bear blinked	Ask: What does Dot tell the
The boar billiked	bear?
	neal:

	Share out
Help! Cried the	Ask: What does the bear do?
bear	Why?
	Share out
Come on little	Ask: Now, let's summarize
brother	what happened to Dot in this
	story. Model how to summarize
	the events into key events using
	the list of summary statements
	that you recorded.
	Have students complete the
	second column in the graphic
	organizer.
	Ask: Have you ever changed
	your opinion, or what you
	thought, about someone?
	Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 to 2</i>
	people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Characters
	words bundle and smitten.	show us how they feel by what they
		do and what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize how
		Dot feels about what happens to her.
		To do this, we are going to think
		about what Dot says and does, and
		combine that with how we would feel
		if those things happened to us.
		Ask: What do you remember about
		Dot from yesterday's reading?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous day.
The bunny	Bundle: Define	
family	Ask: How do you think	
	the bunny family felt to	
	find the bundle at their	
	door? What makes you	
	think that?	
	Share out: You may model	
	how to infer that the bunny	
	family was surprised by	
	combining the situation	
** *	with how you would feel.	
He's going to eat	Smitten: Define smitten	
us all up	Ask: How did Mama and	
	papa show how they felt	
	about Wolfie?	
	Share out: Ensure that	
	students understand that	
	Mama and Papa's words	

	and actions above yeather	
	and actions show us that	
D + 111 +	they are smitten	
Dot did not		Ask: How does Dot feel about
		Wolfie? Should she feel this way at
		this point in the story?
a 1: 2		Share out
Speaking of		Ask: What is Dot worried about?
eating		How do Mama and Papa respond
		to Dot's concern?
		Share out
For the first time		Ask: Did Dot know that Wolfie was
Wolfie cried		upset?
		Share out
		Ask: What do you think she would
		have done if she knew Wolfie was
		upset?
		Turn and Talk
When Dot		Ask: What does Wolfie want? How
returned, Wolfie		is he trying to tell Dot what he
was waiting		wants?
		Share out
He wants to help,		Ask: How does Dot feel about
said Mama		taking Wolfie with her to the
		Carrot Patch? How do you know?
		Share out
Dot was picking		Ask: How is Dot feeling when she
one last carrot		says "I knew it!"?
		Share out: Help students connect
		what Dot says to how you may feel if
		you realized that you were right
		(satisfied, justified)
Dinner! Roared		Ask: "It was Dot's chance to run
the bear		away" what does this mean?
the ocal		Share out
The bear blinked		Ask: What does "the bear blinked"
THE OCAL DIHIKCU		
		tell us about how he's feeling? Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that the bear is confused;
		sometimes we blink when we are
D-4 m1 1		confused
Dot relaxed as		Ask: How does Dot feel?
the bear ran		Share out: Ensure students
away		understand that Dot feels relieved.
		Refer them to what Dot says (we're
		safe) and does (relaxes).

Come on little	Ask: Now, let's summarize how Dot
brother	felt in this story.
	Share out: <i>Have students work</i>
	together to summarize the feeling
	statements that you recorded through
	the reading to complete column 3 in
	the graphic organizer.
	Ask: How does Dot and Wolfie's
	relationship change?
	Turn and Talk

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.
- 4. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Front Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Characters show
	words bundle and smitten.	us how they feel by what they do and
		what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to talk about what Dot
		learned and what we can learn from
		this story.
		Ask: Think about a time when you
		changed your mind about someone.
		What happened?
		Turn and talk
		Ask: How did Dot feel in this story?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous day.
The bunny	Bundle: Define the word	
family	bundle	
He's going to	Smitten: Define smitten	
eat us al up	Ask: How do people	
	usually act around little	
	babies? Do people	
	usually act smitten	
	around little babies?	
	Share out	
Speaking of		Ask: What is Dot's opinion of Wolfie
eating, said Dot		at the start of the story? What does
		Dot think of Wolfie at the start of
		the story?
		Share out
When Dot		Ask: What could Dot have done
returned		differently?

	Turn and Talk
	Ask: Why wasn't she more kind to
	Wolfie?
	Share out
When Mama	Ask: Do you think Dot should have
opened the	blamed Wolfie for eating the
cupboard	carrots? Who else might have eaten
	the carrots?
	Share out
He wants to	Ask: How is Mama and Papa's
help, said	opinion of Wolfie different than
Mama	Dot's?
	Share out
	Ask: What could Dot learn from
	what Mama and Papa think of
	Wolfie?
	Share out
Dinner! Roared	Ask: Why do you think Dot ran
the bear	forward?
	Turn and Talk
Come on little	Complete the 4 th column in the graphic
brother	organizer.
	Ask: What did Dot learn about
	Wolfie?
	Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people
	share out.
	Ask: What do you learn from this
	story?
	Share out

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day By Judith Viorst

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Idea
Students will be able to	Students will be able to	Authors show us how
define the words scrunched	summarize the events in the	characters feel by what
and scolded within the	story in sequential order.	the character does and
context of the story.	Students will be able to	what they say.
Scrunched means: to be	answer basic comprehension	
squeezed	questions about the story.	
Scolded: means to tell	Students will be able to	
someone they should not	answer inference questions	
have done something	about the story.	

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Purpose: Basic comprehension, Understanding that authors create characters. Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.
- 2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).			
Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	
Book Cover	Tell students that while we read	Define character: A character is a	
	this book, we will be learning	person or animal in a story. Ask	
	two new words: scrunched and	students to name characters in other	
	scolded.	stories they have read.	
	Write each word and have	Tell students that Authors show us	
	students repeat the word aloud.	how characters feel by what the	
	Tell students that scrunched	character does and what they say.	
	means to be squeezed. Model	Tell students that the purpose for	
	this with your hands (bring	reading today is to learn more about	
	them close together). Have	the character in the story, in this	
	students repeat the word and	case Alexander. Refer to the title	
	motion.	for the main character's name.	
	Tell students that scolded is	Read the title and author. Record	
	what happens when you get in	the title and author on the graphic	
	trouble with your parents. Model what it looks like to be	organizer/chart paper for this book.	
	scolded (wag your finger). Have students repeat the word and the		
	motion.		
I went to	motion.	Think Aloud: As I start reading,	
sleep with		I'm noticing that the author is	
gum in my		using the word I. This tells me	
mouth		that the character is telling the	
		story, not the author. Who is the	
		character?	
		Share out: <i>Alexander</i> .	
At breakfast,		Ask: What did the boys find in	
Anthony		their cereal boxes?	
found a		Share out: Ensure that students	
Corvette		understand that the kids found	
		treats in their cereal boxes. You	
		may talk about the individual treats	
		(car kit, decoder ring) and how,	
		even though we've never seen any	
		of those things, we can infer that	
		they are things that Alexander	
		might want. You may ask students if	

