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# Interactive Read-Alouds: A Qualitative Study of Kindergarten Students' Analytic Dialogue

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INTERACTIVE READ-ALOUDS:  A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF

KINDERGARTEN STUDENTS' ANALYTIC DIALOGUE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Jacqueline M. Myers

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

May 2015

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
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Title:   Interactive Read-Alouds:  A Qualitative Study of Kindergarten Students'
         Analytic Dialogue

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Interactive storybook reading is a component of literacy instruction that offers children the opportunity to talk about the story before, during, and after the reading (Justice et al., 2005; McGee & Schickendanz, 2007; Sipe, 2000). The focus is on students understanding the story and vocabulary throughout the analytic talk. Research demonstrates that high quality conversations with teachers and peers can enhance vocabulary development (Gest, Holland-Coviello, Welsh, Eicher-Catt, & Gill, 2006; Wasik, 2010). Therefore, it is important for teachers to improve the quality of and provide opportunities for children to engage in talk before, during, and after sharing books. This study explored students' use of vocabulary words throughout their analytic talk following explicit instruction with the words during an interactive read-aloud. Eight kindergarten students enrolled in one class participated in this study. Students' discussions captured during the peer talk were analyzed using *NVivo 10* (QSR, 2012) software. The findings of the analysis suggest the importance of the implementation of daily read-alouds, with opportunities for high quality talk, in the classrooms of young learners. The analyses revealed that children were able to use the sophisticated words in peer conversations following intentional teaching of new vocabulary. Consistent with previous studies, this research demonstrates that explicitly teaching words and providing opportunities to talk about the words,  is a powerful way to enhance student vocabulary and future academic achievement (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010; Fisher & Frey, 2014; McClelland, Acock, & Morrison, 2006).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

"How high I am, How far I see, How Much I do, Depends on Me."

<div align="right">Author Unknown</div>

As I began this endeavor, I continually rehearsed the above quote in my head. It kept me moving along, trudging through, building my confidence, and inspiring me to reach for the stars. Writing a dissertation was one of the stars, a goal, and an accomplishment I wanted to earn. Although the road was not easy, I earned it. I remember once calling my deceased Uncle Shorty and telling him, "Shorty, I am not sure I can do this." He said, "You can do it, if it were easy, everyone would want to do it." And now that I have accomplished my goal, I realize my uncle was right, anything worth anything is hard work and it may not always be easy but it depends on ME! So for my Uncle Shorty, thank you! I hope you are watching over me and I hope I made you proud.

There are many individuals I would like to thank throughout this journey. First of all, I would like to thank my children. They are my joy and my life. So many times I wanted to give up and my children were there to support me and tell me "You can do this, Mom!" I hope that I gave them the inspiration to reach for the stars and work hard to obtain all of their lifetime goals. I love both of you very much!

To my chairperson, Dr. Mary Renck Jalongo, I thank you for your time, support, and mentorship throughout this process. Your knowledge, expertise, guidance, high standards, and motivation has inspired me as a writer, researcher, educator, child advocate, and a believer in all people. I would also like to thank my committee members Dr. Beatrice Fennimore and Dr. Kelli Paquette for their advice and feedback.

To Greenwood District 50 in Greenwood, South Carolina, thank you for all of your training and literacy support.  It is there where I was able to really develop a passion for literacy, specifically interactive read-alouds, and to extend that passion to all of the teachers whom I instructed.  Thank you for believing in me throughout my literacy coaching.

Thank you to my good friend and colleague, Dr. Julie Ankrum.  She helped in the data collection, and was a great mentor and motivator throughout this journey.  She consistently offered feedback and was there for moral support.  I appreciate your support, feedback, patience, and understanding.  Additionally, I want to thank Dr. Bethany McConnell for helping with the data collection.  Thank you to all of my colleagues and mentors at Pitt-Johnstown for supporting me throughout this process.

To my best friends in the cohort, Melissa Tamburrino and Jennifer Depto, thank you.  I remember talking to both of you after our first classes and wondering if I could continue and finish.  Both of you were always there to offer moral support and encouragement.  Thank you for our daily talks about our research, our lives, our children, and our families.  Most of all, thank for your friendship.

Finally, thank you to my biggest fan and my best friend, Jim.  You have weathered the storm.  All those nights and days I was stressed out and not being myself, you stood by me and did not turn your back on me.  I will forever respect you.  You helped me to be the person I am today, I love you!

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Interactive dialogue, defined here as opportunities for children to speak with peers and

the teacher, are scarce throughout classrooms in the United States (Bradley & Reinking, 2011;

Dickinson, Darrow, & Tinubu, 2008). High quality talk requires that teachers provide more

extensive conversations which will lead to higher-level thinking and discourse in classrooms; it

is not sufficient to give directions and get one-word responses from children (Gest, Holland-

Coviello, Welsh, Eicher-Catt, & Gill, 2006). Increased and extensive conversations between

teachers and students or among classmates may enhance oral language development and

vocabulary acquisition (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Gest et al., 2006; Wasik, 2010). Interactive

dialogue plays a vital role in vocabulary development and has long-lasting effects, not only on a

child's academic advancement but also their social skills (Dickinson & Sprague, 2001).

It is noted that people with more sophisticated vocabulary are often times perceived more

positively by others which may further influence their socio-economic opportunities (Cazden,

Cope, Fairclough, & Gee, 1996; Duke, 2000). As Genishi (1988) explains:

> As we use language with others, it shapes our identities and social lives. The way our
>
> own language sounds to listeners leads them to make judgments about where we are
>
> from, what our occupation is, how friendly or clever we are. (p. 78)

In this way, one's language can reflect cultural capital, power, and wealth; all children deserve

equal access to power, wealth, and symbols of recognition regardless of their family's socio-

economic status (Cazden et al., 1996; Ream & Palardy, 2008). One way to narrow this gap is

through our educational system. By building students' oral language through increased

opportunities of interactive dialogue, teachers are instrumental in providing avenues for children to gain cultural capital.

Differences in vocabulary acquisition may exist between children of economic privilege and children from low-income backgrounds (Hart & Risley, 2003; Renner & Moore, 2004). The National Center on Quality Teaching (2012) reports that 40% of White children living in non-rural areas know their letter sounds while just 25% of rural children know letter sounds. Children from different socio-economic groups may also demonstrate various levels of expressive vocabulary knowledge. To illustrate, a study involving several parents from three different areas with various socio-economic levels documented the expressive vocabulary used in their two-year-olds' sentences and phrases. The range was enormous; parents reported that their toddlers knew between 50 and 550 words (Fenson, Dale, Reznick, Bates, Thal, & Pethick, 1994). However, this was self-reported data and some parents may have overestimated their child's language use (Fenson et al., 1994).

It is estimated that preschoolers learn six to 10 new words each day (Maynard, Pullen, & Coyne, 2010; Spodek & Saracho, 1993). If they do not advance vocabulary at this rate, they quickly fall behind peers. There are many influences on vocabulary development including: auditory processing problems, absence of opportunity to practice language with supportive adults, attention disorders, or limited experience with the language of instruction, as often is the case with English Language Learners (Castro-Vazquez, 2011; Martin, 2011). The inability to use vocabulary impacts cultural capital and self-identity (Castro-Vazquez, 2011; Martin, 2011). To illustrate, a three-year ethnographic study that researched a Japanese tutoring program for three, young Latin-American children who recently immigrated to Japan, suggested that Latin-American families felt inadequate living in Japan due to the difficulty in learning the language

(Castro-Vazquez, 2011). It is perceived in Japan that those who are native to the country and have acquired the language are educated citizens; as a result, they are more likely to obtain a well-paying job and build cultural capital. In essence, education leads to a high status in that country. Japanese may place less value on one's funds of knowledge and how language contributes to cultural capital. In some way, this solution mirrors the experience of children in the United States whose first language is not English. Therefore, in order for schools to begin to close these educational gaps, educators need to understand the families' many contributions to children's development or "funds of knowledge" so there is a connection between school learning and a child's home environment (Rios-Aguilar, Kiyama, Gravitt, & Moll, 2011). Funds of knowledge can be defined as skills and resources embedded in the lives of working-class families living in the United States but native to other countries (Velez-Ibanez & Greenberg, 1992). When teachers use these skills and resources in the classroom, students have a more meaningful experience due to the relationship between classroom practices and students' home life.

While literacy knowledge and understanding of vocabulary can influence cultural capital, fluency in discourse, and self-identity, it is also an essential component of literacy development, lifelong success, and reading comprehension (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Duke, 2000). In addition, the amount of vocabulary learned in first grade is a strong predictor of reading comprehension in 11th grade (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997). "In 41 studies of the impact of vocabulary instruction on comprehension, the average effect size was .97 which would theoretically raise the comprehension of an average child from the 50th percentile to the 83rd percentile" (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986, p. 94). Subsequent studies have concluded that vocabulary

knowledge predicts listening and reading comprehension performance with positive correlations ranging from .6 to .8" (Pearson, Hiebert, & Kamil, 2007).

Young children benefit from systematic, intentional, and intensive language instruction (Blachowicz, Fisher, & Ogle, 2006; Coyne, Simmons, Kame'enui, & Stoolmiller, 2004; Dunn & Dunn, 2007). How much teachers talk to children and how often they allow children to converse with each other matters. "Teachers need to engage children in purposeful strategic conversations that focus on explicit development of vocabulary words and help children construct the meaning of words through multiple activities and experiences" (Wasik & Iannone-Campbell, 2012, pp. 321-322). Prerequisites for purposeful strategic talk include: planning, implementing wait time, and developing active listeners (Wasik, & Iannone-Campbell, 2012). A study conducted by Dickson, Darrow, and Tinubu (2008) focused on Head Start teachers' participation in five days of professional development regarding the dynamics of teacher/child interactions during large motor block and dramatic play. The researchers found that although the professional development sessions included information on increasing teacher-children interaction during these times, limited interactions occurred. This research suggested a need for professional development on how to implement pedagogical practices or activities that support interactions between children and teachers in order to increase children's language growth (Bradley & Reinking, 2011). When teachers integrate effective conversations and language development activities into their daily instruction, children will hear more mature vocabulary, and as a result, integrate these words into their oral and written language.

There has been increased pressure to extend students' vocabularies as well as increase their understanding of words in order to strengthen their expressive vocabulary knowledge. It is important to note that students enter school with varying degrees of academic knowledge; some

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students have more background knowledge and larger vocabularies than their peers; this gives them an advantage in learning new content (Arum & Roksa, 2011). Reading aloud to children can provide children with needed background knowledge in order to deepen their understanding of a text and increase vocabulary acquisition.

Meaningful activities related to picture books, such as the interactive read-aloud, encourage strategic talk and enhance students' vocabulary and oral language development. However, it seems that such activities are sparse for some children. Dickinson and Sprague (2001) found that more than half of preschool children were not engaged in high quality talk throughout storybook reading. Therefore, it is imperative for teachers to change the quality of talk before, during, and after sharing books in order to increase academic achievement (McClelland, Acock, & Morrison, 2006). To illustrate, Justice, Meier, and Walpole (2005) examined the learning of new vocabulary with kindergarten students who were identified as at-risk of academic failure. To determine the children who were at-risk, the researchers used performance data from a school-wide early literacy screening and standardized tests that measured children's receptive and expressive vocabulary. The researchers found an increase in the knowledge of target words during storybook reading. Moreover, the positive influence on word knowledge was greatest for the children with the lowest vocabulary scores when the teacher provided an elaboration of the word in context.

Dialogue throughout an interactive read-aloud provides opportunities for children to talk to the teacher and their peers which may improve oral language. Consequently, improving students' oral language has many benefits. Often times, those who have more sophisticated vocabularies are perceived more positively by others which may improve their self-identity and cultural capital. By implementing interactive read-alouds in a classroom, teachers can provide

more explicit instruction of the vocabulary words and allow students to apply these words in meaningful, high-quality conversations before, during, and after the reading.

## Purpose of the Study

Interactive storybook reading, one component of literacy instruction, has been identified as an effective strategy to support early literacy development (Beck & McKeown, 2001; Justice et al., 2005; Lane & Wright, 2007; McGee & Schickendanz, 2007; Sipe, 2000; Wiseman, 2011). Interactive storybook reading is a component of literacy instruction in which the teacher and the students exchange meaningful dialogue before, during, and after the story read aloud by the teacher. The focus of this dialogue is on helping children to understand what they heard in the story--especially the new vocabulary--and relate it to their experiences. Hoffman (2011) refers to this as the teacher and the student co-constructing meaning of the text. During this time, the teacher supports vocabulary growth and comprehension by engaging the class in meaningful dialogue about the text before, during, and after it has been read aloud. Analytic talk is focused on the story. It is developed even further through peer interaction. One particular type of analytic talk--and the focus of this study--occurs when children discuss the story with a peer. This analytic talk allows students to advance their vocabulary acquisition (Beck & McKeown, 2001; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010; Justice et al., 2005). It is the "flooding" (Brabham, Buskist, Henderson, Paleologos, & Baugh, 2012, p. 524) of vocabulary through interactive read-alouds, coupled with word meaning activities that will increase vocabulary knowledge. The purpose of this observational study was to examine how analytic talk, or conversations between students before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud, influence kindergarten children's oral vocabulary. Of particular interest in this study were the patterns of new vocabulary use that emerged during students' analytic talk throughout the read-aloud.

## Research Questions

Research suggests that classroom practices, such as facilitating analytic talk during a read aloud and providing rich experiences with words, can increase students' vocabulary acquisition (Brabham et al., 2012; Coyne et al., 2004; Dickson & Smith, 1994; Hoffman, 2011; Justice et al., 2005; Leung, 2008; Sipe, 2008).  This study examined the use of analytic talk on vocabulary development using four of Sipe's (2000) five conceptual categories before, during, and after a story read aloud.  Thus, this exploratory study focused on the following research questions:

1.  How do children use story vocabulary during their peer interaction?
2.  What types of literary responses are observed during peer dialogue?

## Significance of the Problem

Most research on the topic of children's vocabulary acquisition has been conducted with children in grades three through eight (Justice et al., 2005).  The National Reading Panel (2000) report included only five samples of research using kindergarten students' use of elaborated words during the analytic talk of an interactive read-aloud; therefore, it is an underresearched topic.  It is essential to study vocabulary development of very young children so that efforts can be made to support their vocabulary development in the primary years.

The most effective way for young children to make significant gains in vocabulary development is for teachers to implement strategies that keep students actively engaged and bring meaning to the text they are reading (Jalongo & Sobolak, 2011).  Studies show that children need many, many experiences with a word in order to make it part of their active vocabulary (Coyne, McCoach, Loftus, Zipoli, & Kapp, 2009; Maynard, Pullen, & Coyne, 2010) and the use of analytic talk during an interactive read-aloud serves both as a scaffold for understanding and as a route to additional exposures to new words in context (Hoffman, 2011;

Kindle, 2009; Santoro, Chard, Howard, & Baker, 2008). Therefore, allowing children to interact with their peers throughout an interactive read-aloud enriches and enlarges vocabulary.

## Definition of Terms

Analytical responses. Using a portion of a text to interpret the meaning (Sipe, 2000).

Analytic talk. Conversation that is facilitated by the teacher but occurs between students before, during, and after the interactive read-aloud and focuses on story context and language (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).

Breadth. A measure of the number of words students know, read, or heard (Maynard et al., 2010; Ouellette & Beers, 2010).

Depth. A measure of how well the student understands the concept of a word (Maynard et al., 2010; Ouellette & Beers, 2010).

Dialogic talk. Talk that allows students to express their ideas, thoughts, and opinions to concepts and plots in books read aloud (Swanson, Vaughn, Wanzek, Petsher, Heckert, Cavanaugh, Kraft, & Tackett, 2011).

Expressive vocabulary. Children's use and knowledge of words in spoken and written language (Neuman, Copple, & Bredekamp, 2000).

Intentional teaching. The ability to teach with knowledge and judgment of a child's development in order to obtain a specific goal in the learning process (Epstein, 2007).

Interactive read-aloud. A context in which teachers read aloud a story and guides the discussion of the dialogue occurring before, during, and after the reading (Smolkin & Donovan, 2003).

Intertextual responses. Using other multiple texts such as images, words, and symbols to interpret the meaning (Sipe, 2000).

Personal responses. Connecting the text to one's personal life to interpret the meaning (Sipe, 2000).

Performative responses. Manipulating the text in a creative way to interpret the meaning (Sipe, 2000).

Reading comprehension. The degree to which an individual understands a text. There are many layers to reading comprehension including decoding skills, understanding the vocabulary, and relating the content to prior knowledge (Vaughn & Edmonds, 2006).

Receptive vocabulary. Words students understand and apply when listening and reading (Neuman et al., 2000).

Robust vocabulary. Words that offer rich information and enhance students' language and comprehension (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002).

Tiers of vocabulary learning. According to Beck et al. (2002), there are three tiers of vocabulary learning. Tier one is made up of the most basic words; these words are typically taught as sight words. Tier two refers to words frequently used for mature language. Tier three words have a low frequency use and usually are specific for content area learning. Beck et al.'s (2002) research suggests emphasizing Tier two words due to the powerful impact these words have on verbal functioning.

Transparent responses. The text is mirrored to the students' world or characteristics that resemble their own lives in order to interpret the meaning (Sipe, 2000).

Vocabulary acquisition. The act of knowing and understanding the meaning of words in order to communicate both receptively or expressively in everyday conversations and in print (Neuman & Dwyer, 2009; Pearson, Hiebert, & Kamil, 2007).

Word Knowledge.  According to Dale (1965), there are four stages of word knowledge.

Stage one is having no knowledge of the word; never hearing or seeing the word.  Stage two

refers to one having some exposure to the word but lacking knowledge of the word's meaning.

Limited knowledge of the word's meaning and inconsistency in using the word in one's speaking

and writing comprises stage three.  In stage four of word knowledge, one is able to consistently

and correctly use the word in speaking and writing.

## Assumptions of the Study

Several assumptions in this research study have been identified.  In this research study, it

was assumed that:

- After staff development, the teacher implemented the interactive read-aloud with fidelity.

- Students understood the procedure of an interactive read-aloud and collaborated with their partners to participate in the analytic talk before, during, and after the story.

- The audio-recordings obtained from the students' analytic talk were accurately coded to arrive at themes.

- Data collected from the instruments were adequate for capturing students' analytic talk.

- The methodology for developing the research instrument was appropriate.

## Limitations

Important limitations were considered during the implementation of this observational

study.  First, the number of participants was small and the results were captured themes that

emerged within the six students' analytic talk.  Different results may emerge from a larger

population.  Furthermore, the small, rural school in which the study was conducted may not be indicative to that of other schools.  Consequently, embedding four of Sipe's (2000) five categories of literary responses may not show the same patterns within the analytic talk due to using a small group of children, observed over an extended period of time as they responded to books.  The interactive read-alouds exposed students to certain books with robust vocabulary words and other literature can affect learners' vocabulary in different ways.  In addition, vocabulary instruction through the use of students' oral language in the analytic talk was observed during the interactive read-alouds.  Certainly, it was inappropriate to make assumptions about vocabulary instruction when only one facet of the curriculum was examined.

### Summary

If schools are to exercise a positive effect on children's vocabulary growth, it is essential to investigate which components of interactive storybook reading can support this goal.  Despite the obvious importance of vocabulary for lifelong literacy development, studies show that vocabulary does not receive the attention it deserves in the early childhood curriculum.  Too often, young children are expected to "pick up" words through incidental learning (Robbins & Ehri, 1994) rather than learn vocabulary through intentional, effective instruction.  While research has examined the importance of students' oral language development (Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Nagy & Hiebert, 2011; Jalongo & Sobolak, 2011; Swanson et al., 2011; Wasik & Iannone-Campbell, 2012), there is a scarcity of research conducted with kindergarten children's analytic talk within an interactive read-aloud (Coyne et al., 2004; Justice et al., 2005; National Reading Panel, 2000).  In a meta-analysis of hundreds of empirical studies conducted by the National Early Literacy Panel (2011), one of the major

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recommendations was the importance of building children's oral language through the use of interactive read-alouds.

Patterns in students' oral vocabulary that may develop throughout the analytic talk between peers was revealed in this study by using the framework of Sipe's (2000) five categories of literary response, Beck's et al. (2002) suggestions for the selection of vocabulary words for instruction, and Vygotsky's social linguistic theory. With a better knowledge of students' analytic talk and expressive and receptive vocabulary, educators can implement interactive read-alouds into their instructional planning. Chapter I has described the problem as a scarcity in classroom conversations about books that allow children to talk about newly learned words and the necessity for building children's expressive vocabulary. The chapter has also documented the importance of increasing children's expressive vocabulary through the use of analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review begins with a description of the theoretical framework.  It then explores how children incorporate new words into their speech during early childhood.  Next, research on how children build an understanding of a word is discussed.  Finally, the review focuses on teaching issues related to vocabulary learning in early childhood including:  selecting vocabulary for instruction, the methodologies in delivering an effective interactive read-aloud, and the implementation of analytic talk between students and how it can affect one's expressive vocabulary.