		they have ever gotten a treat in a
		they have ever gotten a treat in a box of cereal.
I think I'll		Ask: Where is Australia?
move to		Share out: Ensure that students
Australia		understand that Australia is a
Australia		
		country that is far away from the United States.
In the car	Model: Notice the word	
	"scrunched."	Ask: Alexander says that if he
pool	Tell students that scrunched	doesn't get a seat by the window,
		he's going to get carsick. What does carsick mean?
	means to be squeezed. Have	
	students repeat the word, and	Share out: Help students understand that carsick is what
	repeat the definition for scrunched.	
	scruncheu.	happens when we feel like we are
		going to throw up in a car. You may
		ask students if they have ever felt
Thomas vyvana		carsick
There were		Ask: Who else is in the story? What other characters have we
two cupcakes		seen?
		Share out: <i>Take two to three</i>
At school		responses. Ask: Alexander drew and
Mrs. Dickens		invisible castle. What does
IVIIS. DICKEIIS		invisible castle. What does
		invisible mean: what is an invisible castle?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that an invisible castle
		is a castle that you can't see, so his paper is blank.
There were		Ask: What does Alexander mean
two cupcakes		when he says, "guess whose
two capeakes		mother forgot to put in dessert?"
		Share out: <i>Ensure that students</i>
		understand that his question is
		referring to his own lunch. You may
		refer the students back to the
		paragraph that explains what
		everyone else had in their lunches.
		The author doesn't say what
		Alexander had in his bag, so we
		can infer that Alexander doesn't
		have anything.
That's what		Ask: What is a cavity?
it was,		Share out: Ensure that students
11 11415,		know what a cavity is and that it is
		know what a cavity is and that it is

because after school		a bad thing to get. You may ask students to share if they have ever gotten a cavity.
While I was	Model: Notice the word	
punching	"scolded." Have students	
Nick for	repeat the word. Alexander's	
saying	mother scolded him. That	
crybaby	means she told him not to do	
	something. What did she tell	
	him not to do?	
	Share out: <i>Have a few students</i>	
	share out. You may turn back to	
	the previous page to reference	
	the fight that Alexander had	
G 4	with his brothers.	A 1 777
So then we		Ask: The shoestore man said that
went to the		they were sold out. What does
shoestore		sold out mean?
		Share out: Ensure students
		understand that sold out means that
		there are no more shoes. You may
		ask students to talk about a time
		when something they wanted was
There were		sold out. Ask: What does Alexander not
lima beans		like?
for dinner		Share out: <i>Call on 1 to 2 students</i> .
Even in		Ask: What do we know about
Australia		Alexander?
Australia		Turn and Talk: Have 1 or 2
		students share out.
		Model how to complete the first
		column in the graphic organizer.
		Revisit the big idea. Tell students
		that tomorrow we are going to think
		more about whether or not
		Alexander is a typical kid.

Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors show
Book Cover	word scrunched and	us how characters feel by what the
	scolded. Write them and	character does and what they say.
	define them.	Tell students that the purpose for
	define them.	reading today is to summarize what
		happened to Alexander.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about Alexander from
		yesterday's reading?
		Whole group: <i>Call on 1-2 students</i> .
I went to sleep with		Model: A lot happened to
gum in my mouth		Alexander! I'm going to think
e j		about how I can summarize what
		happened to him. When I
		summarize, I think about how to
		say what happened in just a few
		words. I'm going to do this by
		thinking about the most
		important things, in this case he
		has gum in his hair when he woke
		up, and he dropped his sweater in
		the sink. His day is off to a really
		bad start! Record summary.
At breakfast		Think Aloud: This time, I'm going
Anthony found a		to summarize again. The most
Corvette		important thing is that Alexander
		didn't get a treat in his cereal
		box. Record summary.
In the car pool	Ask: What does	
	scrunched mean?	
	Ask: Where was	
	Alexander sitting in	
	the car? Why did	

	sitting there make him	
	scrunched?	
	Turn and Talk: <i>Have</i>	
	one or two students	
	contribute responses.	
	_	
	Encourage students to	
	think about what it feels	
	like to sit in the middle	
A	seat.	A 1 XXI 4 1
At school Mrs.		Ask: What happened to
Dickens		Alexander at school?
		Share out: Encourage students to
		contribute their idea of what is
		most important. Record their
		summary in the list of summaries.
I could tell Paul		Ask: What happened to
said I wasn't		Alexander on the playground?
		Share out: <i>Encourage students to</i>
		contribute their idea of what is
		most important. Record their
		summary in the list of summaries.
There were two		Ask: What happened to
cupcakes		Alexander at lunch?
		Share out: <i>Encourage students to</i>
		contribute their idea of what is
		most important. Record their
		summary in the list of summaries.
That's what it was		Ask: What happened to
		Alexander at the dentist?
		Share out: <i>Encourage students to</i>
		contribute their idea of what is
		most important. Record their
		summary in the list of summaries.
While I was	Have students repeat	Ask: What happened to
punching Nick / I	the word scolded and	Alexander?
am having a	the definition.	Share out: Encourage students to
terrible, horrible, no		contribute their idea of what is
good		most important. Record their
		summary in the list of summaries.
So then we went to		Ask: What happened to
the shoestore		Alexander at the shoestore?
		Share out: Encourage students to
		contribute their idea of what is
		most important. Record their
		summary in the list of summaries.
		summerly in the rist of summerles.

When we picked my dad up When I went to bed	Model: On this page, a lot happens! When Alexander says that he forgot his dad said not to play with the copying machine. What happened? Share out: Ensure students understand that "I forgot" means that Alexander actually did play with the copying machine. When he says he was careful, except for his elbow, what happened? Share out: Ensure students understand that Alexander's elbow knocked over the books on the desk. And, when he says that he thinks he called Australia, what happened? Share out: Ensure that students understand that he did play with the phone. What did his dad want him to do? Share out: Ensure that students understand that his dad wanted him not to mess with anything in the office. What did he actually do? Share out: Ensure that students know that Alexander did the things his father didn't want him to do. Let's summarize this. Turn and Talk: Have students create a one-sentence summary. Take 2-3 responses and record a summary. Ask: What happened to Alexander at bathtime? Share out: Encourage students to contribute their idea of what is
	most important. Record their summary in the list of summaries.
Even in Australia	Ask: Now, let's summarize what
	happened to Alexander in this story. Model how to summarize the
	events into key events using the list