**Theoretical Framework**

Fisher, Frey, and Lapp's (2004) implementation practices were used as a theoretical framework in describing the essential components in delivering an interactive read-aloud.  Fisher et al. (2004) studied the practices of 25 expert teachers and 120 additional teachers to identify common factors of an interactive read-aloud.  The researchers identified seven components of an effective interactive read-aloud to ensure uniformity:

- text selection,

- previewed and practiced,

- clear purpose established,

- fluent reading modeled,

- animation and expression,

- discussing the text, and

- independent reading and writing.

For this reason, this observational study encompassed Fisher's et al. (2004) components, as well as additional factors, in the training and delivery of an effective interactive read-aloud.

The words chosen for explicit vocabulary instruction were selected using Beck et al. (2002) guidelines specifically; Tier Two vocabulary words were the words of focus throughout each read-aloud. Since teachers need to build students' receptive and expressive vocabulary, they need to carefully select words (Byrnes & Wasik, 2009). Just as Goldilocks wanted the "just right" chair, we need to choose the "just right" vocabulary words to instruct (Beck et al., 2002). There are three levels, or tiers, of vocabulary words based on how often the word is used, or its utility, identified by Beck et al. (2002). Figure 1 explains the three tiers and how they relate to an interactive read-aloud.

| | |
|---|---|
| **Tier 1** | • Words used in daily, routine conversation that can be inferred from the context rather easily as well as, sight words or high frequency words.<br>• Example: When reading the story *The Going to Bed Book* (Boynton, 1982), the word **bed,** a Tier one vocabulary word,  would be a word used in daily conversation so student would know and understand the word. |
| **Tier 2** | • Words that are more conceptually challenging that exemplify more mature language such as "courage."<br>• Example: When reading the book  *Crab Moon* (Horowitz & Kiesler, 2004), the word **strewn** is more sophisticated and of mature language or a Tier two word. |
| **Tier 3** | • Words that are related to content areas and are generally not utilized outside of those areas.<br>• Example: When reading the book *The Snowflake: A Water Cycle Story,* the word **evaporate,** would be a  Tier three word connected to science content and may not be used in a child's every day conversation. |

*Figure 1.*  Tiered vocabulary (Beck et al., 2002).

Tier Two words that expand a child's robust vocabulary knowledge (Beck et al., 2002; Santoro et al., 2008) should be chosen for literacy instruction.  Because instructional time is limited, teachers need to select words that have the greatest potential for increasing children's understanding across various oral and written language tasks; get the most mileage out of the word (Kucan, 2012).

The theoretical framework considering how students learn vocabulary was supported by Sipe's (2008) framework for children's literary understanding.  One way to understand how children make meaning is by analyzing their talk before, during, and after a read-aloud.  An analysis of children's talk coupled with an introduction of the vocabulary word using four of Sipe's (2000) five categories (i.e., intertextual,  personal, transparent, and performative), will determine which explicit form of teaching vocabulary enhanced children's use of the word.

Finally, this research study was supported by Vygotsky's (1978) socio-linguistic theory and how it plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development.  In contrast to Jean Piaget's understanding of child development, in which development necessarily leads learning, Vygotsky felt that social learning leads development.  Vygotsky's theory suggests that children develop first within oneself (intrapersonally) and then between others (interpersonally).  This social interaction gives adults, as well as children, the ability to communicate socially in order to develop both interpersonal and intrapersonal to control thoughts (Vygotsky, 1978).  Vygotsky's (1962) sociolinguistic theory suggests both vocabulary and comprehension are acquired through social interactions.  Subsequently, children are not destined by their genes; environmental influences improve skills in children (Brynes & Wasik, 2009).  The sociolinguistic theory also suggests that most learning occurs through social interaction between peers and the teacher, within activities such as analytic talk, in which the dialogue is paramount to enhancing students' academic success (Sipe, 2008).  This theory supports interactive dialogue throughout storybook reading that encourages the application of new vocabulary in students' expressive language (Vygotsky, 1962).  Unfortunately, research has shown that this type of interactive dialogue is often limited in classrooms (Bradley & Reinking, 2011; Dickinson et al., 2008).  Therefore, it

will be determined if children's oral language is enhanced through the use of interactive talk throughout the read-aloud.

## Language Development During Early Childhood

There are four traditional areas of language development; two that are receptive and two that are expressive. Receptive vocabulary development refers to words students understand and apply in listening and reading (Neumann, Copple, & Bredekamp, 2000). Expressive vocabulary development refers to the children's ability to use words in spoken and written language.

The early childhood years are an irreplaceable and important phase in language development. Communication processes require a sender, a message, a means of communication, a receiver, and a context for the communication (Jalongo, 2011). Babies begin the oral communication process by crying to let the caregiver know there is something wrong. Throughout infancy, babies are often times talked to using exaggerated speech. This speech is referred to as "parentese" (Vukelich, Christie, & Enz, 2012). After carefully watching the caregiver's mouth and lips during this baby talk, infants begin to babble around four to six months of age (Jalongo, 2011; Vukelich et al., 2012). At nine to 12 months children begin to string babbles together which sound like words. This babbling is referred to as expressive jargon (Jalongo, 2011). Up until typically developing children are 13 months old, words in their expressive language are acquired slowly. However, around 14 months of age, the rate can multiply six-fold (McMurray, 2007).

Children usually begin to speak their first word around 12 months of age (Jalongo, 2011; McMurray, 2007). Even though young children may only speak one or two words, they may understand 40-50 words in their receptive language (Jalongo, 2011; McMurray, 2007). According to Jalongo and Sobolak (2011), "The language development of a young child is

unique in that it is estimated that their receptive vocabulary often is four times greater than their expressive vocabulary" (p. 422). Children then begin to acquire new words rapidly; it is estimated that by 18 months of age, children learn eight to 10 new words per week (Jalongo, 2011; McMurray, 2007). By 36 months of age, a typically developing child often will be able to speak hundreds of words (Vukelich et al., 2012). All children need to make rapid gains in both their receptive and expressive vocabulary in order to effectively communicate (Dalton & Grisham, 2011).

Around the age of 18 months to 24 months, children begin to link two words together. Often times, this two-word utterance is missing a linking verb with the child only referring to a noun and an action (e.g., "Mommy juice" to mean "Mom can I have more juice?"). This talk is identified as telegraphic speech; children are saying a statement in the fewest words possible, leaving out articles, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs similar to a telegram (Jalongo, 2011). At this age of development, a child's brain is fully functioning and relies on experiences and opportunities to enhance the language development (Vukelich et al., 2012). In normal language development, this continues in this direction until a child learns to speak in more adult-like ways (Jalongo, 2011).

In a longitudinal study by Lindsey, Manis, and Bailey (2003) researchers examined 249 Spanish-speaking English language learners on cross-linguistic precursors of reading skills. The findings suggested that students' expressive vocabulary at the beginning of kindergarten was strongly related to comprehension and word identification in later reading. Since the sample population was only comprised of non-English speaking children, the study may have been limited because more emphasis was given to the phonological and letter recognition aspects for word identification than to oral-language skills. Moreover, the content of what the children were

learning at home was not accounted for in this study. Lindsey et al.'s (2003) findings were echoed in research conducted by Wise, Sevcik, Morris, Lovett, and Wolf (2007). The researchers in this study explored the relationship among students' expressive vocabulary, word identification, and later reading development with a sample of second and third graders considered to have a reading disability. Wise et al. found that the students' expressive vocabulary knowledge facilitated word identification and was directly correlated to later reading development. However, this study was limited to students with reading disabilities and was not generalizable to more typically developing young language learners.

Using a more diverse sample, Chiappe, Chiappe, and Gottardo (2004) studied two groups of children representing 13 children with low reading scores and 49 good readers in grades one through three. The researchers examined the children's tasks on expressive and receptive vocabulary, reading skills, phonological awareness, repetition of nonsense words, and phoneme identification. Chiappe et al. (2004) found that the poor readers possessed significantly lower expressive vocabulary scores than good readers. After analyzing the data, the researchers concluded that expressive vocabulary correlated more strongly with phonological awareness than with word identification. Although the described research suggests contrasting results, it is clear that expressive vocabulary is correlated to overall reading development (Chiappe et al., 2004; Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Lindsey et al., 2003; Wise et al., 2007).

In order for children to be able to fully use a word in their expressive vocabulary and ultimately acquire 10,000 words in their vocabulary repertoire by the end of second grade (Brynes & Wasik, 2009), they need ample opportunities to practice using the words in conversations. Repeated exposures to words in meaningful contexts allow learners to gain breadth and depth of understanding with new words. Breadth refers to the number of words

children understand and depth is grasping multiple meanings and variances of meanings in words (Maynard, Pullen, & Coyne, 2010). Merely memorizing definitions will not allow the child to deeply know the word. Jenkins (2005) described the short-term memorization of word lists as giving students "permission to forget" (p. 1); this memorization is likely to result in a low net gain of vocabulary words. "Students need to use the words richly and flexibly" to fully understand the word's meaning (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010, p. 145). It is clear that children need to pronounce a word correctly, identify the word, and be able to use it correctly in their speaking and writing; this will allow children to truly know the new word.

## How Young Children Develop the Concept of a Word

Children's understanding of a word is very important in order to obtain identification of the word and enhance reading ability (Templeton & Thomas, 2001). It has been noted in research that at a very young age, children respond to understanding the concept of a word, or units in speech and print (Templeton & Thomas, 2001; Tuckwiller, Pullen, & Coyne, 2010). Knowledge of word meanings is a predictor of oral language and literacy development, both of which, contribute to academic achievement and success in literacy (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Ouellette & Beers, 2010; Wise et al., 2007). In order to accomplish knowledge of words, McMurray (2007) suggested children learn words in parallel or make associations between words and among certain words that have more utility than others for academic work. Children also need to be introduced to more mature vocabulary in order to have an increase in vocabulary acquisition. Nelson (1974) argued that children learn new vocabulary or concepts in two processes. First, learners relate the word to other words, themselves, or an action, and analyze the word's attributes. Then, learners synthesize the attributes to understand the core concept of

the word.  For example, when a child plays "ball" with an adult, the child analyzes the object

(ball), the various actions, and the people playing.  The child then synthesizes the various

attributes (e.g., throwing, catching, rolling, mom played) to develop the concept of the word.

These associations help children develop a core understanding of the word.  As Nelson (1974)

explained, children need to understand the core of the concept, including relationships and

actions from which the concept developed, and not merely features of the word, in order to

understand the meaning.  Word learning is of vital importance in literacy learning.

Words are not merely known or unknown; instead, experts describe word knowledge as a

continuum of understanding.  For example, Dale (1965) explained four stages of vocabulary or

word knowledge (see Figure 2).

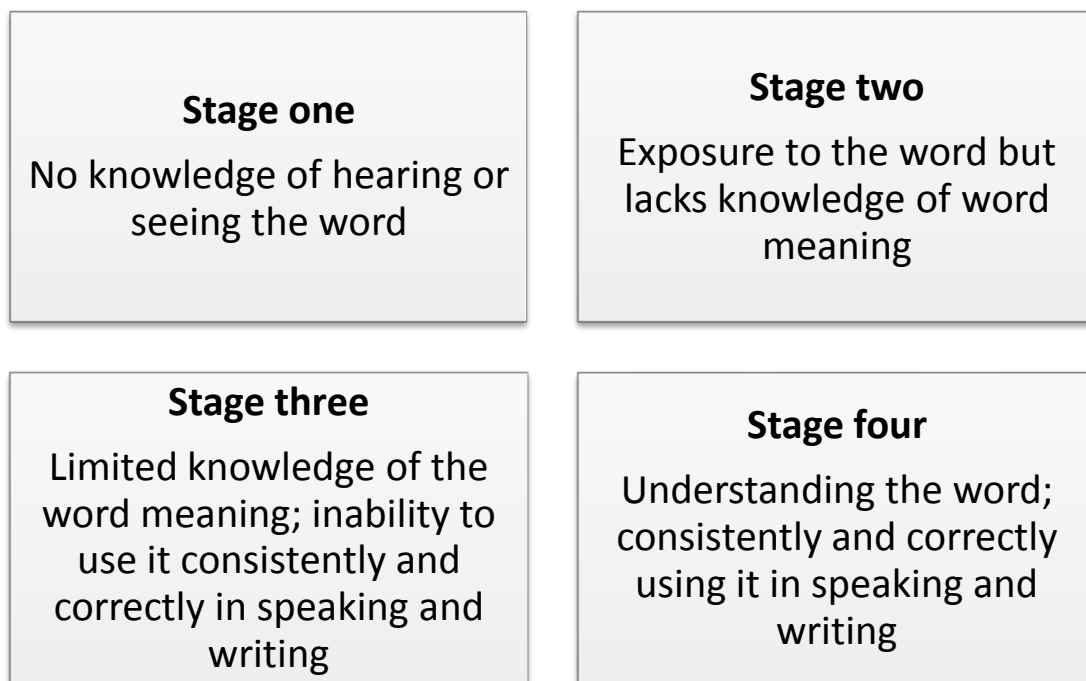| **Stage one**<br><br>No knowledge of hearing or seeing the word | **Stage two**<br><br>Exposure to the word but lacks knowledge of word meaning |
| :---: | :---: |
| **Stage three**<br><br>Limited knowledge of the word meaning; inability to use it consistently and correctly in speaking and writing | **Stage four**<br><br>Understanding the word; consistently and correctly using it in speaking and writing |

*Figure 2.*  Dale's four stages of word knowledge.

Similarly, Beck, McKeown, and Omanson (1987) described word knowledge as a scale

beginning with no knowledge, moving to general understanding, and then to knowing words in

particular contexts but not as multi-meaning words, to having a working knowledge of the word

but not being able to apply the word, and finally to knowing a word in various contexts and its

similarities to other words or word associations.  Most recently, Bravo and Cervetti (2008)

suggested a range of word knowledge similar to Beck et al. (1987) work.  This scale ranges from

students having no encounters with a word, to students having the ability to pronounce the word

and provide a simple definition, to students pronouncing the word correctly, defining the word,

and correctly applying the word in their spoken and written language.  All three word knowledge

scales imply that deep word knowledge is complex.  In order to truly know a word, it is

imperative that learners are able to use a word effectively in expressive language rather than just

supply a definition of the word (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010).  When children process a "shallow

metric" of word knowledge (Stahl & Bravo, 2010), they are not able to apply word knowledge to

enhance comprehension.  It is the acquisition of deep word knowledge that contributes to

expressive oral language development and ultimately reading comprehension in young children

(Farstrup & Samuels, 2008).

It is important to explicitly explain new words to children in order to increase word

meaning.  Nilsen, Graham, and Pettigrew (2009) conducted an investigative study of 126

children ranging from 3.0 to 3.9 years in preschools and childcare centers and their perceptions

of newly introduced words.  The researchers found that when children were given a label and a

small descriptor of the object, three year olds were better able to "map" or associate words to

objects (Nilsen et al., 2009).  In other words, when adults ask children to find an object, the

children expect to hear a descriptor of the object in order to map the word for proper

identification.  Therefore, the speaker's cues have significance on children's interpretation of the

word (Nilsen et al., 2009).  Adults who map words are able to identify a word, give a descriptor

of the word, and draw children's attention to the illustration in order for children to make an association to the word and later identify the object.

However, some schools and families are not able to afford the time for the valuable practice of explicit instruction of new words. In schools, teachers have time constraints due to preparing children for state-wide testing. In families, long, intense days of laboring are spent in the mills. Such is the case of the families in Trackton and Roadville communities in Heath's (1987) frequently cited landmark ethnographic study. Heath (1987) went into two different textile mill areas in the Piedmont area of South Carolina to trace children's language development and the way their use of words differed. This ethnographic study portrayed how differences in language among three groups of people had a relationship to educational and cultural capital. The participants in the study came from Roadville, a community that was populated primarily by White, working-class families, and Trackton, a Black working-class community. A third group of participants was labeled "townspeople;" they were described as those who had influence on the community and were considered important. Most townspeople lived in a 15 mile radius of the cities of Roadville and Trackton and could be identified by their speech and their managerial positions held within the communities. Conversely, the people of Roadville and Trackton lived in the mill villages and were considered the "workers" in the textile plants. Heath (1987) spent nine years tracing the language and learning habits of children by living, working, and playing with the children and families and friends of both communities. Parents in both communities understood the importance of language and intuitively knew it had cultural merit; however, those who lived in the textile mill areas had less time for talking and reading to their children due to their long days of physical labor. The townspeople, on the other hand, tended to have more leisure time and physical energy to spend talking and reading to their

children.  Therefore, for some students, barriers exist that prohibit adequate vocabulary

development.  Research suggests that there is a risk for some children living in poverty which

may be associated with fewer opportunities for interactive language as adults often work at

multiple minimum wage jobs (Arum & Roksa, 2011).  Children from some disadvantaged homes

are not exposed to robust vocabulary within their homes.  Hart and Risley (2003) observed 42

families with one and two year old children learning to talk for 2.5 years.  They estimated  that

children from economically disadvantaged homes heard an average of 616 words per hour, those

in working class homes heard an average of 1,251 words per hour, and children raised in an

economically affluent family environments heard an average 2,153 per hour.  On average, socio-

economically disadvantaged children heard 13 million fewer words than that of their most

economically advantaged peers (Hart & Risley, 2003).  This study was embraced by the media as

evidence of "30 million word deficiency" in a child's receptive language (Hart & Risley, 2003).

However, others have questioned the methods used to arrive at these numbers and the

overgeneralization of these results (Dudley-Marling & Lucas, 2009).  Too often fault is found

with families from low-income backgrounds and educators may look at these statics as

impossible odds instead of enhanced opportunities for more talk within their classroom.

In the context of a joint-storybook reading with infants ranging in age from 17 to 22

months and their mothers, Nino (1980) studied infant vocabulary acquisition.  The researchers

found that mothers from a low socio-economic status tended to ask more "where" questions only

requiring children to point and provided few labels for objects during the reading.  These

children had more imitative vocabulary and less productive vocabulary.  Conversely, mothers

from more economically affluent backgrounds tended to provide more opportunities for their

children to produce vocabulary instead of imitating the words causing an increase in their child's

vocabulary acquisition. Again, such research suggests that children from low-income families may not be provided the same types of vocabulary development opportunities. However, demographic data from 2010 indicated that 29 million U.S. workers were unemployed or underemployed in the final quarter (Lewis & Burd-Sharps, 2010) due to the recession of 2007-2009. As found earlier by Renner and Moore (2004), one result is that socio-economic disparities have become even more pronounced. More than 50% of rural families are categorized as impoverished, defined as less than $75,000 annual income for a family of four (Redding & Walberg, 2012). Using these data, if one concluded that low income families provided less talk and less mature language there would be too many children affected by the downward spiral in the economy and all would be inclined to "give up" on trying to close these gaps in vocabulary.

Research supports the need for parents and teachers to enhance children's receptive and expressive robust vocabulary. The practice of using rich experiences such as an interactive read-aloud in order for all children to make the necessary gains in their vocabulary acquisition is one possible intervention that could bolster young children's vocabulary growth.

## The Role of Vocabulary Instruction in Literacy

It is impossible to be a skilled reader if one has a limited vocabulary (Byrnes & Wasik, 2009). Vocabulary can be defined as knowledge of the meaning of a word (Verhoeven & Van Leeuwe, 2008). Students of all ages enter school with varying degrees of academic knowledge due to different experiences. Some students also have more background knowledge than that of their peers which gives them an advantage in learning new content (Arum & Roksa, 2011). This is also true for vocabulary knowledge; the more known words in a students' vocabulary, the more words they learn incidentally through effective instructional practices such as read-alouds

(Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Penno, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2002). To illustrate, Robbins and Ehri

(1994) researched 51 native English-speaking kindergartners from low to middle socio-economic

classes and their knowledge of 22 unfamiliar words using a post-test measure. The researchers

found that storybook reading is an effective way for building vocabulary. However, gains in

vocabulary were greater for those students who had a large repertoire of known words. Penno et

al. (2002) echoed this so called "Matthew Effect" in which more words known, the more new

words are learned, in their study. Forty-seven children in two classrooms in Auckland, New

Zealand, completed the study. Two treatment methods were used in the storybook readings. In

one method, the teacher read the story and gave an explanation of the new vocabulary word. In

the other method, the teacher read the story with no explanation of the new vocabulary word.

The researchers found that multiple story readings and prior word knowledge increased a child's

newly learned vocabulary from storybook reading. Results indicated that accuracy of vocabulary

use in the first reading was M = 6.07, the second reading was M = 7.99, and the third reading

was M = 10.11. Therefore, there was a positive linear effect in the retellings. Vocabulary

knowledge and ability was assessed using a pre-test/pos-ttest method. The students in Class A,

or the higher ability students, showed a stronger and more accurate use of the vocabulary words

in the retellings, M = 10.06, than Class B, students who had lower vocabulary abilities, M =

6.21.