of summary statements that you recorded (for example, Alexander had a bad day; he woke up with gum in his hair, he was scrunched on the way to school, he got in trouble from his mom and his dad, and everything went wrong at bedtime). Have students complete the second column in the graphic organizer. Ask: Have you ever had a day that went like this? How did you feel? What did you want to do? Turn and Talk: *Have 1 to 2 people* share out. Ask: Authors create characters that have experiences and feelings that are similar to ours. What do you think, are the experiences that Alexander has similar to/like the ones that you have? Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors show
	word scrunched and	us how characters feel by what the
	scolded.	character does and what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize how
		Alexander feels about what happens
		to him. To do this, we are going to
		think about what Alexander says and
		does, and combine that with how we
		would feel if those things happened
		to us.
		Ask: What do you remember about
		Alexander from yesterday's
		reading?
		Share out: Have students recall the
		summarization from the previous
T 1		day.
I went to sleep		Think Aloud: This time I'm
with gum in my		thinking about how Alexander is
hair		feeling. I can use the words in the
		story, and I know that he had a lot
		of things happen to him that would
		make me mad, like tripping on a skateboard. And, I he uses the
		words terrible, horrible, very bad,
		so I know he's not happy. I can
		also use the picture, and I see that
		Alexander doesn't look happy at
		all. He has his arms crossed and he
		has a grumpy look on his face.
		Also, I can think about what it
		would be like to wake up with gum

		in my hair, I would not like that! So, with all those clues, I know that Alexander is probably not feeling very good. Ask: What are some other words that you could use to describe how Alexander is feeling? Share out: Ensure students provide appropriate synonyms (frustrated, cranky, grumpy)
At breakfast		Ask: How does Alexander feel at breakfast? Share out: Have students contribute responses. If students do not provide an accurate response, direct them back to the text, and how they would feel in Alexander's situation.
In the car pool	Ask: What does scrunched mean? Ask: What happens when Alexander says he is being scrunched? Turn and Talk: Have students discuss the question. Have one or two students share their response.	
At school Mrs. Dickens		Model: We can learn how characters feel through what they say. On this page, Alexander tells us that Mrs. Dickson did not like his picture, that she said he sang too loud, and told him he left out sixteen. From what happened to Alexander, I think that he feels frustrated because if someone kept telling me I was not doing well, I would feel frustrated.
I hope you sit on a tack		Ask: We can learn how characters feel through what they say. What does Alexander say? How does he feel? Share out: Help students create an inference (Alexander feels frustrated/angry, he doesn't really want them to get hurt, he just wants

		the other boys to feel hurt because he
		is hurt).
That's what it		Ask: What does Alexander say to
was		the dentist? What does he mean?
was		Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 or 2 students</i>
		share out. Encourage students to
		understand that Alexander tell the
		dentist this because he is upset; he is
		not really going to Australia.
While I was	Have students repeat the	Ask: How does Alexander feel at
punching	word scolded and the	this point? Why does he feel this
	definition.	way?
		Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 or 2 students</i>
		share out. Encourage students to
		understand that Alexander feels left
		out and like no one listens to him.
So then we went		Ask: How does Alexander feel?
to the shoestore		What does he do or say that makes
		you think that?
		Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 or 2 students</i>
		share out. Encourage students to
		identify the words "but they can't
		make me wear them" as a phrase
		that shows how Alexander is
		frustrated with his new shoes.
My bath was too		Ask: How does Alexander feel?
hot		What does he say that makes you
not		think that?
		Share out: <i>Help students understand</i>
		that when Alexander says "I hate my
		railroad train pajamas"we can infer
		1 0
		that he is not happy about wearing
Even in		them.
Even in		Ask: Now, let's summarize how
Australia		Alexander felt in the story.
		Share out: Have students work
		together to summarize the feeling
		statements that you recorded through
		the reading to complete column 3 in
		the graphic organizer.
		Ask: Have you ever felt like this?
		Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 to 2 people</i>
		share out.
		Ask: Authors create characters
		that have experiences and feelings
		that are similar to ours. Does

Alexander feel the way we would feel if we had a bad day like this?
Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people
share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

4. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors show
	word scrunched and	us how characters feel by what the
	scolded.	character does and what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to talk about
		whether or not Alexander is a
		"typical" or "normal" kid, the type
		of kid that we might meet in class.
		To do this, we are going to connect
		what happens to Alexander to our
		own life.
		Ask: Think about a time when you
		had a bad day. What happened?
		How did you feel?
		Turn and talk
		Ask: How did Alexander feel about
		what happened to him?
		Share out: Have students recall the
		summarization from the previous
		day.
I went to sleep		Ask: When I read today, I'm
with gum		thinking about how Alexander is
		similar to or different from me.
		So, when I read this I'm
		remembering a time when I woke
		up and didn't feel good. I woke up
		already grumpy. Have you ever
		had a day like that?
		Share out: Encourage children to
		share personal experiences. When
		they are finished, have them share

		out how they felt (not the entire experience) and how their feeling was similar to or different from how Alexander felt.
At breakfastI think I'll move to Australia		Ask: What does Alexander say? What do you think he means? Share out: Help students come to the conclusion that Alexander just wants to get away. He thinks if he was somewhere else things would get better.
In the car pool	Ask: What does scrunched mean? Ask: Can you think of a time when you were scrunched? How did you get unscrunched? Turn and Talk: Have one or two students share their responses. Encourage students to connect their experiences to how Alexander felt.	
I hope you sit on a tack		Ask: Has anything like this ever happened to you? What did you do? What else could Alexander have done? Share out: Have 1-2 students share out. Encourage them to connect their experiences to how Alexander was feeling.
There were two cupcakes		Ask: Has anything like this happened to you? How did you react? Turn and Talk: Have 1-2 students share out. Encourage them to connect their experiences to how Alexander was feeling.
That's what it was, because		Ask: What does Alexander tell the dentist? Do you think that's a thing that a kid would tell the dentist? Turn and Talk: Have 1-2 students share out. Encourage them to connect their experiences to how Alexander was feeling.

While I was punching/I am having a terrible	Have students repeat the word scolded and the definition.	Ask: What happened to Alexander? Do you think this is what your mom would do? Turn and Talk: Have 1-2 students share out. Encourage them to connect their experiences to how Alexander was feeling.
So then we went to the shoestore		Ask: What does Alexander mean when he says, but you can't me wear them? Is this how a typical kid would respond? Share out: Have 1-2 students share out. Encourage them to connect their experiences to how Alexander was feeling
When we picked up my dad		Ask: Why doesn't Alexander's dad want them to pick him up anymore? Share out Ask: Did Alexander mean to do any of the things that he did at his dad's office? Share out Ask: Is his dad a typical dad? Why or why not? Turn and Talk: Have 1 or 2 students share out. Encourage them to connect their knowledge with the story.
When I went to bed		Ask: Did Alexander's mom care about his bad day? How do you know? Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 students share their thoughts. Encourage them to ground their answers in the text.
Even in Australia		Complete the 4 th column in the graphic organizer. Ask: What did Alexander learn from this day? Share out Ask: Authors create characters that have experiences and feelings that are similar to ours. Is Alexander a character that could

be a kid in our class? Why or why
not?
Turn and Talk: Have 2 to 3 people
share out.
Ask: What do you learn from this
story?
Share out

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Last Stop on Market Street by Matt de la Pena

Book Objectives

Talk About Words	Talk About Stories	Big Idea
Students will be able to define the words ducked and witness within the context of the story.	Students will be able to summarize the events in the story in sequential order. Students will be able to answer basic comprehension questions about the story. Students will be able to answer inference questions about the story.	Authors show us how characters feel and what they think by what the character does and what they say.

For this lesson, the following routines should be pre-established:

• Turn and talk procedure in which students efficiently pair up, talk about a question, and are prepared to share what they and their partner talked about.

Purpose: Basic comprehension, Understanding that authors create characters. Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson.
- 2. Write the big idea and vocabulary words in a place that they will be available during the read aloud sessions (a large print out of the graphic organizer, a piece of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).

of chart paper, a section of the whiteboard).		
Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Tell students that while we	Define character: A character is a
	read this book, we will be	person or animal in a story. Ask
	learning two new words:	students to name characters in
	ducked and witness.	other stories they have read.
	Write each word and have	Tell students that Authors show us
	students repeat the word aloud.	how characters feel and what they
	Tell students that ducked	think by what the character does
	means to go under. Have	and what they say.
	students pretend to duck under	Tell students that the purpose for
	their hands.	reading today is to learn more
	Tell students that witness is	about the character in the story, in
	someone who sees something.	this case CJ.
	Have students put their hands	Read the title and author. Record
	over their eyes and repeat the	the title and author on the graphic
	word and definition.	organizer/chart paper for this
		book.
		Ask: What do you the Last Stop
		is?
		Share out: Encourage students to
		connect the last stop to riding a
		bus.
CJ pushed		Think Aloud: As I start reading,
through the		I'm thinking about who the
church doors		main character is. The first
		person we read about is CJ.
		Ask: Where was CJ?
		Share out
He ducked	Ducked: Have students repeat	Ask: What is happening while
under his	the word and the definition.	they wait for a bus?
nana's umbrella		Share out
Boy what do we		Ask: What are CJ and his nana
need a car for?		taking?
		Share out
What's that I		Ask: What kind of laugh does
see?		Nana have?

		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand the idea of a "deep
TPI 1 1 1 1		laugh"
The bus lurched		Ask: "how come we always gotta
and stopped		go here after church?" What
		does this tell you about where
		CJ is going?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that this errand is a
		weekly event for CJ.
A man climbed		Ask: What does it mean that CJ
aboard with a		gave up his seat?
spotted dog		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that means that CJ is
		standing so that the man who is
		blind can sit.
Two older boys		Ask: What do the boys have that
got on next.		CJ wants?
got on next.		Share out: Use the picture to help
		students understand that CJ wants
CI 1 1 1		a music player.
CJ looked		Model: help students understand
around as he		what "crumbling sidewalks,"
stepped off the		"broken-down doors" and
bus		"graffiti-tagged windows" and
		"boarded up stores" are.
She smiled and	Witness: Have students repeat	
pointed to the	the word and its definition	
sky		
CJ saw the		Ask: What does CJ see?
perfect rainbow		Share out
He thought his		Ask: Where do CJ and his nana
nana might		go?
laugh		Share out: Ensure that students
<i>8</i>		understand that they are at a
		shelter, giving out food.
		Ask: What do we know about
		CJ?
		Turn and Talk: <i>Have 1 or 2</i>
		students share out.
		Model how to complete the first
		=
		column in the graphic organizer.
		Revisit the big idea. Tell students
		that tomorrow we are going to
		think about what events happen in
		the story.

Purpose: Understanding the sequence of events in the story, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).

3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the word	Remind students that Authors
	ducked and witness. Write	show us how characters feel and
	them and define them.	what they think by what the
		character does and what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize
		what happened to CJ.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about CJ from yesterday's
		reading?
		Whole group: Call on 1-2
		students.
CJ pushed		Ask: What did CJ do?
through the		Share out
church doors		A 1 337
He ducked		Ask: What does nana mean
under his nana's umbrella		when she says that a tree is
umbrena		drinking through a straw?
		Share out: Encourage students to
		connect the analogy of a straw to a tree's trunk
From the bus		Ask: What does CJ see?
stop		Share out: Ensure that students
stop		identify that CJ's friend got into a
		car
Boy what do we		Ask: "A bus that breathes fire."
need a car for		What do you think Nana means
		by this?
		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that she is referring to
		the noise the bus makes and the
		exhaust.

W/1, -42 - 41, -4 T	A -1 XX/L -4 -1 M D 19
What's that I	Ask: What does Mr. Dennis do?
see?	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Mr. Dennis is
	doing a magic trick.
They sat right	Ask: What does Nana do when
up front.	they get on the bus?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Nana gave
	everyone a smile.
	Ask: "She made sure CJ did the
	same." What does Nana want CJ
	to do? Why do you think Nana
	wants CJ to say hello to
	everyone?
	Turn and Talk
The bus lurched	Ask: What does CJ see Miguel
and stopped	and Colby doing?
and stopped	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that CJ thinks that
	Miguel and Colby never go
	anywhere; they don't have to go to
	the soup kitchen.
	-
	Ask: What do you think CJ
	wants to do?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that CJ would rather
1: 1: 1:	not go to the soup kitchen.
A man climbed	Ask: Who do they meet on the
aboard with a	bus?
spotted dog	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that they meet a man
	who is blind.
That's a fact.	Ask: How does the man
Their noses too.	experience the world?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that the man
	experiences the world through his
	other senses.
The older boys	Ask: What does Nana mean
got on next	when she says "you got the real
	thing sitting across from you"?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Nana is referring
	to the person with a guitar.
	w me person wim a guitar.

CJ didn't have to		Ask: What do CJ and Nana do when the man plays music? Why? Share out: Ensure that students understand that CJ and Nana close their eyes, because the blind man suggests that they do that to hear it better.
And in the darkness the rhythm		Ask: What does it mean that CJ's "chest grew full"? Share out: Ensure that students understand that the phrase means that he felt happy
The song ended		Ask: What did CJ do with his coin? Share out
Last stop on market street		Ask: When did CJ get off the bus? Share out: Ensure that students understand that CJ got off the bus at the end of Market Street
CJ looked around as he stepped off the bus		Ask: What did CJ see when he got off the bus? Share out: Ensure that students understand that they are in a part of town that is run down.
She smiled and pointed to the sky	Witness: have students repeat the word and its definition Ask: What does it mean to be a witness for what's beautiful? Share out: Ensure that students understand that when you are a witness, you can see what is beautiful.	
He looked all around them again		Ask: What else did CJ see in the neighborhood? Share out: Help students understand the "bus rounding the corner," the "broken streetlamps," and the 'stray cat shadows"
He thought his nana might laugh		Ask: Now, let's summarize what happened to CJ in this story. Model how to summarize the events into key events using the

	list of summary statements that
	you recorded.
	Have students complete the second
	column in the graphic organizer.
	Ask: Have you ever gone to a
	place that you didn't want to go
	to, and were happy you went?
	Turn and Talk: Have 1 to 2 people
	share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Understanding and inferring character's feelings, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