Sometimes the learning of receptive and expressive language occurs in what Neuman and

Roskos (2012) consider "teachable moments" or opportunities when vocabulary is taught during

unplanned times throughout the school day as the word "comes up" in conversations. Even

though it has been stated that children learn vocabulary incidentally through storybook reading,

children make more significant gains through explicit instruction. Coyne et al. (2004)

demonstrated the importance of explicit instruction and debated Robbins and Ehri's (1994) findings. The researchers found no significant gain in incidental learning of vocabulary from students merely listening to stories; however, students at-risk of academic difficulty made substantial gains in their receptive vocabulary development through storybook reading and explicit vocabulary instruction. Therefore, closing this gap in vocabulary acquisition could occur through explicit vocabulary instruction and giving students opportunities to read (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010; Dalton & Grisham, 2011). Biemiller (2001) explained vocabulary as the "missing link" in reading instruction. Likewise, Byrnes and Wasik (2009) described vocabulary as the "building block" for language (p. 70).

It has been stated that children learn vocabulary words at a rapid rate during their early childhood and primary years (Brynes & Wasik, 2009). Although most research on explicit vocabulary instruction has been conducted in grade three and above, intervention at this grade level may be too late for students who are at-risk of academic difficulty (Coyne et al, 2004; Tuckwiller et al., 2010). Therefore, intentional teaching, or teaching to the child's developmental level with a clear goal, is necessary at an early age (Coyne et al., 2004; Blachowicz & Epstein, 2007; Fisher & Ogle, 2006). This intentional vocabulary instruction is supported by research conducted by Tuckwiller et al. (2010). They conducted a study using kindergarten students and students' receptive vocabulary knowledge based on the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test*, Fourth Edition (Dunn & Dunn, 2007). The researchers used tiered instruction for the group treatment condition and the comparison condition. Children in both groups received instruction in which vocabulary words were defined during the reading and children raised their hands if they heard a vocabulary word that was also previously taught while the teacher was reading a story. Students who were considered most at-risk of reading

difficulties were placed in the treatment group; they received additional instruction which re-capped the story and provided intensive instruction with the target word. The researchers found no significant gain of receptive vocabulary between those students only given basic instruction and the at-risk students given both the basic and intensive instruction. Even though the rich vocabulary instruction resulted in no significant differences, consideration must be given to the population. A number of investigations of instructional methods for teaching vocabulary have been conducted, but this study is different. The researchers examined instructional strategies applied to an at-risk population; therefore, the gains may not have been as significant as other studies may indicate. Children with languages challenges who are at-risk often do not learn vocabulary words as rapidly as peers without language problems. Therefore, the Matthew Effect, or the more you already know, the more you can learn, is the reason effective vocabulary instruction is essential in addressing the vocabulary gap (Penno et al., 2002; Pullen, Tuckwiller, Konold, Maynard, & Coyne, 2010; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Stanovich, 1986).

Although the research on vocabulary instruction continues to grow, there is a sense of urgency to create more opportunities to increase student achievement with regard to vocabulary, comprehension, and literacy (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010; Cunningham, 2009; Wright, 2012). It appears that in classrooms across the United States, there has consistently been a scarcity in rich vocabulary instruction across all grade levels (Cunningham, 2009; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Wasik & Iannone-Campbell, 2012; Wright, 2012). Wright (2012), for example, visited 55 kindergarten teachers' classrooms and found a limited amount of vocabulary instruction with most episodes occurring during read-alouds, science, and social studies. Even so, an average of less than 11 minutes per day was spent on reading aloud. Although researchers found a scarcity of explicit vocabulary instruction (e.g., less than 11 minutes per day) which

occurred during read-alouds, this effective practice should be occurring more frequently in order

for students to increase their knowledge of words in their expressive language.  Therefore,

"Attention to vocabulary is paramount" (Blachowicz et al., 2006, p. 526).

It is explicit vocabulary instruction that is of utmost importance when considering

effective instructional strategies that enhance vocabulary development.  However, research

clearly indicates that there is not one effective method for teaching vocabulary (Blachowicz et

al., 2006).  As stated, providing definitions and words on a sheet of paper and requiring students

to memorize the definitions is seldom enough to develop word knowledge (Kindle, 2009; Stahl

& Bravo, 2010; Wright, 2012).  Teachers need to foster a curiosity about words (Kucan, 2012)

and allow students to understand the interconnectedness of the words across different disciplines

(Stahl & Bravo, 2010).  Nagy and Anderson (1984) estimated that while children acquire 4,000

words in a school year, only about 400 of those words are learned through direct instruction.

Brabham et al. (2012) identified three characteristics for effective vocabulary instruction:

students making association between known and unknown words, students having multiple

exposures through hands-on activities, and students having the ability to use the word in multiple

ways in their reading and writing.  All three characteristics were present in at least one of the

types of instruction studied by Coyne et al. (2009).  They investigated three different approaches

to vocabulary instruction during read-alouds:  embedded, extended, and incidental.  During

embedded instruction, target words were introduced and a child-friendly definition given.  In

extended instruction, a vocabulary extension is added after the reading.  In incidental instruction,

children are expected to learn the words through the reading of the story (Coyne et al., 2009).

The researchers found that students' depth of word knowledge was clearest in extended

instruction; embedded instruction resulted in only partial knowledge of the words.  The smallest

gains in vocabulary knowledge were found through incidental instruction. Even though extended instruction takes more instructional time, students are able to gain more knowledge of robust vocabulary words used in school-based literacy and that of more mature language users.

In another study Maynard et al. (2010) suggested students gained more long-term vocabulary meaning from rich and basic instruction as opposed to incidental exposure. Teachers using the "rich instruction" method taught the meaning of target words within the context of the story through interactive dialogue. In basic instruction, students were given simple definitions of the target words when the word was encountered in the story with the teacher rereading the sentence and replacing the word with its definition (Maynard et al., 2010). It is the interactive and performative approach to storybook reading that shows stronger growth in vocabulary acquisition (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Wasik & Iannone-Campbell, 2012). So, if most words are learned through multiple exposure and activities with the words, teachers need to find time in their instructional day to provide opportunites to all students.

On average children acquire 6,000 root word meanings by the end of grade two (Biemiller, 2006). Hence, teaching meaningful word parts may be an approach to consider when choosing appropriate vocabulary words for instruction. This morphological approach (Rasinski, Padak, Newton, & Newton, 2011) allows children to connect unknown words to learned Greek or Latin roots. As Biemiller (2005) indicated, these word parts can be learned in the primary grade levels. To illustrate, consider the prefix "sub" meaning under. Once children understand the meaning of that prefix, they will be able to attack other unknown words such as submarine, submerge, subway, subterranean, and so on. "Teaching two roots per week, through a short 10 minute interval, will yield a result of students understanding 40 or more English words" (Rasinski et al., 2011, p. 137).

Coyne, McCoach, and Kapp (2007) designed a three-step approach to vocabulary instruction. Step one is for teachers to read stories to children that contain robust vocabulary words so that children can have exposure and incidental learning of the words. In step two, teachers choose target vocabulary words of mature language and provide basic instruction. At step three, teachers need to choose robust vocabulary words and offer rich instruction of the word. Maynard et al. (2010) used this three-step approach in their study and have estimated that by focusing on six words per week, and 15minutes of rich instruction, students could learn 176 words in students' breadth of word knowledge and 136 words in students' depth of word knowledge. This type of systematic and explicit instruction is needed in order to gain both breadth and depth of newly learned vocabulary (Jalongo & Sobolak, 2011; Neuman & Roskos, 2012). It is clear that students benefit from rich instruction with repeated exposures to the word (Neuman & Roskos, 2012). Freezell (2012) concluded, "The frequent, rich vocabulary instruction helps my students notice words, understand the meaning of words, and apply words in their reading and writing" (p. 237); the classroom environment needs to become more "verbally energized" (Kucan, 2012).

**Words for Instruction**

To facilitate students in gaining an average of 400 to 1,000 (Biemiller, 2006; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Neuman & Roskos, 2012) words per year, educators must carefully choose the number and types of words to teach. It is important to consider that less is often more in vocabulary instruction, specifically, when words are taught effectively. It is better to teach fewer words well than for children to memorize a list of words for an assessment with no transfer of the learning to a child's reading and writing. Research suggests that students should be exposed to three to five new robust vocabulary words each day, specifically, words that will have the most

impact on learning (Coyne et al., 2004; Santoro et al, 2008). This will also help children gain

10,000 words by the age of six (Byrnes & Wasik, 2009) and to acquire both breadth and depth of

the newly learned words (Ouellette & Beers, 2010). Accomplishing this vocabulary goal could

be done through the use of interactive read-alouds. Teachers would be able to use robust

vocabulary chosen from the story and provide explicit instruction with the word.

According to Bromley (2010), struggling readers should only be taught three to five

words at a time in order to retain the meaning of the word. However, other researchers found

that children can be incidentally exposed to 3,000 or more words each year which breaks down

to about 10 words per day and 50-70 words per week (Graves, 1986; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986).

Still other researchers feel that teachers can only explicitly teach 400 words in a school year

which equates to about 10 words per week (Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Neuman & Roskos, 2012).

Regardless of how many words the teacher decides to teach, children must be able to apply the

words in their speaking and writing to demonstrate the understanding of deep knowledge of the

words (Cunningham, 2009) to gain greater breadth and depth in vocabulary. In essence, the

number of words chosen, coupled with effective instruction, will increase vocabulary acquisition.

**Interactive Read-Alouds**

An individual's appreciation for reading begins and is facilitated at an early age by

repetitive interactions with reading aloud familiar books (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007).

Interactive can be defined as a context in which teachers share the responsibility of book reading

(Smolkin & Donovan, 2003). An interactive read-aloud requires teachers to actually read the

story aloud to students while students actively engage in conversation by thinking within,

beyond, and about texts (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006; Smolkin & Donovan, 2003) or participating in

conversations before, during, and after the reading (Meller, Richardson, & Hatch, 2009; Santoro

et al., 2008).  Both the teachers and the students are active participants in the discussion (Barrentine, 1996; McGee & Schickedanz, 2007; Pantaleo, 2007; Sipe, 2002).  As Barrentine (1996) explained, interactive read-alouds encourage children to verbally interact with the text, peers, and the teacher.  "Children seem mesmerized by a story and their repetitive engagement at these times is anything but passive:  We can almost hear the cognitive wheels turning inside their heads" (Sipe, 2002, p. 476).  This read-aloud implementation in curricula is the "hallmark" of quality literacy instruction (Bryan, Tunnell, & Jacobs, 2007) or the "anchor" to literacy instruction (Gray, 2012).  Figure 3 provides an outline of the interactive read-aloud process based on Fisher et al. (2004).

Teacher chooses an appropriate book with robust vocabulary.

Teacher provides closure using questions.

Teacher previews and practices reading the book.

Teacher reads aloud stopping at planned locations  and implementing analytic talk between students.

Teacher strategically plans minilessons and analytic talk locations.

Teacher provides  an introduction to the new word through a minilesson.

Teacher establishes turn and talk partners.

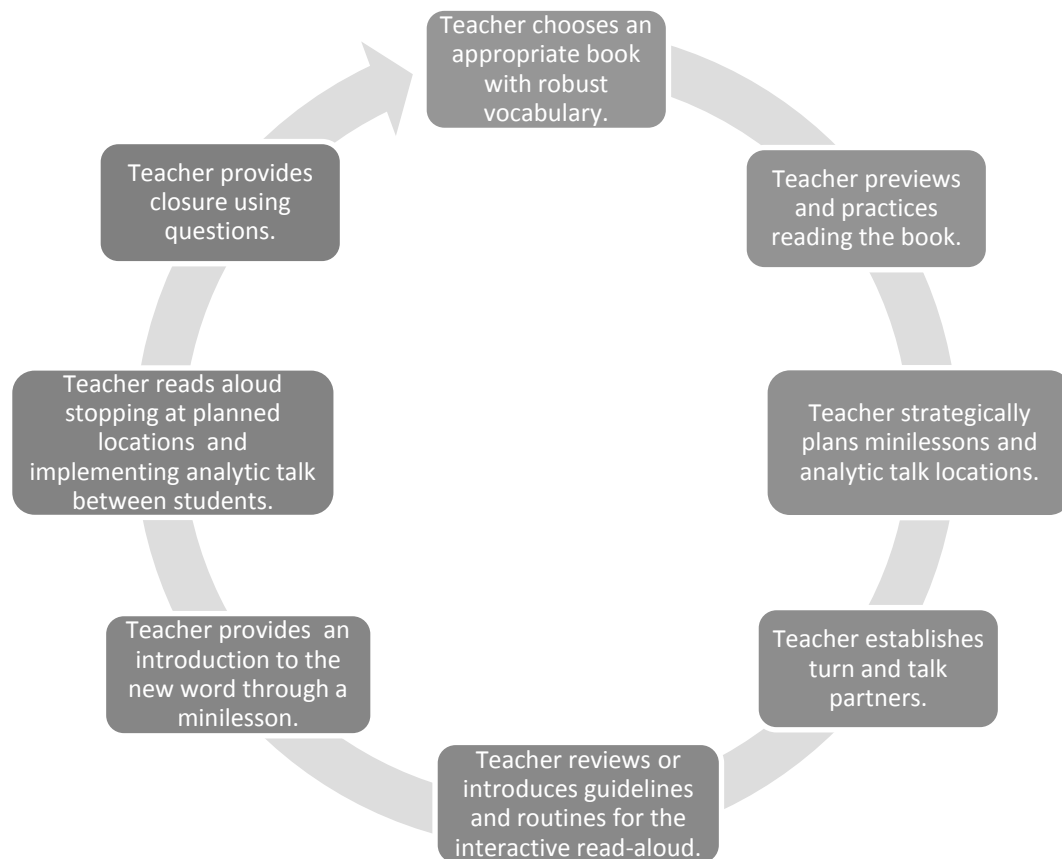Teacher reviews or introduces guidelines and routines for the interactive read-aloud.

*Figure 3*.  Interactive read-aloud process.

During the interactive read-aloud, the teacher in this learning environment fosters opportunities for students to turn and talk to partners, in a conversational tone, at strategically planned locations (Santoro et al., 2008). This "buzzing" (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006, p. 148) with a partner increases comprehension and oral language development (Drogowski, 2008; Kindle, 2009). During the discussions and meaningful activities, students can be "flooded" with new robust vocabulary (Brabham et al., 2012). Therefore, daily engagements involving adults and peers throughout an interactive read-aloud can impact students' receptive and expressive vocabulary (Brabham & Lynch-Brown, 2002; Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Jalongo & Sobolak, 2011; Sipe, 2000).

The benefits of reading aloud to children have been consistently demonstrated through research. Moreover, early exposure to read-alouds compounds the benefits (McGee & Schickendanz, 2007). The numerous benefits associated with reading to children are increased comprehension and vocabulary (Beck et al., 2002; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Gritter, 2011; Hoffman, 2011; Neuman & Dwyer, 2009; Sipe, 2000), exposure to print and phonological awareness (Brynes & Wasik, 2009), models of fluent reading and prosody (Brynes & Wasik, 2009), deepened understanding of words in the learners' receptive and expressive vocabularies (Nilsen et al., 2009; Templeton & Thomas, 2001), and cultural merit through sophisticated speech (Heath, 1987; Cazden et al., 1996; Duke, 2000).

Using interactive read-alouds and extended activities to enhance vocabulary, teachers can introduce vocabulary words and expand on the meanings (Brabham et al., 2012). Justice et al. (2005) studied 57 kindergarteners and discovered that the elaboration of vocabulary during storybook reading resulted in a gain in students' understanding of the word chosen for the instruction. This study randomly selected kindergarten students from six classes and did not use

testing as a baseline to make participant groups.  In a similar study conducted on reading-aloud

styles, Brabham and Lynch-Brown (2002) found that interactive and performative approaches to

storybook reading shows stronger growth in vocabulary acquisition and the greatest gains

occurred when children were able to interact with the story.  Because of the multiple benefits,

using interactive read-alouds to develop and enhance children's expressive vocabulary should be

implemented in all classrooms.  Bryan et al. (2007) compared those teachers who interactively

read aloud to their students and those teachers who do not to a football team, "This view of

children's literature seems akin to a football team holding its star quarterback--its most valuable

player--in reserve, for use only during after-game celebrations" (p. 26).

**Delivering an Interactive Read-Aloud**

There are many effective methodologies for delivering an interactive read-aloud;

educators need to make the most of precious instructional time by providing adequate time in the

curricula for a successful, in-depth read-aloud (Santoro et al., 2008; Smolkin & Donovan, 2003).

Most researchers who have analyzed the time element agree that a productive storybook reading

requires 20-30 minutes of instructional time (Pantaleo, 2007; Santoro et al., 2008) and requires

the same amount of instructional planning as other lessons (Kindle, 2009).  Further, the students'

varied instructional needs must be considered (Lane & Wright, 2007).  For a read-aloud lasting

20-30 minutes, a book approximately 32 pages in length is appropriate (Santoro et al., 2008).  In

addition, all forms of genre should be integrated throughout the school year during read-alouds;

this will whet students' appetites for all types of books (Dewitz & Jones, 2013).  Whether

choosing fiction or nonfiction books, the stories should have well-developed plots and

characters, and meet the instructional goals (Lane & Wright, 2007) outlined by the teacher.  In

addition, the book should be selected to ensure full engagement of children throughout the reading of the story.

Guidelines and routines associated with effective read-alouds have been described in published research. Fisher et al. (2004) listed the following practices: book selection, practice, and preview of the book with use of animation and expression, a clearly defined purpose, fluent reading modeled, planned conversations between peers and the teacher, and modeled and guided connections between reading and writing (Fisher et al., 2004). Integrating these components has proven to help with the execution of an effective interactive read-aloud.

**Book Selection**

Educators must be intentional about purpose, matching students' developmental level, and considering children's interest during the book selection (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006). Texts used for interactive read-alouds with young children are often above the group's average instructional reading level in order for children to hear robust vocabulary (Fisher et al., 2004; Penno et al., 2002). The text should also be of high quality literature (Kindle, 2009). Hargrave and Senechal's (2000) developed criteria for making book selections which included: (a) colorful illustrations that help narrate the story, (b) vocabulary words unknown to children, (c) book length neither excessively long nor heavily reliant on text for telling the story, (d) genre of narrative text, and (e) developmentally appropriate. Santoro et al. (2008) include the following book selection criteria: determine the theme for instruction, consider the target audience, select an appropriate story length, check on book availability and cost, ensure the representation of diversity, and seek books with connections to other texts.

Picture books provide the avenue for children to deepen the meaning of text and vocabulary. The use of picture books allows students to focus on written language, as well as art

to convey meaning (Dewitz & Jones, 2013; Martens, Martens, Doyle, Loomis, & Aghalarow, 2012) and support children's oral language (Schickendanz & Collins, 2012).

> A picture book, unlike an illustrated book, is properly conceived as a unit, a totality that integrates all the designated parts in a sequence in which the relationships among them- the cover, endpapers, typography, pictures-are crucial to understanding the book. (Marantz, 1977, p. 148)

Pictures in books provide children with a rich visualization (Sipe, 2008) which supports the meaning of new vocabulary words.

Using pictures allows students to figure out unknown words when reading (Zimmerman, 2012). However, young learners often misinterpret illustrations in children's literature. Schickendanz and Collins (2012) presented four methods to help students interpret pictures to build comprehension and vocabulary which include: teacher explaining illustrations and providing background knowledge, and the teacher rereading or referring to the text and modeling reasoning. Bang (2000) provided examples of how pictures work by using color, space, direction, and size in objects; this would help support teachers in conveying the meaning of the picture to their students and support students' understanding of the newly learned words.

**Previewing the Text**

Best practices for interactive read-alouds include teachers previewing and practicing the story prior to reading it aloud. This practicing enables teachers to read with expression and use different voices that are appropriate for the various characters or events within the text (Fisher et al., 2004). Previewing and practicing prevents teachers from stumbling over or mispronouncing words, allowing students to hear fluent reading. It also allows the teacher to strategically plan locations for vocabulary instruction by using pictures or modeling how to use strategies to attack

the meaning of the word or engage students in higher order thinking of the vocabulary word throughout the analytic talk (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007). The method of delivery requires careful conscious consideration prior to reading.

**Planning and Conducting the Read-Aloud**

Finally, effectiveness and efficiency requires consideration when planning an interactive read-aloud. Just reading books aloud is not sufficient for vocabulary growth; instead, it is the manner in which a read-aloud is presented that matters (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007). A clear purpose or learning goal needs to be defined prior to the read aloud. Additional instructional support through the use of mini-lessons (Meller et al., 2009), helps develop skills and strategies in students' reading achievement (Cummins & Stallmeyer-Gerard, 2011). Mini-lessons are a five to seven minute introduction to a skill or strategy, provided by the teacher, prior to reading the story. During this time, the teacher defines the skill or strategy and gives examples of support and to increase students' schema of the skill or strategy. In addition, the teacher plans strategic places to stop (Fisher et al., 2004) in the reading and allows students to turn and talk with a "buzz partner" (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006) to reinforce the concepts taught throughout the mini-lesson. Wilhelm (2002) defined transferring this understanding of a strategy as "lending expertise" to the children. Wilhelm (2002) recommended the following instructional steps: identifying the strategy to teach, modeling the strategy, using the strategy with the students' support, and leading students to use the strategy by collaborating with their partners. The skill or strategy taught can be deepened by allowing children to engage in conversation with the teacher and their peers (Cummins & Stallmeyer-Gerard, 2011; Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Hoffman, 2011; Neuman & Dwyer, 2009; Sipe, 2000; Wiseman, 2011). Strategic, planned talk provides

teachers with the opportunity to deepen the meaning of text or vocabulary by providing open-ended questions and cueing students to elaborate on their responses (Beck & McKeown, 2001).

**Using Analytic Talk to Deepen the Understanding of Vocabulary**

The interwoven use of conversations through dialogue, also known as analytic talk (Dickinson & Smith, 1994) during interactive read-alouds provides many academic benefits, including richer conversations (Harvey & Goudvis, 2013) that enhance children's vocabulary. Throughout this analytic talk (Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Goldenberg, 1992; Sipe, 2002) students have the opportunity to increase vocabulary development and comprehension (Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Moss, 2005; Roberts, 2008; Santoro et al., 2008) by talking about a story in a productive way. As Fountas and Pinnell (2012) explained, students need to be engaged in "lively conversations" (p. 275). "What is happening in a read-aloud is of paramount importance" (Prior, Wilson, & Martinez, 2012, p. 204). Children need opportunities to practice and develop their conversational skills by speaking and being spoken to (Byrnes & Wasik, 2009).

Dickinson and Porche (2011) studied the verbal interactions of 57 students from low-income families during free play, large group time, and book reading in their preschool classrooms. In this longitudinal study, the researchers found that when the students' preschool teachers integrated analytic talk during storybook reading there were higher levels of students' vocabulary scores in both kindergarten and fourth grade (Dickinson & Porche, 2011). Therefore, one reason for emphasizing young children's analytic talk is that incorporating new words into one's active vocabulary is considered to be indicative of having truly learned the meaning of the word. It is stated in research that instructional conversations between students and the teacher or student to student build opportunities for students to grow conceptually and linguistically by

implementing interactions that allow children to think critically (Goldenberg, 1992).  In a meta-analysis of 27 empirical studies, Swanson et al. (2011) found that the integration of dialogic talk, or talk that allows students to express diverse opinions, had a profound outcome for students who were at-risk for reading difficulties.  Dickinson and Smith (1994) studied 25 preschool classrooms and the social and linguistic precursors to language and literacy development of children from a low-income, English-speaking family of backgrounds.  The findings of this study suggested that the infusion of analytic talk throughout an interactive read-aloud increased students' vocabulary development.  Findings in another study suggested that when fourth grade students in Maryland were engaged throughout the reading, their reading achievement increased, regardless of socio-economic status and mothers' education levels (Guthrie, Schafer, & Huang, 2001).  In this study, highly engaged students from economically underprivileged homes performed better in reading achievement than less engaged students from economically privileged homes.  However, there were some necessary unmeasured variables such as phonics and word recognition instruction that was not accounted for in the study.

Gritter (2011) defined the factors for lively talk as:  students facing each other, keeping eye contact with the speaker, teacher and students engaging in the conversation, children "piggybacking" on other's responses, and teacher and students accepting questioning and debate. It is this type of environment that creates exciting and engaging learning environments and allows children to become "good conversationalists" (Byrnes & Wasik, 2009, p. 39) with robust vocabulary words throughout their spoken language.  In other words, "Talk may be cheap, but it's priceless for developing young minds" (Neuman & Dwyer, 2009, p. 384).

Teachers should be able to naturally weave questions and comments into the interactive read-aloud so there is conversation between the children, the text, and the teacher (Kindle, 2009).

While weaving questions into the conversation, teachers need to provide open-ended questions throughout the analytic talk that allow students to build on information from the story (Beck & McKeown, 2001) in order to have constructive discourse about the story or newly learned words (Walsh & Blewitt, 2006).  A study was conducted with 35 three year olds on vocabulary acquisition in relationship to the types of questions teachers asked about the words.  Children were randomly assigned to either storybook reading with vocabulary eliciting questions, non-eliciting questions, or no questions.  Eliciting questions required children to say the new vocabulary word in their response while non-eliciting questions required the teacher to use the new vocabulary word in the question.  The study suggested that it is not the type of questioning (eliciting questions vs. non-eliciting questions) that has the greatest impact on vocabulary acquisition, but the active engagement related to questions that improves children's word learning (Walsh & Blewitt, 2006).  Open-ended questions are questions that do not have one, correct answer and encourage students to elaborate on their responses (Wasik, & Iannone-Campbell, 2012).  There is power in teachers' questioning and facilitating students' conversations.  This helps foster new, robust vocabulary in children's oral language and increases students' understanding.  Using interactive read-alouds could be one way to foster open-ended questioning; however, this does not mean that teachers should be doing all of the talking.  There needs to be a co-construction, not only between the teacher and the children but also between the students and their peers (Hoffman, 2011).  In order to instill this co-construction, the teacher needs to elaborate on students' responses and initiate follow-up question, which deepens the meaning of the story, and vocabulary understanding.  "Teachers know the value of allowing children to talk freely during story time, listening closely and

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attentively to what the children say, even when it may seem they have gone off on a conversational tangent" (Sipe, 2008, p. 1).

While analytic talk is imperative during storybook reading in order to support questioning and learning new words, the ability for students to answer open-ended questions does not come naturally; teachers must provide the cues and support needed in order for children to build the confidence in answering in such an analytical fashion (Beck & McKeown, 2001; Karchmer-Klein, & Shinas, 2012). Analytic talk can be accomplished by teachers modeling this explicit talk by "thinking aloud" (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007). Throughout the modeling, teachers can begin to teach students questioning techniques. Teachers' think-alouds, students looking at the pictures in a story read aloud, and self-questioning all can serve to increase students' comprehension of the story (Lohfink, 2012) and build vocabulary.

One trend in the research is that the characteristics of an interactive read-aloud have long-term effects on children's literacy skills (Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Harvey & Goudvis, 2013; Moss, 2005; Roberts, 2008; Santoro et al., 2008). This process is a socio-cognitive model of literacy where children are able to actively participate in the discussion about the text and/or pictures (Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Walsh & Blewitt, 2006). Throughout the social interaction of analytic talk, children are able to acquire cognitive and linguistic operations, specifically, expressive vocabulary knowledge (Goldenberg, 1994) to make meaning and interpersonal connections (Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Leung, 2008). Typically, the talk is prompted by the teacher and children are then able to elaborate on the teacher's responses and questions. The talk is essentially thought-provoking, context building, and distributed equally between the teacher and the students. It is the infusion of analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud that creates discourse between the children, the text, and the teacher

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(Fountas & Pinnell, 2006; Kindle, 2009).  Essentially, the more students participate in analytic talk, the more robust the vocabulary they acquire (Dickinson & Porche, 2011).  Often times, such opportunities are limited in everyday conversations that children hear (Hart & Risley, 1994).

Unfortunately, limited opportunities for high-level questioning also exist in reading instruction (Dull & Murrow, 2008).  For example, researchers observed high school teachers' questioning techniques and the use of dialogic talk.  The study suggested that most questioning was for information gathering and to review previously taught content.  In most instances, students did not have the opportunity to question text and verbalize their values (Dull & Murrow, 2008).  Literal questioning does not engage students in the reading or the conversation; it merely provides an avenue for students to recall important facts associated with the reading.  Students do not have the opportunity to be actively engaged in the reading whether it is content related or through a teacher reading aloud to students.  Literal questioning does not allow students to think critically or express their opinion about the text (Goldenberg, 1992; Swanson et al., 2011).  Allowing students to connect their beliefs and values to the text within their responses (Dull & Murrow, 2008), increases their engagement with the text.  The connection and engagement ultimately helps students grapple with challenging vocabulary and ideas (Conrad, Gang, Sipp, & Wright, 2004), and apply the experiences to their own lives (Duke, Purcell-Gates, Hall, & Tower, 2006; Harvey & Goudvis, 2013).  This focus allows children to make sense of their everyday lives (Conrad et al., 2004) and make connections across instructional contexts (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012).  The children's experiences become similar to those of the characters within the story (Meese, 2012; Sipe, 2008) or the story becomes transparent to the students' lives (Sipe, 2000).  This allows teachers to foster an atmosphere that encourages students' ideas and interpretations of the literature (Wiseman, 2011).

For students, the more understanding they have of the world around them; the more words they have in their reading and writing vocabularies, the more control and choice they have both in and out of school, along with greater access to knowledge and experiences and greater potential for teaching themselves; the more understanding they have of how language works, the more powerful they can be as communicators and citizens.  (Calhoun, 1999, p. 104)

Students' responses to questions are important to consider for increased comprehension and vocabulary development.  Sipe (2000) conducted a seven-month qualitative study with 27 children forming three different groups in first and second grade (18 first graders and 9 second graders).  Children's responses were recorded and analyzed in large-group read-alouds by the teacher, small-group read-alouds done by the researcher, and one-on-one read-alouds also done by the researcher.  He discovered five categories of oral literary responses from students' during the read-alouds that enhanced literary understanding:  analytical, intertextual, personal, transparent, and performative.  Analytical refers to the text as an object focusing on the concepts of print such as author, illustrator, copyright, vocabulary chosen by the author, and pictures.  Therefore, when a child offers an analytical response, she/he refers to the text as an object, focusing on the concepts of print.  When students have an opportunity to align both the pictures and text features the meaning of the story is deepened (Wiseman, 2011).  Intertextual is the ability to use the text being read and relating it to other books or genres.  The personal responses are those for which the students connect the text to their own lives.  When a reader provides a transparent response in text discussion, she/he reflects on experiences from their lives; the text seems to be reflective of things they are experiencing.  Finally, the performative response occurs when a child creates an imaginative manipulation of the story.  Results of the study indicated that

most teachers infused analytical responses within their instructional conversation but neglected the use of the other responses.  Even so, Sipe explained that children need to be exposed to a compilation of all responses to develop literary understanding.  Furthermore, Sipe (2000) related the literary responses to three impulses, hermeneutic, personalizing, and aesthetic.  Hermeneutic responses interpret the text.  Personalizing responses make text-to-self or text-to-life connections, and aesthetic response are mirrored to one's life.  Sipe discovered kindergarten children need to be exposed to all of these responses to develop literary understanding.

### Summary

There exists a plethora of research supporting interactive read-alouds and the important role that they play in young children's literacy learning.  It is imperative to provide an instructional environment that supports and facilitates the implementation of this instructional tool.  Interactive read-alouds offer teachers the opportunity to increase children's vocabulary, develop children's comprehension, and motivate children to read.  One valuable aspect during the interactive read-aloud process is the use of interactive, analytic talk.  Research suggests that this talk between the teacher and the students and student dyads (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006) can exert a powerful, positive influence on children's vocabulary development.  This observational study has shed light on patterns that exist in students' oral vocabulary development through the use of analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud coupled with the four (intertextual, personal, transparent, and performative) of Sipe's (2000) five categories of literary responses.  Chapter III describes the methodology for this study.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

**Introductio**n

Qualitative methods were used to study the application of more mature vocabulary

throughout the children's analytic talk.  This method provided an opportunity to study children's

use of expressive vocabulary in a naturalistic setting where children are familiar with the routines

(Adler & Adler, 1994; Jorgenson, 1989; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007).  This rich, thick

descriptive dialogue, after posing questions about the vocabulary, occurred naturally (Leech &

Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Perakyla & Ruusuvuori, 2011) throughout the interactive read-aloud;

however, sometimes scaffolding was necessary.  The dialogue authentically described

(Jorgenson, 1989) what children said in regards to the vocabulary word in a non-evasive manner.

Adler and Adler (1994) purported that:

> Naturalistic observers thus often differ from quantitative observers in the scope of their
>
> observations; whereas the latter focus on minute particles of the world that can be
>
> agglomerated into a variable, the former look for much larger trends, patterns, and styles
>
> of behavior.  (p. 378)

Using a qualitative method allowed the researcher to observe and participate (Adler &

Adler, 1994; Jorgenson, 1989) in the natural flow of events throughout an interactive read-aloud.

This method also drew the researcher and observer into the children's daily routines witnessing

the connections and correlations of oral vocabulary and how they unfolded throughout the

children's dialogue (Adler & Adler, 1994).  By examining students' use of expressive

vocabulary throughout the analytic talk of a routine interactive read-aloud, more attention can be

given to spoken discourse underpinning "mental realities" (Perakyla & Ruusuvuori, 2011, p. 531).

According to Adler and Adler (1994), the ability to keep the natural flow of students' daily routines is important. The researcher connected to the children being studied and did not treat them as "depersonalized objects of research" (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011, p. 474). Miles and Huberman (1994) explain the strengths of qualitative research as the ability to acquire rich, thick descriptions in meaningful, real-life situations.

This observational study focused on the effectiveness of students' expressive vocabulary throughout the analytic talk before, during, and after interactive read-aloud sessions. This three-month investigation took place in one kindergarten classroom. Each read aloud session began with an introduction to the targeted vocabulary words within each group. Next, the classroom teacher conducted a large group read-aloud while the researcher conducted a small group storybook reading using the same book and instructional techniques. Finally, after reading the story in an interactive way, a review of the vocabulary words was conducted with both groups. Student dialogue of the small group was recorded throughout all sessions.

The research took place in the students' natural school setting and focused on students' talk about vocabulary. The study explored the following research questions:

1. How do children use story vocabulary during their peer interaction?

2. What types of literary responses are observed during peer dialogue?

This chapter's content describes the design and methodology of this research study. The setting for the study, the sample, and the methods for obtaining the data are explained. The details of this qualitative data provide educators and interested researchers an avenue to investigate students' application of robust vocabulary throughout their expressive language.

## Setting for the Study

The study was conducted in a school located in rural, West Central Pennsylvania. One kindergarten classroom was the study site. There were approximately 242 students enrolled in grades kindergarten through fifth grade. The school served a population representing an ethnicity ratio of approximately 94.693% Caucasian, .8163% African-American, .4081% Asian, and 2.8571% Multi-racial. The free/reduced lunch population was approximately 46%. While the total number of kindergarten students was 36, the sample for this observational study consisted of one class of 17 students. Four of the students received special education services for speech delays. Both male and female students were included in this study. There were nine boys and eight girls in the classroom. Four girls and four boys participated in the study.

## Study Sample

Subjects were kindergarten students enrolled in one kindergarten class in Western Pennsylvania. Prior to the start of the study, the researcher was granted site approval to work at the school from the Superintendent and the principal of the school (Appendices A and B). After the study was approved, consent was obtained from the kindergarten teacher (Appendix C). This approval provided permission to work in the classroom and for the teacher to participate in staff development on interactive read-alouds. Both the principal's site approval letter and the classroom teacher's consent letter indicated that multiple observers would be visiting the classroom to obtain observational notes for the data collection. After receiving site approval and permission from the classroom teacher, permission was also obtained from the parents/guardians (Appendix D) and children (Appendix E) of the 17 students in the class. The parent/guardian consent letter explained that participation in the study would involve the audio-recording of their child's peer talk. The letter also contained information about withdrawing their child or

themselves from the study.  The parents were asked to return the consent forms to a box in the

school's office.  Eight parents gave consent for their children to participate; four girls and four

boys.

After receiving consent from the child's parent/guardian, the researcher obtained assent

from the children.  The researcher read the assent form (Appendix E) to the children.  The form

explained that the researcher would be reading stories to the children and audio-taping their talk.

The child was then asked to circle a "happy" or "frown" face to indicate assent to participate.

All children gave assent; however, only eight children participated due to the parent's consent.

## Data Collection

The basic design of the study was an observational study where the researcher observed

and participated (Adler & Adler, 1994; Jorgenson, 1989) in an instructional method designed to

analyze patterns that emerged within the students' analytic talk before, during, and after an

interactive read-aloud.  This observational approach allowed the researcher to follow a flow of

events in a natural setting (Adler & Adler, 1994) and spend a considerable amount of time in the

setting (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).  In addition, using four of Sipe's (2000) categories of

literary responses (a) intertextual, (b) personal, (c) transparent, and (d) performative for the

vocabulary introduction, the researcher interpreted which patterns emerged during the

application of the vocabulary word throughout the analytic talk.  Sipe's (2000) analytic response

was not used due to difficulty in finding literature that would match that response for the

vocabulary introduction.

Staff development was provided for six weeks.  During that time, the classroom teacher

was trained and coached in conducting an interactive read-aloud.  The researcher modeled an

interactive read-aloud and observed the kindergarten teacher implementing a read-aloud.  Field

notes of the training session and observations were taken by the researcher and the classroom teacher. These descriptive notes were compared and discussed to improve the fidelity of implementation. This membership role of the researcher is considered an active-member researcher, one in which the researcher becomes involved in the activities (Adler & Adler, 1994). The training also ensured that all kindergarten students, within the participating classroom, received the same instructional approach. A checklist of effective teaching behaviors for interactive read-alouds based on Fisher, Flood, Lapp, and Frey (2004) was designed for the teacher's reference (Appendix F).

The researcher conducted the introduction and review of the vocabulary words for the small group storybook readings; eight participating students. The classroom teacher conducted the introduction and review of vocabulary and read the same story with a larger group of kindergarten students within the same class. Picture books were chosen from the Student Choice and Teacher Choice lists of high-quality children's literature compiled annually by the International Reading Association from 2005-2013. These stories were appropriate for the age of the students and had Tier Two vocabulary words within the text. These vocabulary words were introduced and implemented throughout the analytic talk between students.

The classroom teacher conducted 12 separate large group interactive read-alouds while the researcher simultaneously conducted a small group read-aloud with eight children. In both lesson formats, vocabulary words were introduced using one of Sipe's (2000) four categories. In all vocabulary introductions, the children were given a child-friendly definition and an example from their life and from the text. Students were then asked to perform the word, make a personal or intertextual connection, or discuss how the word was transparent to their lives and experiences. The story was then read by the teacher and researcher. Students were prompted to

talk to an assigned partner during planned intervals. The teacher provided input on the partner assignments. She tried to pair students by their willingness to participate in the conversations. All of these planned locations involved a prepared question related to the vocabulary word that was introduced. In order to capture clarity in the peer talk, conversations between the eight children (i.e., two or three partner groups) were audio-taped during the read-aloud and transcribed for later analysis. Data were also collected and analyzed during the introduction and review of the vocabulary words.

Throughout the study, all students benefited from the same story reading. No new material was introduced as part of the study, and the educational objectives aligned to the Pennsylvania State Standards and the Pennsylvania Common Core Standards. Words for instruction were chosen based on Beck et al.'s (2002) Tier Two vocabulary. Using four of Sipe's (2000) categories of literary responses (1) intertextual, (2), personal, (3) transparent, and (4) perrformative, vocabulary words were introduced and students were then provided opportunities to discuss these words throughout the introduction, analytic talk, and review.

During the analysis of student data, the researcher noted individual dialogue of the students' use of the vocabulary words. Using Sipe's (2000) categories, the researcher analyzed the data and used the abbreviated codes to record when students applied the word in their talk when given a vocabulary introduction. This process was used to generate themes that existed in the students' dialogue. To analyze the data gathered and enhance internal validity of the study, the researcher used multiple methods for data collection. Observations, field notes, and tape-recordings ensured students' dialogue was captured. Eisner (1998) refers to this as "structural corroboration" (p. 110) where multiple forms of data collection eliminate debates that may be presented in the evidence.

**Method of Obtaining Data**

Recorded observations and tape-recordings were the qualitative methods used for the data collection. Two observers were trained to aid in the data collection. Each observer captured student dialogue during peer talk with hand-held digital recorders and field notes. Audio-recorders were located in each group but only those in the small group actually recorded students' conversations. Using a small group ensured clarity in students' dialogue.

**Researcher Observations of the Classroom**

To analyze the data gathered and enhance internal validity of the study, the researcher used multiple methods to obtain the direct observations. "Observations entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviors, and artifacts in the social setting chosen for study" (Marshall & Rossman, 1999, p. 107). Data for this qualitative, participant observer study was collected at different times using multiple observers to ensure validity (Adler & Adler, 1994; Jorgenson, 1989). Observations are very important in qualitative inquiry to discover students' interactions throughout their peer talk (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Two teacher educators aided in the data collection. The first observer obtained a Ph.D. in Reading Education and the second obtained a Ph.D. in Special Education; both observers had current required clearances. The observer members were trained by the researcher over a three-day period on how to observe and document the analytic talk using the observation log (Appendix G). Training included presentation, demonstration, and observed practice using a video-taped interactive read-aloud. This in-depth viewing consisted of observers using the observation log to document the dialogue and refine the coding scheme. Coding was revised until there was an inter-rater reliability rate of at least 80%. This process ensured that the observations were done systematically, over varying

conditions, in order to obtain the same findings (Adler & Adler, 1994). The observations focused specifically on the infusion of vocabulary during the students' analytic talk.