developing		T
Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors show
	words ducked and witness	us how characters feel and what they
		think by what the character does and
		what they say.
		Tell students that the purpose for
		reading today is to summarize how
		CJ feels about what happens in the
		story. To do this, we are going to
		think about what CJ says and does.
		Ask: What do you remember
		about CJ from yesterday's
		reading?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous
		day.
CJ pushed		Ask: How did CJ feel?
through the		Share out: Ensure that students
church doors		understand that CJ "skipped down

	the steps" this helps tell us that CJ is
	excited
The outside air	Model: "The outside air smelled
smelled like	like freedom" I know that CJ is
freedom	coming out of church, and I know
	that church is somewhere that you
	can't just leave, so I'm thinking
	that CJ is happy he gets to leave
	church right now.
He ducked under	Ask: "How come we gotta wait for
his nana's	a bus in all this wet?" How does
umbrella	CJ feel about waiting for the bus?
	Share out: Encourage students to
	infer that CJ does not like waiting in
	the rain.
From the bus	Ask: What does CJ want?
stop	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that CJ wants to ride in a
	car
	Ask: How do you think CJ feels?
	Turn and Talk: Encourage students
XXII (2 (1 ()	to identify that CJ feels jealous
What's that I	Ask: What does CJ think of the
see?	magic trick?
	Share out: Encourage students to make an inference about how CJ
	feels.
I feel sorry for	Ask: "CJ stared out the window
those boys	feeling sorry for himself." What
those boys	does this mean? How does CJ feel?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that CJ feels like other
	people have it better than him.
	Ask: Have you ever felt sorry for
	yourself? What was happening
	when you felt that way?
	Turn and Talk
That's a fact.	Ask: How does Nana feel about
Their noses too.	meeting the blind man?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Nana is happy to
	meet the man; you may refer to how
	she squeezed his hand.
CJ didn't have to	Ask: What does the blind man
	mean by the "magic of music"?
	Share out: Refer to the next page

And in the		Ask: What happened when CJ
darkness		listened to the music?
uarkiicss		Turn and Talk: Ensure students are
		summarizing CJ's experience.
The same anded		
The song ended		Ask: Why do you think CJ put the
		coin in the man's hand?
		Share out: Students may talk about
		following Nana's direction, or
		because he appreciated the music.
CJ looked		Ask: "He reached for Nana's
around as he		hand." Why did he do this?
stepped off the		Turn and Talk: Encourage students
bus		to combine their knowledge (why do
		you hold your parents' hand?) with
		the story (they got off the bus in a
		run down area) to make an inference
She smiled and	Witness: Have students	.,
pointed at the	repeat the word and its	
sky	definition	
SKy		
	Ask: Why would being	
	surrounded by dirt make	
	you a better witness for	
	what's beautiful?	
	Share out: Ensure that	
	students understand that	
	when you have seen dirt,	
	you can better appreciate	
	things that are beautiful	
CJ saw the		Ask: "He wondered how his nana
perfect rainbow		always found beautiful where he
1		never even thought to look." What
		does CJ notice about his nana?
		Share out
		Ask: Why do you think CJ would
		like to find beautiful things like his
		nana?
		Turn and Talk
Halaskad -11		
He looked all		Ask: How would you describe the
around them		neighborhood they are in?
again		Turn and talk: Help students
		summarize the information about the
		neighborhood from this page and the
		previous pages
When he spotted		Ask: What does it mean that their
their familiar		faces are "familiar"?
faces		

	Share out: Ensure that students understand that CJ has helped out
	here before.
	Ask: How does CJ feel to be at the
	soup kitchen?
	Turn and Talk: Encourage students
	to use the phrase "I'm glad we
	came" to understand how CJ feels.
He thought his	Ask: Now, let's summarize how CJ
nana might laugh	felt in the story.
	Share out: <i>Have students work</i>
	together to summarize the feeling
	statements that you recorded
	through the reading to complete
	column 3 in the graphic organizer.
	Ask: Have you ever had an
	experience like this?
	Turn and Talk: Have 1 to 2 people
	share out.

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

Purpose: Connecting a character to our lives, Understanding that authors create characters.

Preparation:

- 1. Read through the text and add sticky-notes with the questions that will be asked during this read aloud lesson. You may want to assign specific questions to students who need to work on vocabulary or comprehension to share out, or for focus during student turn and talks.
- 2. Have a place to record summaries as you progress through the story (chart paper, whiteboard space, etc).
- 3. Revisit the phrases and questions from the previous readings to engage students' developing knowledge.

4. Encourage students to tell you what is happening on each page so that students are retelling the story.

Page*	Talk About Words	Talk About Stories
Book Cover	Remind students of the	Remind students that Authors show us
	word ducked and witness	how characters feel and what they
		think by what the character does and
		what they say.
		Ask: Think about a time when you
		helped someone, when you could
		have been doing something else.
		How did you feel when it was over?
		Turn and talk
		Ask: How did CJ feel about going to
		the soup kitchen?
		Share out: <i>Have students recall the</i>
		summarization from the previous day.
		Tell students that today we are going
		to read and think about what we can
		learn from this story.
The outside air		Ask: How does CJ feel? How do you
smelled like		know?
freedom		Share out: Encourage students to think
		about how it feels to leave somewhere
		you had to stay in.
He ducked under		Ask: Why does Nana say they have
his nana's		to wait for the bus?
umbrella		Share out: Ensure that students
		understand that nana says that trees
		need water too
		Ask: What do you think Nana wants
		CJ to learn?
		Model: I think Nana is telling CJ
		that everyone deserves things like
		water, even plants.

	Share out: Encourage additional
	responses
Boy, what do we	Ask: Why does Nana think riding a
need a car for?	bus is better?
fieed a car for!	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that Nana thinks that the
	size of the bus and the people on the
	bus are better
	Ask: Do you think Nana is right?
	Why or why not?
	Turn and Talk
They sat right up	Ask: Nana gave everyone a smile. Do
front	you think Nana knows everyone on
	the bus?
	Turn and Talk
	Share out: Encourage students to think
	about how they react to the other
	passengers (you may flip forward in
	the book to refresh their memories)
	Ask: "She made sure CJ did the
	same." Why do you think Nana
	wants CJ to say hello to everyone?
	Share out
I feel sorry for	Ask: Why does Nana feel bad for
those boys	Miguel and Colby?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that the boys will never
	meet the people that she and CJ will
	meet.
	Ask: What does this tell you about
	what is important to Nana?
	Share out: Ensure that students
	understand that relationships and
	people are important to Nana.
That's a fact.	Ask: What do you think Nana wants
Their noses too.	CJ to learn from the blind man?
Then noses too.	Share out: Refer students to the line
	"boy, what do you know about
	seeing?" She may want him to respect
	differences, or understand that we all
	experience the world in a different
CI di da 24 la servit	Way.
CJ didn't have to	Ask: What lesson do you think Nana
	wanted CJ to learn from the man
	with the guitar?