Throughout the study, each member of the research team observed two to three students and took comprehensive field notes. These observations were conducted with approximately 12 different interactive read-alouds; the observations ended when there was a saturation of descriptive data (Jorgensen, 1989). Saturation refers to "the point in data collection when no new relevant information emerges with respect to the newly constructed theory" (Given & Saumure, 2008, n.p.). During the observations in the classroom, the observers attempted to collect as much student-to-student conversations, interactions, description, and vocabulary used throughout the analytic talk as possible. All observational data of children's analytic talk were recorded, coded, and sorted using a variation of Halliday's (1973) Model of Language Function and Sipe's (2000) literary responses to identify the categories and subthemes in the children's dialogue (Table 1). This model allowed students to acquire language and communicate with others (Halliday, 1973). The type of response was noted using the following codes: I-Intertextual, PM-Performative, T-Transparent, and P-Personal. The meaning of each response and example of the dialogue was provided. This data answered the research question of what types of literary responses were observed during peer dialogue.

Table 1

*Halliday's Model of Language Function and Sipe's Literary Responses*

| Literary Response Code | Introduction to Vocabulary Words | Example of Student Dialogue |
|---|---|---|
| Intertextual-I | Connected vocabulary word to another story read | |
| Performative-PM | Acted out vocabulary word | |
| Personal-P | Made a personal connection to the vocabulary word | |
| Transparent-T | Mirrored the word to children's world or characterizes their life | |

## Audio-Recordings

Audio-recordings are less intrusive than audio-video equipment and provide a way of

capturing student dialogue (Jorgensen, 1989). Therefore, three audio-recorders were used in the

small group to capture the students' talk during the introduction of vocabulary words, as students

conversed with their peers and during the review of the vocabulary words at the end of the story.

In order to normalize the use of the recorders (Jorgenson, 1989), these devices were used

throughout the modeling and observation of the read-aloud delivered by the classroom teacher

and principal investigator. All recordings were captured through verbatim transcripts of

vocabulary introduction, review, and during the peer talk using 12 interactive read-alouds.

Twelve story introductions using three or four new vocabulary words and the recap of these

words after the reading were audio-taped. In addition, there were approximately three to four

strategic turn and talk locations throughout the reading so approximately 40 different dialogues

were captured during the peer talk. To ensure internal validity, the transcripts were sent to the

observers for member checking.  As Hatch (2002) explains, "Member checking gives

participants opportunities to react to tentative findings generated by the researcher" (p. 101).

## Data Analysis

Analysis is one of the most important steps in the research (Leech & Onwuegbuzie,

2007).  Data analysis is the process or bringing organization by disassembling the material in

order to interpret the collected data (Jorgenson, 1989; Marshall & Rossman, 1999); "a systematic

search for meaning" (Hatch, 2002, p. 148).  In qualitative studies, the data collection and analysis

are done in conjunction; the researcher has predetermined concepts but may modify as data is

collected (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).  In this research study, the vocabulary introduction, the

interactive read-aloud, and the review of the words were digitally recorded and transcribed.

Participant observations were recorded using an observation log and used to annotate observation

transcriptions.  In the beginning, the researcher focused on site approval, developing a positive

relationship with students and staff, participating, and observing.  Once all of these stages were

secure, the researcher began to gather information while analyzing the material (Jorgenson,

1989).  Huberman and Miles (1994) refer to this gathering as data management.

Analyzing qualitative data includes reading and rereading transcriptions to identify

relevant themes or categories related to the research questions, labeling files, and linking the

patterns in order to get descriptive detail to answer the research questions (LeCompte, 2000).

This rereading line-by-line, word-by-word (Charmaz, 2006) occurred after each transcription and

throughout the coding process. The researcher conducted an audit trail to verify accuracy, review

the coding process, and create themes for the regular patterns of application of vocabulary

(Creswell, 2008).  These data were analyzed using descriptive qualitative content analysis

techniques (Creswell, 2008).  Pseudonyms were used in the coding process.  The data were

reduced by coding and categorizing.  The unit of analysis for coding purposes was the entire analytic talk between students and the introduction and review of the vocabulary words. Transcripts were reviewed multiple times to cross-check the information, annotate the transcripts, and develop the initial codes.  The researcher revised and condensed the initial codes to identify categories and subthemes of children's analytic dialogue.  The researcher then revisited the data and recorded the appropriate code next to the children's dialogue.  This analysis allowed the researcher to look for meaning in the data instead of fitting the data to predetermined categories and themes.  The categories established were condensed to answer what evidence there was of children incorporating vocabulary into their analytic dialogue before, during, and after a story.  Data analysis is on-going and requires a continual review (Creswell, 2008).

A constant comparative analysis as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) was used when categorizing and modifying codes throughout the data analysis.  In this analysis, the researcher used the complete data set to establish themes (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007).  Codes were both created deductively (identified prior to the coding) and inductively (emerged from the data).  The first step in constant comparative analysis is when the researcher reads through the data set and creates smaller parts.  The researcher then labels each chunk of data with a title or "code."  This open coding involved the "naming and categorizing of phenomena through close examination of the data" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 62).  Codes were noted on the right side of all transcriptions.  The data are compared with new chunks so each group is labeled with the same code.  After all data had been coded, similarities existed with codes which identified a theme (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007).

After multiple rereading and categories were established, the transcriptions were uploaded and coded using *NVivo 10 Software* (QSR, 2012).  This software allows all documents to be uploaded, searched, coded, sorted, and organized.  It is used to identify patterns and themes that emerge during the qualitative analysis.  The data uploaded into the program were used to compare and analyze children's peer talk about newly introduced vocabulary words and the types of literary responses used during the peer dialogue.  The observational data of children's analytic talk were then sorted to find examples of students' dialogue.

Finally, due to the limited number of participants, the researcher conducted an analysis of each participant and created a case study.  "A case study involves the widest array of data collection as the researcher attempts to build an in-depth picture of the case" (Creswell, 1998, p. 123).  Each case provided a rich description of each participant.  The findings for each case are discussed in Chapter IV.

## Summary

This chapter's content highlighted a qualitative observational design that was used to determine children's use of expressive vocabulary before, during, and after story readings.  A description of the study's setting and participation selection was included.  A procedure for obtaining the data and the processes for analyzing the data were also reported.  Chapter IV highlights the findings from the data collected.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

The goal of this study was to describe how children incorporated new vocabulary in their peer dialogue following explicit instruction of a word before, during, and after storybook reading. This chapter contextualizes the data findings based on 12 interactive read-alouds lasting approximately 30 minutes. The chapter begins with a description of the participants. Next, the chapter highlights and explains the coding used throughout the audio-recordings and observational records and excerpts from students' analytic talk. Finally, an in-depth case of all the participating children is described.

Data were collected to investigate the following research questions:

(1) How do children use story vocabulary during their peer interaction?

(2) What types of literary responses are observed during peer dialogue?

**Participants**

The participants included students from one kindergarten classroom; parent consent and child assent were obtained. The parental consent forms were sent home with the students; parents/legal guardians returned the signed form to the school's main office in a box designated for that purpose. Seventeen families were asked to participate in the study. Eight families returned consent forms and eight children granted assent to participate. Four males and four females participated in the study. Consent to conduct the study was obtained by the superintendent, principal, and classroom teacher. Both the principal's site approval letter and the classroom teacher's consent letter indicated that multiple observers would be visiting the classroom to obtain observational notes for the data collection. The teacher agreed to have the

research conducted in her classroom.  In order to ensure fidelity in the interactive read-aloud instruction method, she also agreed to participate in the staff development prior to the study.

**The Analysis**

A constant comparative method was used throughout the data analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).  The researcher conducted 12 interactive read-alouds lasting approximately 30 minutes each.  Every read-aloud began with explicit vocabulary instruction.  Each interactive read-aloud consisted of an introduction of each Tier Two words using one of Sipe's (2000) literary responses.  For example, when introducing the word "linger," and using Sipe's (2000) performative response, the researcher stated the word with the child-friendly definition "to go on and on" and then showed students how to roll their hands to make the motion of "on and on." Students were then given an example to their life and an example from the book.  In addition, an anchor chart or poster was created for the vocabulary instruction that displayed the words, a child-friendly definition, and a picture from the story that demonstrated how each word was used in the text.  For example, for the vocabulary word *linger,* the anchor chart had the word, the meaning, and showed a picture from the text that demonstrated how the sunny day was lingering in the story.  Next, the story was introduced.  The researcher then began reading the story and stopping at predetermined points in the text where the students would turn and talk to their partner using a prompt given by the researcher.  The prompt made reference to a vocabulary word that was introduced, which encouraged students to use the new vocabulary within their peer dialogue.  For example, the following was a prompt given for the word gorgeous during the peer talk of Drew Daywalt's *The Day the Crayon Quit* (2013):

> Researcher:  I want you to look at these pictures.  Which of these purple pictures do you feel is *gorgeous* and why?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen: I think the dragon is gorgeous because he got colored in the lines good [*sic*].

Sydney: The dragon.

When open coding this excerpt from the transcript, Helen's response was coded as "student talk" and then further coded as "spontaneous talk." Sydney's response was coded at "word knowledge" and then further coded as "understands meaning with example only." Preliminary concepts such as these emerged from the open coding of the audio-recordings and observations.

There were three to four stopping points in each story for children to turn and talk with their partners. At each pause for discussion in the story, the children were given a prompt for a word introduced at the beginning of the story. After students talked with their peers, the researcher asked several volunteers to share their responses with the entire group. The interactive read-aloud session was concluded with a review of all vocabulary words. All interactive read-alouds were audio-recorded, transcribed, and sent to the other observers for inter-rater agreement.

The analyses are presented in two sections--the first presents the analysis of the audio-recordings and observations. The second section gives individual cases on all eight participants.

**Themes Presented in the Data**

During the first stage of the analysis, all dialogue before, during, and after the story was transcribed verbatim by a graduate student who was familiar with the terminology and procedures of an interactive read-aloud, cross-checked with the observation logs, and then sent to the observers for inter-rater agreement. After the transcriptions were reviewed, the researcher reread the transcriptions and made notes in the right margin to identify themes and patterns. The codes that emerged during the first stage of the analysis are listed and defined in Table 2.

Table 2

*Coding Scheme*

| Code | Definition |
| --- | --- |
| Student Talk | Students' discussion about vocabulary words |
| Word Knowledge | Students' awareness of the words and use of the words |
| Depth of Knowledge | Students demonstrate full understanding of a word used in proper context |
| Sipe's Literary Responses | Literary responses used to introduce the word |

The transcriptions were further broken down into categories.  After the data were summarized, each transcript was uploaded to NVivo (QSR, 2012), reread, and coded.  This software allows all documents to be uploaded, searched, coded, sorted, and organized.  It is used to identify patterns and themes that emerge during qualitative analysis.  The data uploaded into the program was used to further compare and analyze children's peer talk about newly introduced vocabulary words and the types of literary responses used during the peer dialogue.  The observational data of children's analytic talk was then sorted to find examples of students' dialogue.  Coding was completed by making a folder of each theme in NVivo (QSR, 2012) and further condensing to create a node.  The nodes that emerged during the analysis are listed and defined in Table 3.

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Student Talk | Example given based on experience | Student used an example in dialogue based on experience | Jim: I like when it lingers because so me and my grandma and pappy and dad and my sister and me and mom and my cousins go camping together.<br><br>Martin: Me and my dad and my Sister and my brother and my mom Played hide and seek and I went in My room and I had the same Clothes on my wall and I hided [sic] there; they couldn't find me.<br><br>Helen: I felt fearless because one time my dad was stepping and he was holding me in the ocean and he fell. He slipped on the sea shells and I plugged my nose and breathed out of my nose. |
| | Prompted by peer | Student used word in dialogue when prompted by a peer | Martin: I was peevish when my brother kept saying, Nathan, wake up; it's time for school.<br>Jim: Did you feel grumpy? Can you show me a grumpy face?<br><br>Doug: One time, my brother wouldn't eat anything, but I made him.<br>Jim: Did you declare?<br><br>Researcher: Where did Wren go?<br>Student: On the bear's lip.<br>Researcher: How was he on the bear's lip? He was . . .<br>Student: Peached.<br>Student: Perched. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Spontaneous talk | Student used word in dialogue without prompting | Julia:  I *concealed* myself when my brother . . . *concealed* when we were playing hide and seek and I hid in one of the big cabinets.<br><br>Martin:  The bats made the leaves to be *shelter* for them because they probably didn't want to get rained on.<br><br>Helen:  They *declared* that he was not sweet.<br><br>Landon:  The *declared* Mac was a rotten apple.<br><br>Sidney:  My mom *pried* my tooth out because it was already half way out and then my mom just took a napkin and put it on the tooth and then she just yanked it out. |
| | Prompted by researcher | Student used word in dialogue when prompted by the researcher or research assistant | Helen:  I think they found the leaves and put it together in case it rained. Prompt:  So they put the leaves together?  And what did they make? Helen:  A tree. Prompt:  Did they make a tree or what did they make? Helen:  Leaves. Prompt:  What did they use the leaves to make? Helen:  *Shelter*. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Jim: I think the bats went there Because they were green and they could probably so no one could see them.<br>Prompt: So since both of them were green they may have been trying to do something else. Hide or . . .<br>Jim: *Conceal*. |
| | | | Helen: I think they were wrong, he's not a rotten apple; that made him feel bad.<br>Prompt: You think they were wrong? What's something else that they *declared*.<br>Helen: They *declared* that he was not sweet. |
| | Similar to partner | Student gave a similar response to peer who spoke first | Julia: I like when it lingers one and on and on in the summer because every year we get to go to the beach and I get to play with my friends. We get to play in the pool and eat popsicles.<br><br>Jocelyn: I like going to the big pool because I like playing with my cousin.<br><br>Julia: I felt peevish, when I didn't want to get dressed.<br><br>Landon: When I was peevish, I didn't want to go to school and my mom told me to get dressed and go to school but I didn't wanna [sic]. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Jim:  One time, I was playing hide and seek with my cousin, Nanthan, and my sister, Reese, and I couldn't find my sister and cousin Nathan and I was stumped.  I looked right and left, I mean left and right, and I couldn't find them and they were in a laundry basket and I found them.  They were in a really good hinding place and next time I was hiding, they couldn't find me.<br><br>Doug:  One time, me and my Uncle Ronald were playing hide and seek and I counted to ten and he went bye-byes. |
| Word Knowledge | Word Awareness | Student notices the word was stated or used by the teacher | Researcher read:  A leaf is a leaf. It bursts out each spring when sunny days *linger* or orials sing.<br>Jim:  That's the word, *linger*.<br>Researcher:  What's it mean?<br>Jim:  It means to go on and on and on.<br><br>Researcher read:  A rain stopper. What's the leaf doing for these foxes?<br>Helen:  It's making a *shelter*.<br>Jim:  Shelter!  The word *shelter*.<br><br>Researcher read:  Mac went back to playing with his orchard friends, diving *fearlessly* . . .<br>Sidney:  *Fearless*!  It means he's not afraid! |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Uses pictures to deepen word meaning | Student used pictures to understand the meaning of the word | Researcher:  He cheered him up. With what types of stories? <br> Jim:  Books. <br> Researcher:  Books about what? <br> Jim:  Like awesome pictures and stuff. <br> Researcher:  Okay, let's take a look at what the picture was in this story. It was a book about . . . <br> Jim:  Space. <br> Researcher:  Space, which would be . . . <br> Jim:  An adventure. <br><br> Doug:  It got spilled over by the white chicken. <br> Researcher:  It did get spilled over, didn't it?  And what's that called when something falls over like that?  It . . . <br> Doug:  Toppled over. <br><br> Researcher:  Discuss and show your partner how the chicken toppled the blue.  Go ahead, turn and talk. <br> Sidney:  The chicken toppled the paint over.  The chicken got in the paint and then the paint tipped over. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | Julia: When the chicken was Looking into the blue, he could've fell [sic] over and he got himself all painted.<br>Researcher: Okay, so what happened to the blue paint?<br>Abby: It spilled all over.<br><br>Researcher: Do you think the lizard looks a little unusual? I want you to turn and talk. Why do you think the lizard looks unusual? Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Doug: Because those different colors on the lizard. [Doug looked at the picture] |
| | Understood the word consistently | Student understood the meaning of the word consistently and identifies the word without prompting | Julia: It started to rain and bats don't like the rain, so they found a leaf to go under for *shelter*.<br><br>Landon: They had a climb up the *shelter* and it protected them.<br>Researcher: What protected them?<br>Landon: It was leaves.<br><br>Researcher: What is something you have savored? Sidney?<br>Sidney: When my mom was going To the doctor's, I savored every bite of my cookie.<br>Researcher: You savored every bite of your cookie? What does it mean when you savored every bite?<br>Sidney: You try to enjoy it as long as you can. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Researcher: Let's keep going. Chicken just wanted to . . . Students: Help. Researcher: They declared he just wanted to? Students: Help. Researcher: There's that big word. What's it say? Students: Help! Researcher: How would you say that if it was written like that? You would . . . Students: Declare. |
| | Confusing words with similar meanings | Student confused words with similar meanings | Researcher: What are you doing? What's it mean to *shelter* your head? Jim: *Conceal* it. Researcher: If you *conceal* something, you are hiding it. Remember, I'm trying to hide my dark circles. Researcher: They're not actually hiding, they're trying to get what? Landon: My sister *inspires* me. Researcher: How does she *inspire* you? Landon: She always sings when I say, "Please stop singing." Researcher: So how is she encouraging with you? How does she *inspire* you? Landon: I always say "please" to her when she's singing and she always doesn't stop. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|-------|------|-------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | Researcher:  Okay, so is that inspiring?  Is she encouraging you?  Or are you encouraging her? Landon:  She's doing it to me. |
| | | | Jim:  I *savored* strawberries. Research Assistant:  Tell me about that. Jim:  I *savored* strawberries because when they are not washed, I get two. I don't let no one [sic] see because they have to wash them and I just pick the thing off and I just eat the whole thing in one bite. Research Assistant:  Oh, okay so you eat them in one bite kind of quickly. Can you think of something that you slowly eat because you love it so much because you savor it?  Save the last bite even, maybe? Jim:  I like ate the whole thing. Research Assistant:  Because you loved it so much so you ate the whole thing? |
| | Understood the meaning of the word with example only | Student understood the meaning of the word by using an example | Researcher:  Discuss how you could conceal yourself when playing hide and seek.  Go ahead, turn and talk. Doug:  Me and my Uncle Brian were playing on the trampoline and we tried to play hide and seek with our cousin.  Nobody ever went in the house so that's where I went. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|-------|------|-------------|-------------------------------|
|  |  |  | Researcher: I want you to think about our story Chopsticks yesterday and how are Mac's adventure stories like the chopstick in the other story? Go ahead, turn and talk. |
|  |  |  | Sidney: In the chopstick story they were both friends and the connection in both stories were they were both friends. |
|  |  |  | Research Assistant: They were both friends. And what did they like to do together? |
|  |  |  | Sidney: They liked to dofun stuff. |
|  |  |  | Research Assistant: Can you think of any adventures? |
|  |  |  | Sidney: In the chopstick story, they played. |
|  |  |  | Helen: I got my tooth out. I had to twist it the whole way around and pull my tooth up and it came out and I put it in a bag and I went to sleep. |
|  |  |  | Doug: Sometimes Colton and Alex, we go outside and play all different kinds of games. |
|  |  |  | Research Assistant: So you practically play all the games together. Is there anything that you don't do together? |
|  |  |  | Doug: Yeah like build puzzles. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Understood the meaning of the word in dialogue | Student understood the meaning using a word and example and stating word in their dialogue | Researcher: If you were feeling *peevish*, how would you look? Show your partner and talk about a time when you felt *peevish*. Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Sidney: My mom woke me up and I didn't like her waking me up and I got *peevish*.<br>Research Assistant: So then did you way anything to her?<br>Sidney: I said I was *irritated*.<br><br>Landon: When me and my sister were playing tab, I *ventured* off to the back yard where she couldn't tag me.<br><br>Helen: I think he is *passionate* about them because the illustrator wanted to make it like it's real in real life.<br>Researcher: So he had the rabbit . . .<br>Helen: Like carrots and have a *passion* for them. |
| Depth of Knowledge | Synonym | Student gave a synonym for the vocabulary word | Landon: They had to climb up the *shelter* and so they . . . like rain and it *protected* them.<br><br>Researcher: To go on and on and on. Now, this is my question. I'm going to have you turn and talk. Do you like when sunny days *linger*? Why or why not? Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Martin: I like it because if it was sunny and going *over and over and over again*, I'd be happy. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Students: *Shelter*.<br>Researcher: What does that mean?<br>Julia: They have something over their head.<br>Researcher: And they are trying to do what with their head?<br>Julia: Cover it.<br><br>Researcher: Somebody said another word for *concealed*, I think it was Jim.<br>Jim: *Camouflaged*. |
| | Repeated exposure | Students were given repeated exposure to the word | Research Assistant: What were some of the things that the other apples *declared*?<br>Doug: You are a rotten apple.<br>Research Assistant: You are a rotten apple. That's one thing they said; did they say anything else?<br>Doug: Mac's a rotten apple.<br>Research Assistant: Mac's a rotten apple.<br>Jim: They said, Mac's a rotten apple, and they said he was sweet.<br><br>Researcher: Bear said, "Open wide!" Then he looked inside and saw BEAR'S LOOSE TOOTH!<br>Sidney: You said it like you *declared* it again! |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Researcher:  And what does *declared* mean, Jim? Jim:  It means you strongly say something. |
| | Word association | Student associated the word with other things or other words | Researcher:  I want you to think about our story Chopsticks yesterday and how are Mac's *adventure* stories like the chopstick in the other story?  Go ahead, turn and talk. Jim:  *Venture* means to go off and find new things and adventure is like the same thing and there is another one called *adventure* because the books were really awesome. |
| | | | Researcher:  Okay, who would like to share how they were the same? Landon:  When the chopstick told the other one to go *venture* off and Mac liked the space story because it was an *adventure* story. Researcher:  It was an *adventure* story which means?  What does that mean to be a story that is an *adventure*? Landon:  It's awesome. |
| | | | Researcher:  So, is it okay to *venture* out one your own sometimes? Students:  Yeah. Sidney:  Guess what?  I heard that word again in *adventure*. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Personalize word | Student personalizes the word to their life | Researcher: Now, this is my question. I'm going to have you turn and talk. Do you like when sunny days *linger*? Why or why not? Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Helen: I think I like it because we get to swin in the pool. My grandma and grandpa get to come over.<br>Research Assistant: You like it why?<br>Helen: I like it because, the sun, when it *lingers* all the time, I like it when my grandma and grandpa come over to my pool.<br><br>Sidney: My mom strongly stated today that I had to brush me teeth.<br><br>Researcher: Something that I like to do in the *shade*: sometimes you will see a hammock or a chair in the shade. I like to sit and relax in a chair in the shade. What's something you like to do?<br>Jocelyn: Have a picnic.<br>Researcher: Where do you like to have a picnic?<br>Jocelyn: Under the tree.<br>Researcher: What kind of place is that?<br>Jocelyn: *Shade*. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Word taught | Student used words previously taught in their peer talk | Jim: I think the paint *splattered* on him because I think someone painted it. Jim: *Wacky*. |
| | | | Researcher: Who would like to share? Why does this lizard look a little *wacky* to you? Martin: I think it went into the art room and then got paint on it because the kids *toppled* it and then it went on it. Researcher: Okay, they *toppled* the paint? Martin: Yeah and it falled [sic] on it then it got paint on it and it went in the hole. Researcher: And it looks? Martin: *Wacky*. |
| | | | Sidney: I *ventured* off to my dad's house. Research Assistant: This is an *adventure*. Venturing off means to go somewhere. What is your favorite *adventure*. Sidney: Going to my dad's house. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Meta-cognition | Student understood he/she has limited knowledge of the word | Researcher: Why do you think Jasper had a passion for carrots? Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Helen: I think it was because he had a passion because bunnies like carrots and he wanted to be believable so he picked them because he wanted people to believe it.<br>Research Assistant: What did he want people to believe?<br>Helen: That bunnies like carrots.<br>Jocelyn: I'm not sure.<br><br>Researcher: Does the word "faded" look faded to you? Why or why not? Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Julia: I have a question. Whey when we say it like this, like slow, it sounds like a ghost? |
| Sipe's Literary Responses | Transparent | Mirrored to life through experiences | Sidney: I lost six teeth already.<br>Hannah: That's because she had to get some of them pulled out.<br>Sidney: I had to get two pulled out at the doctor's.<br>Research Assistant: You had to go to the doctor's? Did they have to pry out? |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Sidney: Um yeah. They had to take tweezers but they put this medicine over my nose and my mouth and then it put me right to sleep and then they just got some tweezers and they pulled it out.<br>Research Assistant: Did they pry it out?<br>Sidney: They pried it out.<br><br>Doug: My uncle sneaked out the back door.<br>Research Assistant: And what did you declare?<br>Doug: I said, "Come back here, Brian!"<br><br>Researcher: Did you ever feel stumped? You weren't sure what to do? I get stumped a lot. I want you to turn and talk and tell your partner about a time you felt stumped. Go ahead, turn and talk.<br>Sidney: One time I was trying to do my homework but I couldn't read and then I didn't know what to do.<br>Research Assistant: So one time you were trying to do your homework and what were you saying that you couldn't do?<br>Sidney: I couldn't do my homework because I didn't know how to read and then on the bus I didn't know how to read then my mom said to do my homework but I couldn't because I didn't know how to do it. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|-------|------|-------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | Research Assistant:  So you were? Sidney:  Stumped. |
| | | | Researcher:  No one would see you.  You blend in with your surroundings.  Did anyone see anything on their spring walk yesterday that was concealed? Julia:  A bug.  It was brown. Researcher:  The bug was concealed?  What was it concealed it? Julia:  The tree. Landon:  When I went to the beach, the water looked black instead of blue. Researcher:  So it was a little . . . Landon:  Wacky. |
| | | | Researcher:  Who would like to talk about your favorite adventure and why it was your favorite?  Or your favorite exciting experience? Jocelyn:  I like to walk to the woods by myself to look in the lake. Researcher:  So that's your favorite . . . Jocelyn:  Adventure. |
| | Intertextual | Connected words to another story | Researcher:  Next word.  It reminds me of a word that we had yesterday.  If I take that off, what word is it?  Do you remember from yesterday? Julia:  Venture.  Venture off. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|-------|------|-------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | Researcher: It's venture. And it means to go off somewhere. This word is adventure. If you go on an adventure, you have an exciting experience. It's like something that is really, really exciting. So yesterday when the one chopstick ventured off on his own, he had some adventures. Do you remember some of the stuff that he did? He played. |
| | | | Sidney: Basketball. |
| | | | Researcher: What else did he do? |
| | | | Julia: He played pickup sticks. |
| | | | Landon: The pool thing. The one where the little guy was jumping off of the pool. |
| | | | Researcher: Did you see the similarities between these two books? How are these two books similar? |
| | | | Sidney: The chopstick broke his leg and . . . |
| | | | Researcher: What did the chopstick have to do? |
| | | | Helen: They both went on an adventure. Will and one of the chopsticks. |
| | | | Researcher: Will and one of the chopsticks. And they both were friends then they had to go away from each other for a while, right? Venture out on their own and go on adventures, or exciting experiences. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Personal | Gave an opinion about the word | Researcher: Do you like when a sunny day lingers? Landon: I like when a sunny day lingers because we can play outside.<br><br>Researcher: What di you think Jasper would have done if he saw creepy carrots when he whipped around? Go ahead, turn and talk. Doug: Jasper would eat them or the carrots would eat Jasper. Research Assistant: Why do you think Jasper would eat the carrots? Doug: Because they are good.<br><br>Researcher: Why do you think Jasper found it ridiculous? Go ahead, turn and talk. Doug: Because Jasper saw the creepy carrots and he took two bites out of the big fat carrots and nothing happened, so he said that was ridiculous. Jocelyn: Because nothing happened to him.<br><br>Researcher: Who would like to share? Why does this lizard look a little wacky to you? Martin: I think it went into the art room and then got paint on it because the kids pushed the thing and then it went on it. |

Table 3

*Nodes*

| Theme | Node | Definitions | Example of Students' Dialogue |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Researcher:  Now listen. I want you to think about this.  Why do you think Rose came charging over to Brutus' leg?  Go ahead, turn and talk. <br> Doug:  To get him back to his home. |
| | Performative | Student acted out the word | Doug:  Because we can go out and play and go fishing and go swimming. <br> Research Assistant:  Oh so you like it when the sunny days . . . <br> Doug:  Linger. <br> Research Assistant:  Can you guys show me linger? <br> Students:  Roll hand over and over. <br><br> Researcher:  To cover your head. Show me conceal.  Conceal your eyes.  What does it mean to conceal your eyes? <br> Landon:  Hide them.  [Student puts hands over his eyes.] <br><br> Researcher:  He looked in it and it toppled over.  Julia, can you show us what toppled means?  What does toppled look like? <br> Julia:  [Stands up and topples over.] |

Within this section, all themes and categories are discussed with excerpts from the student

dialogue.  All quotes from the vocabulary introduction, the peer talk, and the review of the words

was useful in gaining an understanding of each theme.  Four themes emerged before, during, and

after the interactive read-aloud from the children's talk: Student Talk, Word Knowledge, Depth of Knowledge, and Sipe's Literary Responses. Each theme and node is detailed as follows.

**Student Talk**

Students were asked to turn and talk with their talk partner set at three or four planned locations during the reading. A prompt including the vocabulary word was given to the children. Children were then instructed to turn and talk. For example, the word "inspiring" was explicitly taught at the beginning of *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012). After the word was explicitly taught, the following prompt was given:

> Researcher: Remember, *inspiring* means encouraging. Who is someone who inspires you? Go ahead turn and talk.
>
> Student: My sister inspires me to get my homework done.

**Spontaneous talk.** After students were instructed to turn and talk, sometimes they spoke about the prompt using the word spontaneously. For example, during the peer talk of *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012)*,* a student spontaneously talked about the word "shelter."

> Researcher: Now, we are going to turn and talk. Look closely at the picture and I want you to discuss how the bats got *shelter* and then show your partner what sheltering your head would look like. Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Julia: It started to rain and bats don't like the rain, so they found a leaf to go under for *shelter*.
>
> Researcher: So you don't think bats like rain.
>
> Julia: They don't.
>
> Researcher: So they had to find shelter somewhere. And what did they use?
>
> Julia: The leaf.

In this excerpt, the student spontaneously used the word shelter rather than simply demonstrating or performing the word.

During the reading of *Green* (Seeger, 2012), the researcher used the word "unusual" in the turn and talk question and Sidney spontaneously used the word "wacky" in her peer talk.

Researcher:  Do you think the lizard looks a little unusual?  I want you to turn and talk. Why do you think the lizard looks unusual?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Sidney:  I think the lizard looks *wacky* because it looks like he's rocks [*sic*].

I think it is because he looks like he blends in with the ground and stuff on the ground. As illustrated, when students were prompted with a turn and talk question using the newly introduced words, often times students would spontaneously use the word in their peer talk.

**Prompted by researcher.**  After students were instructed to turn and talk with their partner, sometimes the students required prompting from the researcher or research assistant in order for the word to be used in their peer dialogue.  For example, during the turning and talking about the word "fearless" in the story *Bad Apple: A Tale of Friendship* (Hemingway, 2012)*,* Jim needed to be prompted from the teacher in order for him to use the word in his peer talk.

Researcher:  I want you to discuss a time when you felt *fearless*, or not afraid. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jim:  When I wasn't afraid of . . . at Halloween I wasn't afraid of this clown that scary clown, and I wasn't afraid but it was a little scary.

Research Assistant's prompt:  So you were?

Jim:  Not afraid.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Also that word is?

Jim:  *Fearless*

**Prompted by peer.**  After students were instructed to turn and talk with their talk partner, sometimes the peer prompted their talk partner to use the word that was explicitly taught.  For example, in the story *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Sidney prompted her partner Jocelyn to use the word "savor" in her peer talk.

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner.  What is something you have eaten and you *savored* every bite? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jocelyn:  I never did anything with my tooth loose.

Sidney:  No, we are trying to speak anything about *savoring*.

Research Assistant:  Oh, very good.  Good reminding.  So we are thinking about something we savored; a food that we enjoyed as long as we could.

Sidney:  I enjoyed a cookie as long as I could.

Research Assistant:  You enjoyed a cookie as long as you could.

As illustrated in this example, Sidney was trying to prompt her talk partner, Jocelyn, to talk about the word *savor.*

**Similar to partner.**  After being instructed to turn and talk with their talk partner, sometimes the second talk partner would use the same example as the first talk partner.  It was then difficult to decide if the student who replicated their partner's talk actually had that experience and if they had a true understanding of the vocabulary word.  The following example used with the story, *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), the first student talked about "disturbing" his brother when he was making a loom bracelet and the second student used the same example.

Researcher: I want you to discuss with your partner a time when you felt you *disturbed* someone, like you interrupted them when they were doing something. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia: When my brother Shay was making a loom bracelet, I came and said, Hey what are you making? and he said, Get out of here! I'm busy!

Researcher: Oh, so you . . . .

Julia: *Disturbed* him.

Researcher: Who was it?

Julia: Shay.

Researcher: Who is Shay?

Julia: My brother.

Researcher's prompt: And what did you come in and say to Shay?

Julia: I come into his room and said, "Hey what are you doing? What are you making? and he said, "Get out of here! I'm working on something! I'm busy!

Landon: When my brother was making a loom bracelet that was green for me, "What are you making me? and he said, "Get out of here!"

Teacher: So did he get mad?

Landon: Uh huh.

Researcher's prompt: Because you did what?

Landon: *Disturbed* him.

As illustrated, Landon gave the same example as Julia but with teacher prompting he was able to use the vocabulary word "disturbed" in his peer talk.

**Example based on experience.** When instructing students to turn and talk to their talk partner, students used an example in dialogue based on experience. It seemed that students mostly talked about things they experienced in their peer talk. For example, even though the researcher asked the students to talk about how the chicken "toppled over" the paint in the story *Blue Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), a student related the word to something he experienced.

Researcher: Discuss and show your partner how the chicken toppled the blue paint. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jim: I *toppled over* and I *toppled over* when I was on a stump.

Research Assistant's prompt: So you're talking about a time when you *toppled over*. Can you talk about how the chicken *toppled* in the paint?

Jim: They pushed the paint and his head was in blue paint.

Research Assistant's prompt: And what happened to the paint?

Jim: It got all over the place and it *toppled down*.

The student clearly was able to discuss how the blue paint was toppled in the story after the teacher prompted him; however, his first instinct was to relate the word to something he experienced.

## Word Knowledge

According to Dale (1965), there are four stages of word knowledge. Stage one is having no knowledge of the word; never hearing or seeing the word. Stage two refers to one having some exposure to the word but lacking knowledge of the word's meaning. Limited knowledge of the word's meaning and inconsistency in using the word in one's speaking and writing comprises stage three. In stage four of word knowledge, one is able to consistently and correctly use the word in speaking and writing. During the turning and talking, students' knowledge of

explicitly taught words became apparent.  The researcher and observers noticed that children were listening for words and understanding the meaning of the words by using the words correctly in their examples and dialogue.  However, sometimes children were confusing words that had similar meanings.  The following section described nodes discovered within this theme.

**Word Awareness.**  Students noticed and became interested in words (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008) stated or used by the teacher.  Sometimes this occurred while the researcher was reading.  For example, while reading the story *Creepy Carrots* (Reynolds, 2012),  the students consciously noticed the word "ridiculous" was read.

Researcher read:  Creepy carrots.  It was *ridiculous*!

Students (Unprompted):  *Ridiculous*!

The students all yelled out the word "ridiculous" after that line was read.  Students were aware of the word and became interested in listening for the word while the researcher read.

Other times, students understood the word was said in a voice that indicated their awareness of the word.  The following is an excerpt from the reading of *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012).

Researcher read:  But this time, Lenore wouldn't move!

Students (Unprompted):  You *declared* it!

Students had a deep understanding of word "declared" and had an awareness of the declarative voice used by the researcher during the reading.

**Confusing words with similar meanings.**  Three to four Tier Two vocabulary words were introduced at the beginning of each story and students had opportunity to use the word in their peer talk after responding to a prompt.  If the words chosen had similar meanings,

sometimes children misused the words.  Such was the case in the following example when reading the story *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012):

> Researcher:  Now, we are going to turn and talk.  Look closely at the picture and I want you to discuss how the bats got *shelter* and then show your partner what sheltering your head would look like.  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Jim:  The bats got *shelter* because so they can blend in when they are green.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  So how did they get *shelter*?
>
> Jim:  They blend in so they could hide and get *shelter*.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Okay, so blending in is concealed.  Who sheltered the bats?
>
> Jim:  The leaves.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  The leaves sheltered the bats because they protected them? They covered them?

In this excerpt, Jim confused two words that were introduced with the story, concealed and shelter.  The words were very similar in meaning as conceal was defined as "to hide" and shelter was defined as "to cover."

In the next example, two students are confusing the word *declared* and *disturbed* during the reading of *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012).  Both of these words were introduced at the beginning of the story.  The students understand the word begins with a 'd' but confused the words.

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk and talk about a time that someone *declared* that you do something.  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Martin:  I talk with my brother and someone messes me up.

Research Assistant's prompt: Somebody messes you up when you talk with your brother?

Doug: My mom said something to me and every time when Ryan gets an answer wrong and he got a . . . he undo them [*sic*].

Research Assistant's prompt: So what does *declared* mean, guys?

Doug: It means when . . . if you're talking to someone and someone messes up.

In another example, one student confused the words venture and adventure. The word "venture" was introduced in the story *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012) and the next day the word "adventure" was introduced in the story *Bad Apple: A Tale of Friendship* (Hemingway, 2012). The researcher realized that the students confused the use of these words and reintroduced the word adventure in the story *Otto the Book Bear* (Cleminson, 2011). As the example indicates, Julia still confused the use of these words.

Julia: I like to *adventure* into the woods to get sticks to have campfires outside of the house and we cook marshmallows and it was my favorite *adventure* through the woods

Researcher's prompt: Why was it your favorite?

Julia: I got to make the rules what stick to get.

**Using pictures to deepen the word meaning.** Students used pictures to understand the meaning of the word. Using pictures allows students to figure out unknown words when reading (Zimmerman, 2012). For example, while turning and talking during the reading of *Green* (Seeger, 2012)*,* students were asked to discuss whether the word on the page look *faded*.

Researcher: Does the word look *faded*? Why or why not?

Martin: It looks a little bit *faded* and a little bit scratched because some is not *faded* and is. It looks *faded*, but not all of it looks *faded*.

In this picture, there is a piece of wood with the word "faded" written on it. In the picture, the word looks both *faded* and scratched. Martin was using the picture to understand the meaning of the word *faded*.

**Understanding the word consistently.** Students understood the meaning of the word consistently and identified the word with or without prompting. During the read-alouds, it was apparent when students understood the meaning of the words. To illustrate, during the turning and talking when reading the story *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012), Helen was able to use the word and provide an example that clearly demonstrated her understanding the word "conceal" consistently.

Researcher: Discuss how you could *conceal* yourself when playing hide and seek. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen: You can wear clothes. Same colored clothes so you can hide or you can blend in.

Research Assistant's prompt: So you can blend in or you can . . . . To cover or hide to prevent from being seen. What's that word? Blend in or to . . . .

Helen: *Conceal*.

Research Assistant's prompt: So give me an example of something you can wear and what could you blend in with?

Helen: Like you can wear green and you can play outside and hide with the tree.

With a tree or a bush that could be all green?

Using the same story, Julia demonstrated her understanding of the word "linger."

Julia: I like when summer goes on and on and on.

Researcher's prompt: What's that word to go on and on and on?

Julia: *Lingers.*

Julia:  I like when summer *lingers* because we get to go to the beach every year and when

it is really hot we get to play in the pool.  The water is really cold, and we get to eat

popsicles but they always melt.

Researcher:  Can you show me *linger*?

Julia: On and on and on [student rolls hands in a circular motion over and over].

Julia demonstrated her consistent understanding of the word with her use of the word, the

example, and her actually showing what "linger" looks like.  Another excerpt when interactively

reading *A Leaf Can Be* that demonstrated students consistently understood the word "declared."

Researcher:  Go and discover what else it can be!

Students (Unprompted):  *Declared*.

Researcher:  Why did I *declare* it that time?

Doug:  Because you yelled.

Student:  Because of the exclamation point.

Researcher:  Okay, you think *declare* has to have an exclamation point?  Why?

Student:  You mean it.

Student:  You are strongly stating it and you mean it.

Students clearly demonstrated their understanding of the word "declared."   The students stated

that the researcher used a declarative voice and understood that when a declarative voice is used,

you mean it!

**Understood meaning with example only.**  Students understood the meaning of the word

by using an example.  Students would use an example that demonstrated their understanding of

the word; however, the word was not used in their peer talk.  While reading the story *Blue*

*Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), Doug gave an example of when he was feeling *peevish*; however, he did not use the word in his conversation. The following excerpt illustrates this node:

Doug: My uncle kept saying, Wake up! Wake up!