		Share out: Refer students back to when Nana says "you got the real live thing sitting across from you." She wants CJ to experience the real world around him.
The song ended		Ask: What lesson do you think Nana wanted CJ to learn from giving the guitarist his coin? Share out: Ensure that students understand that Nana wants CJ to be appreciative
She smiled and pointed to the sky	Witness: Have students repeat the word and its definition Ask: When have you been a witness to	
	something beautiful? Turn and Talk	
CJ saw a perfect rainbow		Ask: What can CJ learn? Share out: Ensure that students understand that CJ can learn to see more beauty, even in areas that are dirty
He thought his nana might laugh		Complete the 4 th column in the graphic organier. Ask: What did CJlearn from this day? Turn and Talk Ask: What do you learn from this story? Turn and Talk

^{*}Page numbers are indicated by the first few words on the page.

APPENDIX C: TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MATERIALS

Active Reading Survey

1.	Classroom read aloud lessons impact the following reading skills (check all that apply):
	phonemic awarenessword readingfluencyvocabularyreading comprehensionlistening comprehensionunsure
2.	What research based practices are part of Active Reading? (Check all that apply)
	interactive shared reading story talk rich vocabulary instruction dialogic reading unsure
3.	What are the ABCs of Active Reading:
4.	Unsure How does Active Reading teach children new vocabulary words?
	Unsure
5.	How does Active Reading teach children comprehension skills?

____ Unsure

Active Reading

October 9 and 11, 2017

Please complete the pre-test

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand how read aloud (Active Reading) impacts student outcomes
 Identify the ABCs of Active Reading and how each contributes to
- Identity the ABLS of Active Reading and now each contributes to student outcomes
 Understand how to implement Talk about Words and Talk about Stories within Active Reading
 Plan to implement Active Reading in their classroom

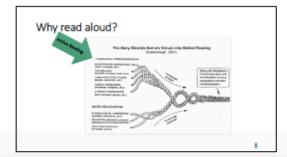
Why read aloud?

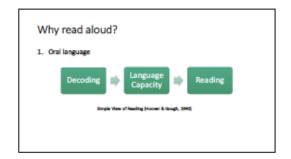
As a teacher, what experiences have you had with read aloud in the past?

Why read aloud?

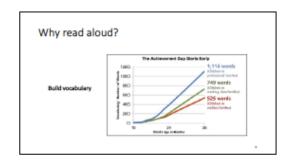
3rd grade reading is important.

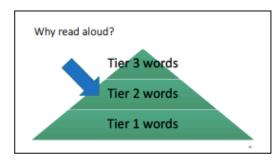
88.5% of students at Rocky River 85 scored a 4 or 5 on the 2015-2016 KOS.

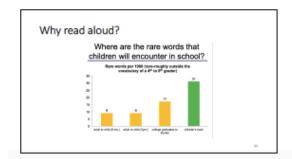


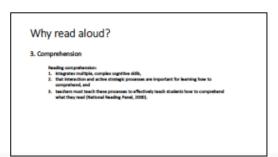


Why read aloud? 1. Oral language As children learn to read printed text, language undergirds their ability to recognize words in print and understand what they read (Wise, Sevcili, Morris, Lovett, & Wolf, 2007). Even as children learn to read, oral language is a critical skill that students must continue to develop alongside their word reading and decoding skills (Storch & Whitehunt, 2002).

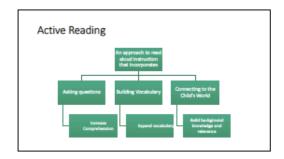


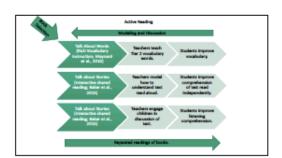






Why read aloud? 3. Comprehension Strategies that support reading comprehension: 10. Instituting comprehension; 10. Inspiration bearing; 10. Instituting comprehension; 10. Instituting comprehension; 10. Instituting comprehension; 10. Instituting; 10. Instituting; 10. Instituting story and backstacture, 10. Institution of the story and an analysis of the story and an analy





Active Reading: Talk About Words

- Goal: Teach students new vocabulary words through storybook reading
- 2 Tier 2 words are taught per lesson
- Words are taught using rich vocabulary instruction (Maynard et al., 2010)

Active Reading: Talk About Words

- Studies (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Lever & Senechal, 2009; Maynard et al., 2010) have consistently found that using an explicit approach to teaching vocabulary works through read aloud improves student vocabulary learning MORE than read aloud by itself.
- In one study (Maynard et al., 2010), 225 African American low-income 1st grade students received rich vocabulary instruction through read aloud and learned more words than 1st graders who did not receive the same instruction.

Active Reading: Talk About Words | New York | New York

Active Reading: Talk About Stories

Goal: Improve student comprehension (listening and reading) by 1) setting a purpose for reading, 2) modeling inferencing, 3) encouraging conversation (pair and whole group) and 4) modeling and practicing summarization using a graphic organizer.

Active Reading: Talk About Stories

- Baker et al. (2013) studied the effect of interactive shared reading on student vocabulary and reading outcomes.
- 225 students in $\mathbf{1}^{\text{st}}$ grade received either interactive shared reading or a control condition
- Interactive shared reading involved: cooperative learning, graphic organizers, story structure, question answering, question generation, and summarization
- Students in the interactive shared reading condition improved narrative retell (comprehension) and vocabulary

Active Reading: Talk About Stories

Reading 1	Reading 2	Reading 8	Reading 6
Soal: To understand the story	dical: To understand the sequence of the story	doal: To understand how the character feels at different points in the story	doel: To make inference about what the author wants the reader to lear
Ask students basis questions about what is happening in the story	Ask students questions about what is happening and why	Ad students questions about how the character feels and why	Ask students questions about what they may learn
Concluding questions: Who are the main characters in the story? Where does the story take place?	Concluding questions: What happened in the beginning, middle, and end?	Concluding question: How did the character feel at the beginning, middle, and end?	Concluding question: What did the character learn from this story? What can we learn from this story?

Active Reading: Reflection

- · What are your initial impressions of Active Reading?
- What do you think your students will gain from it? What do you think might be challenging?

Active Reading

- . From your review of the materials:

 - What did you like?
 What questions do you have?
 Thinking about implementation: What specifics about your class will impact your implementation? How can you plan for those class dynamics?
 - Thinking about implementation: What would be success?
 - Are there any concerns that you have that we can problem solve around?