Research Assistant's prompt: So you were getting woken up, too. Is there another time you felt *peevish*? Someone ever make you feel irritated or *peevish* besides when they woke you up?

Doug: No.

In another example during the reading of *Creepy Carrots* (Reynolds, 2012), Helen gave an example of what Jasper the rabbit would have done if he whipped around and saw creepy carrots but did not use the previously taught word "whipped" in her peer talk.

Researcher: What do you think Jasper would have done if he saw creepy carrots when he *whipped* around? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen: I think he was just seeing things because he needs glasses.

Research Assistant's prompt: You think he was just seeing things?

Helen: Because he needs glasses.

Research Assistant's prompt: So it was?

Helen: Just his bad eye sight.

**Understands meaning using word in dialogue.** Students understood the meaning using a word, an example, and stated the word in their dialogue. During the interactive reading of the story *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), the children were instructed to turn and talk about a time they "savored" something. Sidney discussed a time she savored a cookie by providing the experience and using the word in her peer talk.

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner.  What is something you have eaten and you *savored* every bite?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Sidney:  When my mom was going to the doctor's, I *savored* every bite of my cookie.

Research Assistant's prompt:  You *savored* every bite of your cookie?  What does it mean when you *savored* every bite?

Sidney:  You try to enjoy it as long as you can.

Research Assistant:  As long as you can.

In this example during the interactive reading of *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Jim discussed his experience watching a squirrel eating by using the word  "perched" in his peer dialogue.

Researcher:  *Perched*!  He was *perched* on it.  Now, you are going to turn and talk.  I want you to talk about a time when you saw a bird or something (I told you my chicken) that was *perched* somewhere.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jim:  I saw a squirrel *perched* on my house.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Did you really?  What was he doing?

Jim:  A squirrel he was eating food and he was *perched* on the edge.

Research Assistant's prompt:  On the edge of?

Jim:  On the edge of the thing.

Research Assistant's prompt:  The little step?

Jim:  Mhmm.

Using the same book and the previously taught word "perched," Landon gave an example of his dog perched on the edge of the steps.

Researcher: *Perched*!  He was *perched* on it.  Now, you are going to turn and talk.  I

want you to talk about a time when you saw a bird or something (I told you my chickens)

that was *perched* somewhere.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Landon:  My dog was *perched* in the grass.

Researcher's prompt:  What does that mean?

Landon:  It means that she stayed there for long until I told her to go inside.

Researcher's prompt:  Perched on the grass.  Okay, when you are perched, you are sitting

on the edge of something.  So what was she sitting on the edge of?

Landon:  The edge of the steps.

Researcher's prompt:  Oh, the edge of the steps.  So who was on the edge of the steps?

Landon:  My dog, Bailey.

Researcher's prompt:  Oh, she was *perched* on the edge of the steps.  Can you say that

again?

Landon:  My dog was *perched* on the edge of the steps.

## Depth of Knowledge

Students' depth of knowledge is a measure of how well the student understands the

concept of a word (Maynard et al., 2010; Ouellette & Beers, 2010).  When students are able to

use the words accurately in their speaking and writing, this usage demonstrates students' deep

understanding of the words.

**Synonyms.**  During the peer talk, students may not have stated the previously taught

word in their dialogue; however, a synonym of the word was given.  This application of using a

synonym for the word in their peer talk demonstrates depth of knowledge with the word's

meaning. During the turning and talking of the word "pry" when reading the story *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Sidney used the word "yanked" as a synonym for "pry."

> Researcher: I want you to talk about a time that you had a loose tooth or you knew of someone who had a loose tooth. Did someone have to *pry* it out? How did they have to *pry* it out? Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Sidney: My mom *pried* my tooth out because it was already half way out and then my mom just took a napkin and put it on the tooth and then she just *yanked* it out.

In another excerpt, Landon uses both "excellent" and "creative" as synonyms for the Tier Two word "brilliant" during the turning and talking about the story *The Day the Crayons Quit* (Daywalt, 2013).

> Researcher: What *brilliant* idea do you think Duncan may have? Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Landon: I think he's going to make an idea and use pink and this time use all sorts of different colors to draw a different picture?
>
> Researcher's prompt: Why do you think that's *brilliant*?
>
> Landon: Because he's going to make stuff up and it's going to be really silly and I think it's going to be really cool.
>
> Researcher's prompt: Why do you think it's *brilliant* though? What does *brilliant* mean?
>
> Landon: *Excellent* idea.
>
> Researcher's prompt: If you have a *brilliant* idea it's very what?
>
> Landon: *Creative*.

Figure 4, displays synonyms used for the word "conceal" during the reading of *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012) throughout the peer talk and review of the vocabulary word. The transcript was

loaded into Wordle (http://www.wordle.net) and generated a word cloud for the synonyms used for the word conceal.



*Figure 4.* Synonym wordle.  Graphic word generator that made the most frequent words larger.

**Metacognition.**  Martinez (2006) describes the term metacognition as the ability to monitor and control one's thought.  After giving Jim and his talk partners the prompt during the interactive reading of *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), Jim recognized that he was unsure of the word "venture;" however, he did realize that it began with the same letter as "vanished."  This clearly demonstrates that Jim was monitoring and had control of his thoughts.

Researcher: I want you to talk to your talk partner about a time you *ventured* off somewhere. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jim:  I vanished.  Wait, what was that word?

Research Assistant's prompt:  *Ventured*.

Jim:  *Ventured* off I was looking for my mom and I found her but that's why I *ventured* off.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Where was she?

Jim:  She was building a house and she was helping to pick up the logs and stuff.

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Research Assistant's prompt:  So where did you *venture* off to?

Jim:  My property.

In the next excerpt of the story *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012), Jocelyn realizes that she does not understand the word "shelter" so she asks the teacher for clarification.  By asking for clarification, she demonstrated her ability to monitor her thought process prior to responding to the prompt.

Researcher:  Now, we are going to turn and talk.  Look at the picture closely and I want you to discuss how the bats got *shelter* and then show your partner what sheltering your head would look like.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jocelyn:  I don't know what that means.

Research Assistant's prompt:  We want to know how the bats got *shelter*.  So how did they get a cover to protect themselves from something?

Both excerpts showed insight into the children monitoring their understanding of words.

**Word association.**  When students associated the word with other terms or other words and made a "semantic connection among words" (Blachowicz et al., 2006, p. 530), this word association exemplified their depth in understanding the word.  During the interactive reading of *Creepy Carrots* (Reynolds, 2012), Helen made an association of the words "passionate" and "passion."

This association revealed her depth of knowledge with the Tier Two word "passion."

Researcher:  Why do you think Jasper had a *passion* for carrots?  Go ahead turn and talk.

Helen:  I think he is *passionate* about them because the illustrator wanted to make it like it's real life.

Researcher Assistant's prompt:  So he had, the rabbit . . . .

Helen:  Like carrots and have a *passion* for them.

Research Assistant:  She thinks that the illustrator decided that Jasper has a *passion* for

carrots.

In another example, Jim made an association between the words "savor" and "save" while the

word "*savor*" was being introduced before the interactive reading of *Bear's Loose Tooth*

(Wilson, 2011).

Jim:  I know what *savor* means.

Researcher:  What is it, Jim?

Jim:  Like you *save* something like let's say if I was up on a roof and if a cat was on a tree

and I *saved* her.

Researcher:  Oh, that's a little bit different.  It sort of sounds like the word save, and you

are sort of on the right track, but *savor* means you enjoy it as long as you can.  So if you

*savor* an enjoyable moment in your life, you enjoy it as long as you can.  In this story,

Bear's Loose Tooth, bear was eating a cookie and he *savored* every bite of the cookie.

That means he enjoyed it as long as he could.  See, there's a picture of Bear eating that

cookie.  He's *savoring* every bite.  So he enjoyed it as long as he could.

Jim has depth of knowledge with the word *savor* as he associates it to the word *save*.  With

clarification, he is able to clearly understand the similarities between the two words.

**Personalize words.**  Personalizing words occurred when students had an active

development in the word learning (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000) by connecting the word to their

lives.  This connection was illustrated in the following excerpt during the interactive reading of

*Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012).  Julia personalized the learning of the word "stumped" to when

she was playing a game with her brother.

Researcher:  Did you ever feel *stumped*?  You weren't sure what to do?  I get *stumped* a

lot.  I want you to turn and talk and tell your partner about a time you felt *stumped*.  Go

ahead, turn and talk.

Julia:  When me and Shay [sic] was playing a game, he was confusing me and I got

*stumped*.

Researcher:  Ah, he was confusing you with the game so you got *stumped*?

Julia seemed to have a deep understanding of the word *stumped* as she personalized it to her own

life.

In the next excerpt, the word "charged" was introduced at the beginning of the story

*Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012) and Jim personalized the word to his experience playing

hockey.  This excerpt exemplified Jim's depth of knowledge with the word "charged" as he

connected it to his life experiences.

Researcher:  The next word . . . this is a little tricky because there are a couple meanings

for this word. Sometimes if we go to the grocery store or we go to a store your mom may

take out a card and she charges it, like on a credit card. This word is *charged*, but it

doesn't mean that. It means to move quickly toward. Like for example, in a football game

the players will charge toward the quarterback.

Jim:  I *charged* someone in hockey.

Researcher:  Very good!

Jim:  It was a big twelve man and I *charged*  him.

Researcher:  What did you do when you *charged* him?

Jim:  I like put my head and he had a lot of pads on.

Researcher:  Did you move quickly towards him?

Jim:  Yes.

Researcher:  That's what it means; to move quickly toward.  In this story, the dog is *charging* toward the sheep to get them moving.

**Words previously taught.**  Students used words previously taught in other interactive read-aloud session within their peer talk.  For example, during the interactive reading of the story *Green* (Seeger, 2012)*,* the word "wacky" was introduced; however, Julia used the word "concealed" which was previously taught.  It was apparent that Julia had a deep understanding of the word "conceal" as she used it within her peer talk without prompting.

Researcher:  Do you think the lizard looks a little unusual?  I want you to turn and talk.  Why do you think the lizard looks unusual?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia:  I think the lizard can change colors.  I have seen lizards before.

Researcher's prompt:  So you think what?

Julia:  The lizard changed colors to *conceal*.

Researcher's prompt:  The lizard changed colors to *conceal*?  Does it look a little unusual or *wacky*?

Julia:  It looks *wacky*.

Researcher's prompt:  Why?

Julia:  Because it changed colors.

During another read-aloud, *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012), Martin used the word "peevish" in his peer talk when "grumpy" was the word prompted and introduced with the story.  Martin had a deep understanding of the word "peevish" as he used it correctly in his peer talk even when prompted with the word "grumpy."

Researcher: I want you to turn and talk about a time you felt *grumpy* and show your partner wheat your face looked like when you felt that way. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin: I was *peevish* when my brothers kept saying, Martin, wake up; it's time for school.

Research Assistant's prompt: Did you feel *grumpy*? Can you show me a grumpy face?

While reading the story, *Otto the Book Bear* (Cleminson, 2011)*,* Landon used the word "jeered" which was previously taught. The word prompted and introduced was "unwelcome." This reveals Landon's deep understanding of the word "jeer" as he used it correctly with the conversation with his peers during the interactive reading.

Researcher: I want you to turn and talk, why do you think Otto felt so *unwelcome*? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Researcher: Landon, could you share why Otto felt *unwelcome*?

Landon: Because the cats *jeered* at him because he was too tiny.

Researcher: He was too tiny and it made him feel . . . .

Landon: *Unwelcome*.

Researcher: So he used two words. He said the cat *jeered* at him and made him feel *unwelcome* because he was so tiny.

**Repeated Exposure.** It is important for the teacher to provide multiple opportunities for students to interact with the words in text and oral language. Multiple exposures to words help with depth of meaning; a single exposure will not allow students to develop a rich understanding of the word (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Blachowicz et al., 2006; Kindle, 2009; Scott, Jamieson-Noel, & Asselin, 2003). It is also important to provide students the opportunity to read, hear, use, and talk about the newly learned words (Blachowicz et al., 2006). Students were

given repeated exposure to one word, "declared," throughout all of the read-alouds. This enhanced students' knowledge about the word. The following excerpts shows evidence for the depth of meaning when students are given multiple exposures to the word. For example, during the second interactive read-aloud, *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), the word *declared* was being reintroduced. The student quickly remembered hearing the word and was able to give meaning to the word.

Researcher: Next word, *declared*.

Helen: We learned about that.

Researcher: We did learn about that word! In what book?

Helen: With that one (points to book).

Researcher: That book! Do you remember what *declared* means? If somebody declares something, what does that mean?

Helen: They, um, demand you do something.

Researcher: Okay! They strongly state that you do something. Who *declared* in this book, *Back to Front and Upside Down* (Alexander, 2012), who *declared* something?

Helen: The officer.

Researcher: The principal! And the principal declared that Stan did a good job making a . . . .

Helen: Card.

Researcher: Card! Yes, good job! So declared means to strongly state, and in this story, the dog, Rocket, *declares* to his other dog friends that he's going to write a story.

During another read-aloud, *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), the researcher introduced the

vocabulary by reminding students to listen for interesting words and pointed to the anchor charts.

One student stated the use of the word *declared* while journal writing.

> Researcher: Today we are going to listen for vocabulary. Vocabulary is interesting
>
> words. Like all of those interesting words up there.
>
> Landon: I used one of them in my journal.
>
> Researcher: Awesome! So when you *declared*, how did you use it in your journal?
>
> Landon: I *declared* to my mom that I wanted mint ice cream.
>
> Researcher: You *declared* to your mom that you wanted mint ice cream? Let's listen to
>
> see if at any point in the story today you hear someone *declare* something.

The student understood the meaning of the word and is now applying the word during journal

writing. While the researcher continued reading the book, a teacher prompted the students to

explain how the words were read.

> Researcher: IT WAS BEAR'S LOOSE TOOTH!
>
> Research Assistant's prompt: What was that? How did she say that?
>
> Landon: She said it like you *declared* something.
>
> Researcher: Wow! How did you know I *declared* that? How did I say it?
>
> Students: You said it loud.
>
> Researcher: I said it loud. Did I strongly state it?
>
> Students: Yeah.

The researcher continued the reading of the book and Sidney realized words were *declared*

independently.

Researcher: Bear said, "Open wide!" Then he looked inside and saw BEAR'S LOOSE

TOOTH!

Sidney: You said it like you *declared* it again!

All students: You *declared* it!

Researcher: Okay, I *declared* it again!

It was obvious from the multiple encounters with the word that students understood the meaning

of the word, used it in their writing, and identified when a declarative voice was used.

Two days later during the interactive reading of the story, *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012),

the students stated the words were *declared*; this occurred without prompting. This time, the

researcher asked the students to explain why the words were *declared*.

Researcher: Go and discover what else it can be!

Students (Unprompted): *Declared*

Researcher: Why did I *declare* it that time?

Doug: Because you yelled.

Julia: Because of the exclamation point.

Researcher: Okay, you think *declare* has to have an exclamation point? Why?

Julia: You mean it.

Julia: You are strongly stating it and you mean it.

In this excerpt, students understood when a declarative voice was used, understood the meaning

of the word *declared*, and made the association between an exclamation mark and a declarative

voice.

**Sipe's Literary Responses**

Sipe (2000) discovered five categories of oral literary responses from students' during read-alouds which enhanced literary understanding: analytical, intertextual, personal, transparent, and performative. Four of these categories were used to introduce the vocabulary words at the beginning of each story. Each category was coded and examples of students' dialogue were documented for each.

**Intertextual.** Intertextual is the ability to use the text being read and relating it to other books or genres (Sipe, 2000). While introducing the Tier Two vocabulary before reading *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), *Bad Apple: A Tale of Friendship* (Hemingway, 2012)*,* and *The Day the Crayons Quit* (Daywalt, 2013), the researcher connected the words to stories previously read. For example, while introducing the word "fearless" before reading the story *Bad Apple: A Tale of Friendship* (Hemingway, 2012)*,* the researcher connected the word to events that happened in *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012); a book previously read.

Researcher: We have three words; the first word is *fearless*. Can you say *fearless*?

Students: Repeat *fearless*.

Researcher: *Fearless* means "not afraid." If you remember in yesterday's book, Chopsticks, the one chopstick had to . . . .

Students: Venture off.

Researcher: He ventured off on his own and he became *fearless*. He wasn't afraid. In this story, the apple, whose name is Mac.

Students: *Fearless*.

Researcher: Which means?

Students: Not afraid.

Then, during the third turn and talk, students had to compare the Chopsticks' adventure to Mac's adventure story.

> Researcher:  I want you to think about our story Chopsticks yesterday and how are Mac's adventure stories like the chopstick in the other story?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Jim:  Venture means to go off and find new things and adventure is like the same thing and there is another one called adventure because the books were really awesome.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Adventure because they are so exciting and the experiences are so exciting in them?  So how were some of these adventures like Chopsticks?
>
> Jim:  He did tricks.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Who did tricks?
>
> Jim:  The chopstick and he did a lot like Mac.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  What did Mac do?
>
> Jim:  He was sad then he started getting happy then his worm friend cheered him up and he was--still sad then he did it again and he was happy.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Doug, can you think of a way that the adventure stories are like chopsticks?
>
> Doug:  No.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  You can't think of anything?
>
> Doug:  No.

Finally, during the whole group share after the peer talk, Landon was able to make an intertextual connection.

> Researcher:  Okay, who would like to share how they were the same?

Landon:  When the chopstick told the other one to go venture off and Mac liked the space

story because it was an adventure story.

Researcher:  It was an adventure story which means you said what does that mean to be a

story that is an adventure?

Landon:  It's awesome.

Intertextual connections seemed to be difficult for students.  When talking during the peer

dialogue, students seemed to need more scaffolding with making connections between two

stories than with the other types of responses.

**Personal.**  The personal responses are those for which the students connect the text to

their own lives or form an opinion (Sipe, 2000).  During the introduction of the Tier Two

vocabulary before reading *Otto the Book Bear* (Cleminson, 2011)*, Back to Front and Upside

Down* (Alexander, 2012)*,  and Creepy Carrots* (Reynolds, 2012), the researcher connected words

to the students' personal lives and had the students form an opinion during the peer talk.  For

example, during the introduction of the previously taught word "passion," the researcher asked

students to connect the word to their personal lives.

Researcher:  The first word that we are going to read is *passion*.  Can you say the word

*passion*?

Students:  *Passion*.

Researcher:  *Passion* is something you really like to do.  You like it very much.  You

could like to do it, or you could like to eat it.  My *passion* is reading books to kids.  I love

to do that very much.  What is something you like very much?

Helen:  I like to plant and I like to help do chores.

Researcher: So you have a *passion* for planting and helping your mom do chores, awesome.

Jocelyn: I like to help my mom.

Researcher: So you have a *passion* for helping your mom. What do you help your mom do?

Jocelyn: Taking care of my bunny.

Researcher: And what's your bunny's name?

Jocelyn: Elsa.

Researcher: We are going to read about another rabbit in this story.

Jim: I like very much I like video games.

Researcher: Your *passion* is playing video games.

Jim: I'm addicted to it.

Researcher: So *passion* is something you like very much. In this story, there is a rabbit named Jasper and his *passion* is eating carrots.

Then, the researcher asked the students to form an opinion as to why Jasper had a *passion* for carrots in the story *Creepy Carrots* (Reynolds, 2012) during the turning and talking. This is one peer group's dialogue:

Researcher: Why do you think Jasper had a *passion* for carrots? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin: I think he liked them too much.

Research Assistant's prompt: And so he had a . . . .

Martin: *Passion* for them.

Jim: I think he likes them very much because I think he should go over and probably he likes the fat carrots and they take so long to eat because he likes carrots so much.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Ok so why does he have a *passion* for them?

Jim:  To eat.

Research Assistant's prompt:  And so he as a . . . .

Jim:  *Passion*.

Doug:  Because them good [*sic*] and he likes the taste of them.

Research Assistant's prompt:  So he has a . . . .

Doug:  *Passion* for them.

Students had a relatively easy time making personal connections when the words were

introduced and students had an opportunity to practice personalizing the word during their peer

talk.

     **Transparent.**  When a reader provides a transparent response in text discussion, she/he

reflects on experiences from their lives; the text seems to be reflective of things they are

experiencing or mirrored to their lives (Sipe, 2000).   During the interactive reading *Green*

(Seeger, 2012)*, Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), and *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), the

students mirrored experiences from their lives to things that happened in the story.  These mirror

images were presented during the introduction of the Tier Two vocabulary words.  Students

could then discuss these experiences during the peer talk.  For example, during the vocabulary

introduction of the word "pry" from *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), the researcher related

the word to their experience with losing a tooth.  Seven of the eight children in group

experienced losing a tooth.  The other child did not lose a tooth but he had experience with

someone in his family losing a tooth.