Please complete the post-test

APPENDIX D: RESEARCHER CREATED VOCABULARY ASSESSMENT

Word List

Word	Definition	
Fierce	Mean and with a lot of energy	
Lonesome	All alone	
Pasture	Field, place where cows eat grass	
Scrunched	Stuck between two things	
Scolded	Told not to do something	
Smushed	Flattened	
Unimaginable	Something you cannot dream of doing	
Courage	To be brave, to do something that is scary	
Familiar	Something that you have seen before, something you know	
Witness	To see, to watch	
Lurched	To move forward	
Ducked	To bend down	
Command	To tell someone to do something	
Applaud	To clap for something	
Auditorium	A place that people sit to see something happen	
Foolish	Silly and embarrassed	
Revealed	Showed	
Stack	Put one on top of another	
Bundle	Small package, something that is wrapped up	
Smitten	In love with	
Appetite	How much you want to eat	

Pre-Assessment

		11C-Assessment	
	Practice:		Does happy mean to
	Нарру		feel angry?
	Word	Yes	N
1		Does fierce mean	11
1	Fierce		
		acting mean, with a	
	_	lot of energy?	
2	Lonesome	Does lonesome mean	
		being all alone?	
3	Pasture	Is a pasture a place	
		where cows eat?	
4	Scrunched		Does scrunched mean
			to be very excited?
5	Scolded		Does scolded mean to
			find something
			interesting?
6	Smushed	Does smushed mean	
		to be flattened?	
7	Unimaginable		Does unimaginable
			mean being the best at
			something?
8	Courage		Does courage mean
			feeling clean?
9	Familiar	Does familiar mean	
		something that you	
		already know?	
10	Witness	Does witness mean to	
10	, , ichiess	see something	
		happen?	
11	Lurched	Does lurch mean to	
1.1	Euronea	move forward?	
12	Ducked	Does ducked mean to	
12	Ducked	bend down?	
13	Command	Does command mean	
13	Command	to tell someone to do	
		something?	
14	Applaud		Does applaud mean to
17	Applaud		be loud?
15	Auditorium	Does auditorium	
1.5	1 Idditorium	mean a place that you	
		sit in to watch	
		something?	
16	Foolish	Does foolish mean	
10	LOOHSH	feeling silly?	
17	Revealed	100mig siny:	Does revealed mean to
1/	Revealed		hide?
10	Stack		Does stacking mean to
18	Stack		stand up straight?
10	Dundle	Does bundle mean	sum up straight!
19	Bundle	something that is	
20	G :44	wrapped up?	Doog amittan t
20	Smitten		Does smitten mean to
			wear lots of clothes in
			the winter?

21	Appetite	Does appetite mean	
		wanting to eat?	

Format taken from: Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2007). Increasing young low-income children's oral vocabulary repertoires through rich and focused instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 107, 251-271.

Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Loftus, S., Zipoli, R., & Kapp, S. (2009). Direct vocabulary instruction in kindergarten: Teaching for breadth versus depth. *The Elementary School Journal*, 110, 1-18.

Post-Assessment

		Post-Assessment	
		Meaning	
	Practice: Red	Is red a color that a	
		fire engine could be?	
Number	Word	Yes	N
1	Fierce		Does fierce mean feeling very sad?
2	Lonesome		Does lonesome mean being with lots of people?
3	Pasture	Is a pasture a place where cows live?	
4	Scrunched	Does scrunched mean to be stuck between two things?	
5	Scolded	Does scolded mean to be told not to do something?	
6	Smushed		Does smushed mean to be bored?
7	Unimaginable	Does unimaginable mean doing something that you didn't think you could do?	
8	Courage	Does courage mean doing something that is scary to you?	
9	Familiar		Does familiar mean being nervous?
10	Witness		Does witness mean someone who is very smart?
11	Lurched	Does lurch men to move forward?	
12	Ducked		Does ducked mean to run?
13	Command		Does command mean to jump?
14	Applaud	Does applaud mean to clap?	
15	Auditorium	Is an auditorium a place that you sit in to watch something?	
16	Foolish		Does foolish mean having a bad dream?
17	Revealed	Does revealed mean to show something?	
18	Stack	Does stack mean to place one thing on top of another?	
19	Bundle		Does bundle mean a type of coat?

20	Smitten	Does smitten mean to be in love with?	
21	Appetite		Does appetite mean
	11		feeling uncomfortable?

Format taken from: Beck, I. L., & Keown, M. G. (2007). Increasing young low-income children's oral vocabulary repertoires through rich and focused instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 107, 251-271.

Coyne, M. D., McCoach, D. B., Loftus, S., Zipoli, R., & Kapp, S. (2009). Direct vocabulary instruction in kindergarten: Teaching for breadth versus depth. *The Elementary School Journal*, *110*, 1-18.

		Pre-test	Post-Test
	Fierce		
	Lonesome		
3	Pasture		
4	Scrunched		
5	Scolded		
)	Smushed		
7	Unimaginable		
•	Courage		
)	Familiar		
0	Witness		
11	Lurched		
.2	Ducked		
13	Command		
4	Applaud		
.5	Auditorium		
16	Foolish		
17	Revealing		
18	Stack		
19	Bundle		
20	Smitten		
1	Appetite		

Number: ____ Condition: ____

Total taught correct

Total untaught correct

No

Practice	3	
Listen to the sent	tence. Answer yes or no	
	Yes	No
1	3	
2	3	
3	3	
4	3	
5	3	
6	3	
7	3	
8	3	
9	3	

Yes

10	3	
11	3	
12	3	
13	3	
14	3	
15	3	
16	3	
17	3	
18	3	
19	3	
20	3	
21	3	

APPENDIX E: TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Pre-Interview

- 1. Tell me about how you plan read alouds. What are the objectives? What standards do you address through read aloud?
- 2. Where does read aloud fit into your work as a teacher; what is the purpose of read aloud in your classroom? Why do you do it?
- 3. What student outcomes do you want to see from read aloud? What student outcomes do you see?
- 4. How do you plan questions? How do you handle asking questions during read aloud? What kinds of questions do you ask?
- 5. How do you engage students in discussion during read aloud?
- 6. How do you teach vocabulary through read aloud?
- 7. How do you encourage students' listening comprehension?
- 8. How do you teach reading comprehension through read aloud?
- 9. How much time do read aloud lessons typically take?
- 10. What challenges do you have with read alouds?
- 11. Any questions?

Post-Interview

- 1. What was the role/purpose of Active Reading in your classroom?
- 2. What outcomes do you see from Active Reading?
- 3. How did you fit Active Reading into your day? What did you have to "edit"? Was it worth it? Why or why not?
- 4. What did you think of the books selected for Active Reading lessons? How were they similar to/different from picture books you would have chosen?
- 5. Did you think Active Reading was a good way to teach vocabulary? Why or why not?
- 6. What did you see in students' vocabulary development?
- 7. Did you think Active Reading was a good way to teach reading comprehension strategies? Why or why not?
- 8. What did you see in students' comprehension?
- 9. How did you make connections during Active Reading? What did you notice in terms of students' making connections?
- 10. How did you engage students in discussion during Active Reading?
- 11. What did you notice in terms of struggling readers with active reading; what was the purpose for them? How did they engage in Active Reading? What did they gain from it?
 - how did you support struggling readers' engagement and learning from Active Reading?
- 12. What were the challenges with Active Reading?
- 13. Do you think you will continue doing Active Reading after the study? Why or why not? What will you change? What will you keep the same?
- 14. Aside from the work with this study, have you received any professional development in literacy since October?
- 15. Aside from the work with this study, have you received any professional development in read aloud since October?
- 16. What questions do you have?

APPENDIX F: ACTIVE READING FIDELITY

Active Reading Fidelity

Date: _	Time:
Book 7	Γitle:
Readir	ng # (are they on lesson 1, 2, 3 or 4):
Total t	ime spent reading (minutes):
Numb	er of students:
	er of opportunities for students to respond: Whole class share out (e.g., choral response, thumbs up):
•	Turn and Talk:
	Times a teacher called on an individual student: Whole close discussion (e.g., multiple students discuss and energy and a greater)
•	Whole class discussion (e.g., multiple students discuss and open ended question):

Directions: For each behavior, check "yes" if it occurred and "no" if it did not occur. Use the notes column or an additional document to track additional information about the reading session (questions asked, etc).

Component	Criteria	Yes	No	Notes
Introducing Vocabulary	Teacher teaches or reviews 2 vocabulary words 1. Teacher provides explicit definition of two vocabulary words 2. Teacher provides opportunity for students to repeat words and definition			
Introducing big idea	3. Teacher introduces or reviews the big idea (found in the Talk about Stories section for Book Cover)			
Setting a Purpose	4. Teacher states the purpose for reading (found in Talk about Stories section for Book Cover)			
Activate Background Knowledge	5. Teacher reviews previously covered content OR asks questions that activates students' background			Record question here:

C	Cuitania	V	NI-	Nata
Component	Criteria	Yes	No	Notes
	knowledge before			
	reading			
	6 T 1 11			
	6. Teacher models			
	thinking at start o the			
Think Aloud	story (see script; if not			
	included in script mark NA and do not			
	calculate)			
	7. Teacher asked at least			Depart questions asked and have
	5 story questions			Record questions asked and how students answered:
	questions while			students answered.
	reading. (Record			-
	number of questions			-
Ask questions	asked total)			
	8. Teacher asked at least			
	1 open-ended question			
	while reading.			
	1. Word 1: Teacher stops			
	at the word and points			
	it out within the text.			
	2. Word 1: Teacher has			
	students repeat the			
	word and the			
	definition.			
	3. Word 1: Teacher			
	asks a question			
	about the word			
Build	used in context of			
Vocabulary	the story			
	4. Word 2: Teacher stops			
	at the word and points			
	it out within the text.			
	5. Word 2: Teacher has			
	students repeat the			
	word and the definition			
	6. Word 2: Teacher asks a			
	question about the			
	word used in context of			
	the story			
	Teacher engages			
	students in completing			
	graphic organizer			-
Concluding	2. Teacher models			
Reading	summarizing			
		1		

Component	Criteria	Yes	No	Notes
	3. Teacher engages students in culminating question/discussion			
	4. Teacher restates the big idea for the day.			
Engaging	Teacher provides opportunity for whole group discussion.			Record number of opportunities:
Students	2. Teacher provides opportunity for partner or Turn and Talk discussion			Record number of opportunities:
	1. Teacher reads fluently			
	2. Teacher reads with			
Overall Reading	3. Teacher indicates enthusiasm about the story/book			
Additional Gen	eral Notes/Observations:			

Scoring

Aspect	Total Possible	Total Scored
Book introduction	5	
Think Aloud	1	
Ask Questions	6	
Build Vocabulary	6	
Concluding Reading	4	
Engaging Students	2	
Overall	3	
TOTAL	27	
Percent	Out of	

APPENDIX G: SOCIAL VALIDITY

Social Validity Survey

Thank you for your hard work! Please complete the following survey, thinking about the Active Reading lessons that you led this semester. This survey will help me understand

what you thought of the lessons, and how feasible they were for you to do.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Active Reading is a	Disagree 1	2	3	Agree 4	5	Agree 6
1.	good way to teach	1	2	3			
2	vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Active Reading is a	1	2	3	4	3	0
	good way to teach						
	reading						
2	comprehension.	1		3	4	5	(
3.	C	1	2	3	4	3	6
	good way to teach						
	listening						
	comprehension.			_			
4.	In the future, I would	1	2	3	4	5	6
	implement Active						
	Reading with						
	enthusiasm.						
5.	Active Reading easily	1	2	3	4	5	6
	fits in with my current						
	teaching practices.						
6.	Active Reading took a	1	2	3	4	5	6
	reasonable amount of						
	class time.						
7.	In the future, I would	1	2	3	4	5	6
	not be interested in						
	implementing Active						
	Reading.						
8.	I have positive attitudes	1	2	3	4	5	6
	about implementing						
	Active Reading.						
9.		1	2	3	4	5	6
,	be resistant to						
	implementing Active						
	Reading.						
10	. I understand the	1	2	3	4	5	6
	procedures of Active						
	Reading.						
11	. I could plan Active	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Reading lessons	-	_		•		
	myself.						
	111 y 5011.						

12 Tl 4 : 1 1	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. The materials and	1	2	3	4	3	6
resources needed for						
Active Reading were						
reasonable.					_	
13. Active Reading is too	1	2	3	4	5	6
complex to implement						
accurately.						
14. The time I needed to	1	2	3	4	5	6
prepare for Active						
Reading lessons was						
minimal.						
15. Active Reading is	1	2	3	4	5	6
consistent with the						
mission of my school.						
16. Active Reading is	1	2	3	4	5	6
consistent with how						
things are done at my						
school.						
17. Active Reading is	1	2	3	4	5	6
consistent with what is						
expected of me in my						
job.						
18. I would need additional	1	2	3	4	5	6
training to implement						
Active Reading.						
19. I would need additional	1	2	3	4	5	6
resources to carry out						
Active Reading.						
20. Active Reading was a	1	2	3	4	5	6
good way to teach	1	2	3	'		O
students who struggle						
to learn to read.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Active Reading would	1	2	3	7	3	U
be a good way to use						
time set aside for read						
aloud.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Active Reading was a	1	2	3	4	3	Ö
good way to teach						
students who are						
learning English.	1	2	2	4	-	
23. I could explain Active	1	2	3	4	5	6
Reading to a peer.		_			_	_
24. I am knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6
about Active Reading						
components.						

25. I would need additional	1	2	3	4	5	6
information to plan my						
own Active Reading						
lessons.						

References

Briesch, A. M, Chafouleas, S. M., Neugebauer, S. R., & Riley-Tillman, T. C. (2013). Assessing influences on intervention implementation: Revision of the Usage Rating Profile-Intervention. *Journal of School Psychology*, *51*, 81-96.

Questions that address core aspects of implementation

Aspect	Questions
Personal	4, 7, 8, 9
enthusiasm/desirability	
Understanding	10, 23, 24, 25
Integrity of the intervention	1, 2, 3, 20, 21, 22
Feasibility	5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16,17,18, 19