     Researcher:  Okay, the last word:  *pry*.  If you *pry*, you force something off or out.  So for

        example, sometimes when I open up a jar of pickles, I have to *pry* the lid off; I'm forcing

it to come off.  Sometimes I have to tap it on the edge to get it off.  In this story, guess

what animals have to do?

Student:  They have to *pry* the tooth out.

Researcher:  They have to *pry* the tooth out, very good!  Or they have to force it out,

because it is wiggling and jiggling.  Did that ever happen to you?

Students:  Yeah.

Researcher:  Okay, don't tell me about it now because we are going to talk about it in this

story.  This story is about a bear that had a loose tooth.  We are going to read to see if his

tooth falls out.

The students were then able to talk about the experience during the turning and talking.

Martin:  When I *pried*, I went to the doctor and he had to pull my tooth out.

Research Assistant's prompt:  The doctor had to pull it out?  Why?

Martin:  'Cause it had a cavity.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh it had a cavity.  So did he *pry* it out?  Did he have to

use tools to pry it out?

Martin:  No.

Research Assistant's prompt:  How did he get it out?

Martin:  Dental floss.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Dental floss?

Martin:  Then they smashed the door.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh really!  So they tied dental floss around it and then

closed the door?  That's how they *pried* it out?  Did it hurt?

Martin:  Yeah.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Yeah, I bet it did.  Doug, did you ever have to have your tooth *pried* out?

Doug:  No.

Teacher prompt:  No?  Did you ever lose a tooth?  Let me see your teeth.  You have all your teeth still?

Jim:  Wait.  Right there.

Research Assistant's prompt:  That's just a space.  That's going to be a new tooth eventually but his teeth haven't come out yet, so nobody's *pried* one out.  Do you know anybody who ever had a tooth *pried* out?  Who?

Doug:  I know two.  My Uncle Brian had his tooth fall out and my cousin, Lincoln, his dad tried to get pliers and pull it out but it still didn't come out.  He got a big, loose, tight rope and tied it to my cousin's tooth and he slammed the door very hard.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh, so he *pried* it out by slamming the door.  Just like you; just like Martin.

In most instances, students were able to identify with the word more easily when it related to their experiences.  It was also observed that students had more depth of knowledge with the word when they related the word to things they have experienced.

**Performative.**   The performative response occurs when a child creates an imaginative manipulation of the word (Sipe, 2000).  While introducing previously taught words at the beginning of *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012), *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012), and *Blue Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), the researcher required the students to act out the words.  Students were then able to practice using the word and acting it out throughout their peer talk.  During the introduction of the word "peevish" in the story *Blue Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), the researcher

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introduced the word, provided examples, and had students perform the word my making a

*peevish* face.

> Researcher:  This is one of my favorite new words, *peevish*.
>
> Students:  Repeat the word *peevish*.
>
> Researcher:  If you're feeling *peevish*, you are irritated; things are bothering you.
>
> Jim:  We heard that word before.
>
> Researcher:  So, if my face looks *peevish*, I would be [made irritated face].
>
> Researcher:  Show me your irritated face.  So in this story, guess what?  The chicken is
>
> feeling *peevish*.  Do you know why?  Because the cow wakes him up.  Did someone ever
>
> wake you up and it irritates you?  Like you are sleeping and they say, Hey, wake up!
>
> You get peevish or what's another word for peevish?
>
> Students:  Irritated.

Then, during the turning and talking, the students had the opportunity to use the word *peevish* in

their peer talk and show a peevish face.  One group's peer talk and performing the word occurred

as follows:

> Researcher:  If you were feeling *peevish*, how would you look?  Show your partner and
>
> talk about a time when you felt *peevish*.  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Jim:  I felt *peevish*, um my sister woke me up.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Your sister woke you up? hy did you feel peevish?
>
> Jim:  Because she just--I was sleeping and all of a sudden she said, Wake up!  Wake up!
>
> Wake up!
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  And what did you look like when you felt *peevish*?  Show
>
> me your face.  Mmm, irritated.

Martin:  I felt *peevish* when my brother was annoying me.

Research Assistant's prompt:  What was he doing to you when he was annoying you?

Martin:  He just kept saying, Martin, Martin, Martin, Martin, Martin, Martin.

Research Assistant's prompt:  He just kept saying your name?  That would make me feel *peevish*, too.  What did you look like?  That's a good face!

Doug:  My uncle kept saying, Wake up!  Wake up!

Research Assistant's prompt:  So you were getting woken up, too.  Is there another time you felt *peevish*?  Someone ever make you feel irritated or *peevish* besides when they woke you up?

Doug:  No.

Research Assistant's prompt:  You're just a happy kid.  What'd you look like when you felt *peevish*?

Another group's peer talk about the word *peevish* and showing their *peevish* face.

Sidney:  My mom woke me up and I didn't like her waking me up and then I got *peevish*.

Research Assistant's prompt:  So then did you say anything to her?

Sidney:  I said I was irritated.

Jocelyn:  I was *peevish* when my dad keeped [*sic*] waking me up for school when I didn't want him to.

Research Assistant's prompt:  But you felt like you didn't wake up so you were irritated with your dad weren't you?

Jocelyn:  Uhmm.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Did you tell him anything?

Jocelyn:  No.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Did you make a face?

Jocelyn:  Mhmm.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Show me the face you made.

Jocelyn:  [Made an irritated face].

Students were able to use the words correctly and enjoyed performing the words; however, students needed to be reminded to act out the word during their peer talk.

It became evident that most students used their prior knowledge based on their experiences during their peer talk.  In most cases, students used the newly introduced vocabulary word spontaneously or with prompting.  It was also noted throughout the study that students had more depth of knowledge with words that they encountered several times.

## Case Studies

The second stage of the data analysis consists of case studies written to describe each of the participants of the study.  A case study is an appropriate methodology to describe a complex phenomenon (Stake, 2006), such as the vocabulary development of individual students.  Case study research involves studying a case within a real-life setting (Yin, 2009), such as the classroom described in this research project.  Merriam (2001) explains that "the end product of a case study is a rich, "thick" description of the phenomenon under study" (p. 30).  It is a qualitative approach that explores a real-life case over time through an in-depth, descriptive collection of data (Creswell, 2013).  The remainder of the chapter contains eight individual cases designed to describe each student and changes that were observed in their vocabulary development.

**Jim's Case**

Jim, a tall, slender six year old, introduced himself to the research team by stating "My name is Jim, J-I-M, Jim." This introduction provided the first piece of evidence about his degree of literacy knowledge and Jim's personality. Jim's vibrant personality and eagerness to participate stood out during all of the read-alouds. Additional evidence was provided about Jim's literacy understandings through the observations. It became clear that Jim possessed a great deal of prior knowledge about sports and seemed very excited to talk about his enjoyment with sports which he easily applied to learning new words. For example, when the researcher introduced the word "charged" during the interactive reading of *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012), Jim already had prior knowledge with the word as he related it to playing hockey.

> Researcher: The next word . . . this is a little tricky because there are a couple meanings
> for this word. Sometimes if we go to the grocery store or we go to a store your mom may
> take out a card and she charges it, like on a credit card. This word is *charged*, but it
> doesn't mean that. It means to move quickly toward. For example, in a football game the
> players will *charge* toward the quarterback.
>
> Jim: I *charged* someone in hockey.
>
> Researcher: Very good!
>
> Jim: It was a big twelve man and I *charged* him.
>
> Researcher: What did you do when you *charged* him?
>
> Jim: I like put my head and he had a lot of pads on.
>
> Researcher: Did you move quickly toward him?
>
> Jim: Yes.

Researcher: That's what it means; to go quickly toward. In this story, this dog is *charging* toward the sheep to get them moving.

Then after the researcher provided explicit instruction with the word and Jim made the connection to his prior knowledge, he used it correctly in his peer talk.

Researcher: Now listen. I want you to think about this. Why do you think Rose came *charging* over to Brutus' leg? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jim: He *charged* over Brutus' leg because he wanted him to get back out of the way because the other dog could play with him; the black one.

Jim clearly demonstrated depth of knowledge with the word *charged* and interest with the word as he applied the word in his peer talk.

Despite being absent for the first two interactive read-aloud sessions, Jim quickly took a leadership role within his peer group. For example, prior to the researcher beginning the interactive read-aloud of the story *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Jim hit record on the audio-recorder and instructed his peer group to sit in a circle. Jim also displayed confidence and a great desire to participate in the peer group and small group discussion. This became evident during the whole group share when Jim was always one of the first to volunteer. For example, during the vocabulary introduction of *Blue Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), Jim independently volunteered his knowledge about the word "splatter" after the researcher introduced the word.

Researcher: Next word: *splatter.*

Jim: I know what that word means.

Researcher: What do you think it means?

Jim: *Splatter* means when something spills it goes all over the place.

He also independently volunteered his knowledge about the word "savor" during the introduction and explicit instruction before interactively reading *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011).

Researcher:  The first word is *savor*.

Jim:  I know what *savor* means.

Researcher:  What is it, Jim?

Jim:  Like you save something like let's say if I was up on a roof and if a cat was on a tree and I saved her.

Researcher:  Oh, that's a little bit different. It sort of sounds like the word save, and you are sort of on the right track, but *savor* means you enjoy it as long as you can.  So if you savor an enjoyable moment in your life, you enjoy it as long as you can.  In this story, Bear's Loose Tooth, bear was eating a cookie and he *savored* every bite of the cookie.  That means he enjoyed it as long as he could.  See, there's a picture of Bear eating that cookie.  He's savoring every bite.  So he enjoyed it as long as he could.

During the peer talk, Jim initially began talking first at each pause for discussion during the story.  For example, during the peer talk about the story, *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), Jim was the first to talk after the question was prompted by the researcher.

Researcher:  Think about this: my best friend and I practically do everything together, but what is one thing you don't do together?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jim:  With my best friend, I practically do everything with him but he lives at a different house but I help him fish and everything but I need to fish on my own.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Okay so you practically do everything together but sometimes you fish alone?

Jim:  Mhmm.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Very good Jim.  How about you, Doug?

Doug:  Sometimes Colton and Alex, we go outside and play all different kinds of games.

Research Assistant's prompt:  So you practically play all the games together.  Is there anything that you don't do together?

Doug:  Yeah like build puzzles.

Research Assistant's prompt:  So you don't do puzzles together?  But practically everything else?  Very good.  Can you think of anything else you want to talk about?

Doug:  No, that's good.

The researcher then implemented the structure of alternating first responses.  Jim took it upon himself to ensure that each participant followed the turn and talk rotation.  This leadership role extended over all observation experiences.  In other words, Jim remembered between visits the rotation sequence for each day.

Jim seemed to consistently build word knowledge with each newly introduced word; however, Jim's sense of word awareness seemed to deepen as the study progressed.  For example, Jim frequently called attention to the occurrence of the newly introduced words as they were read in the story.  Jim's word awareness extended beyond explicitly taught words.  For example, when a particular word from a story was interesting to Jim, he wanted to discuss the word.  The following excerpt from *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), illustrates Jim's sense of word awareness.

Researcher:  How many of you have ever eaten at a Chinese restaurant? [Students raise their hands].  What is your favorite thing to eat?  Mine is General Tso's.

Student:  Chinese noodles, like Lo Mein noodles.

Student:  My favorite is fortune cookies.

Sydney: I like rice.

Jim: Chinese rice and Chinese chicken.

Jim: [Yells out] Guess what, I went to a special place and there was an oven at our table.

Researcher: Were they cooking right in front of you?

Jim: Yes, there was a fire.

Researcher: Do you know what these are? [showed chopsticks]

Jim: Chopsticks.

Researcher: In this story, the chopsticks practically do everything together. What are the chopsticks doing in this picture?

Jim: Picking up food.

Researcher: Yes, that is sushi.

Jim: I know, I know.

Researcher: You know what sushi is?

Jim: Uh Huh, Uh Huh.

Clearly, Jim was interested in the words "chopsticks and sushi" as his enthusiasm grew when the words were discussed in the whole group discussion.

Jim's background knowledge and eagerness to participate made him a leader throughout all read-aloud sessions. His peers looked up to him and often times would defer conversation to him to build off of his response. This lead to the option of taking turns during the peer talk so all voices could be heard and individual ideas represented.

**Helen's Case**

Helen, a six year old, came across as a confident little girl who had a very strong personality. This behavior became evident as competition to speak during the peer talk increased

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throughout each read-aloud; leading to Helen making eye rolls when other peers would speak. According to Helen's teacher, she had an identified disability; however, no accommodations were required or provided during the turning and talking. She clearly took a leadership role within her talking group which was displayed throughout some of the first interactive read-aloud session when she was the first to speak during the peer talk. For example, during the turning and talking of the story *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), Helen went first throughout the peer talk.

Researcher: With your talk partner, talk about a time that you had to declare something. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen: I declared that I couldn't sleep.

Research Assistant's prompt: Why couldn't you sleep?

Helen: Because my sister was waking me up.

Research Assistant's prompt: Oh so that upset you?

Sidney: My mom declared that I needed to brush my teeth at my dad's house today.

Research Assistant's prompt: So that was a time your mom thought it was very important for you to brush your teeth. Was there a time that you declared something?

Sidney: Um, no.

Research Assistant's prompt: You've never strongly stated something?

Sidney: I did strongly state that I needed ice cream.

Research Assistant's prompt: When was this?

Sidney: Last weekend.

Research Assistant's prompt: With that nice weekend we had, it often makes me think of needing ice cream, too.

Research Assistant's prompt:  What ended up happening for you, Helen, after you

declared or strongly stated that you needed sleep?

Helen:  My mom said, if you can't sleep, get your tablet and play on it.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Your mom gave you the idea to play on your tablet instead

of sleeping?

This leadership role occurred again in subsequent read-alouds such as the book *Bear's Loose*

*Tooth* (Wilson, 2011):

Researcher:  Perched!  He was perched on it.  Now, you are going to turn and talk.  I

want you to talk about a time when you saw a bird or something (I told you my chickens)

that was perched somewhere.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen:  I saw a bird perch on the end of a tree branch.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh, that's a good example.

Jocelyn:  I can't think of anything.  I never see anything.

Research Assistant's prompt:  You can't think of anything?  Okay, we'll come back to

you.

Sideny:  I saw an owl perched on a tree in its nest.

It was also evident when other peers within her group frequently mimicked her responses.  For

example, during the turning and talking of the book *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), Helen

was mimicked by her peers.  Although this has happened several times, the following is one

example:

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk.  Why do you think the red crayon declared a talk

with Duncan?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen:  Because the red crayon was tired of being worn out all year, so he decided that he needed to talk to him so he could have the day off.

Sidney:  Because he was being used too much than the other crayon so he decided he needed a talk with Duncan.

In addition, the fact that Helen could not articulate all the sounds in words did not prevent her from using the previously taught vocabulary words.  For example, during the peer talk about the book *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), Helen was comfortable using the word "inspires" even though she was unable to pronounce the word correctly.

Researcher:  Remember, *inspiring* means encouraging.  Who is someone that *inspires* you?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen:  My sister.  She *sires* [*sic*] me to get my homework done. My sister *sires* me [*sic*].

Sidney:  My mom always *inspires* me to get my homework done even though I don't want to.

Helen:  My sister *sires* [*sic*] me to get my homework done so we can play.

Even though I don't want to get my homework done because it's 1-50 every day, I just have to do it; it's just wanting to get there.  I just don't want to do it because then I can't watch TV.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Okay, so you were saying that your mom *inspires* you to get your homework done?

Helen:  No, my sister.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Your sister *inspires* you to get your homework done.  So then, what do you do after you get your homework done?

Helen:  Um, we play.

As demonstrated, even though the researcher and Helen's peer accurately modeled the correct pronunciation of the word, she was willing to use the word even though she was unable to produce all of the sounds.

Helen maintained consistent progress in vocabulary development throughout each session. She was able to give detailed and elaborate discussion about the words. For example, during the peer talk for the story *Otto the Book Bear* (Cleminson, 2011)*,* Helen gave the following elaborate description:

> Researcher: What was one of your favorite adventures, and why was it your favorite? Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Helen: I ventured off with my friend and family to DelGrosso's. We went on the pirate ship that went up and down and kept sinking. It went up high. Me and my friend put our hands up.
>
> Research Assistant: You're so brave. That pirate ship is quite an adventure.

Helen demonstrated her ability to consistently and accurately use the word in context and expand on her responses. The read-aloud sessions, along with planned opportunities for Helen to turn and talk, seemed to enrich her use of vocabulary after explicit instruction of the words. In addition, her strong personality traits created competition between her and her peer throughout the read-aloud sessions which lead to taking turns throughout the discourse.

**Julia's Case**

Julia is a very quiet six year old; however, her connections and interests in words became very evident throughout the turning and talking. She had an eagerness to participate and looked to please the researcher when she shared her responses. Julia was consistent with her abilities throughout all read-aloud sessions. From the beginning, Julia used the word taught in her peer

talk often times requiring no prompting.  For example, during the interactive reading of *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), Julia initially took the lead in speaking during the turning and talking and used the words previously taught.  The following excerpt captured her first response:

> Researcher:  Remember, inspiring means encouraging.  Who is someone that *inspires* you?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Julia:  My brother *inspires* me.

And at the second planned turn and talk location, this was Julia's second response:

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk about a time that someone *declared* that you do something.  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Julia:  My brother *declared* me when I was watching the television he *declared* me to turn it off.

In both excerpts, Julia was able to use the word previously taught without any prompting; however, her responses were very brief.  In the next day's read-aloud, *The Day the Crayons Quit* (Daywalt, 2013), Julia continued to be the first to speak and use the word without prompting.

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk.  Why do you think the red crayon declared a talk with Duncan?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Julia:  I think he declared it because he really did not want to; he was so tired of working.

The second excerpt demonstrates the next turn and talk location when Julia used a synonym for the previously taught word, the researcher then prompted her and she was able to state the word.

> Researcher:  I want you to look closely at these pictures.  Which of these purple objects do you feel is *gorgeous* in the picture and why?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Julia:  I think the wizard is really *pretty*.
>
> Researcher's prompt:  So if it's really pretty, what's that word?

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Julia:  *Gorgeous*.

During the third turn and talk session, Julia again used a synonym for the previously taught word.

Researcher:  What *brilliant* idea do you think Duncan may have?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia:  I think he's going to make an idea and use pink and this time use all sorts of different colors to draw a different picture?

Researcher's prompt:  Why do you think that's *brilliant*?

Julia:  Because he's going to make stuff up and it's going to be really silly and I think it's going to be really cool.

Researcher's prompt:  Why do you think it's *brilliant* though?  What does *brilliant* mean?

Julia:  Excellent idea.

Researcher's prompt:  If you have a brilliant idea it's very what?

Julia:  *Creative*.

Julia then began to use the word in her peer talk and elaborated on the idea when prompted by the researcher.  For example, during the interactive reading of *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), Julia shared this with her peer:

Researcher:  Think about this: my best friend and I practically do everything together, but what is one thing you don't do together?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia:  Me and my brother and my sister; we almost do . . . practically do everything, BUT swing together.

But when asked to share during the whole group discussion, Julia elaborated on her response and stated the word with prompting.  She also used an antonym for the word

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Researcher: Who would like to share something that they do not do; they practically do everything but this? Abby, you had a great example. Can you share it with us?

Julia: I hardly swing on the swings with my brother and sister.

Researcher: You hardly do that? So what's that word?

Julia: Practically.

Researcher: You practically do everything but what?

Abby: Swing on the swings.

At the second turn and talk location with the same story, Julia elaborated on her response when prompted by the researcher.

Researcher: With your talk partner, talk about a time that you had to declare something. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia: The last time we were playing Lego City, I declared that it wasn't fair.

Researcher's prompt: Okay good. Why did you declare that?

Julia: Because he thought the robber could fly, but he couldn't.

Researcher's prompt: And he wasn't playing . . . .

Julia: Fair.

Researcher's prompt: He wasn't playing fair so you declared what?

Julia: I declared, it's not fair.

Another excerpt exemplifies Julia's elaborated response and the researcher prompting for the previously taught word while interactively reading, *Green* (Seeger, 2012):

Researcher: The zebra! Now, you saw why the lizard looks wacky to you. I want you to turn and talk. Why do you think the zebra looks wacky? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia:  I think that the children spilled paint in the grass and the zebra sat down, then all his black stripes got the green stripes dried off but the white stripes didn't so people wiped it off but the stripes were not.

Researcher's prompt:  So how does the zebra look to you?

Julia:  It looks wacky.

Researcher's prompt:  Wacky or . . . what's another word for wacky?

Julia:  Unusual or odd.

Researcher's prompt:  That zebra got wacky looking because they spilled paint on it.

Eventually, Julia was able to elaborate on her example and use the previously taught words without scaffolding.  The following is an example of Julia elaborating and using a previous taught word during the whole group discussion of *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012):

Researcher:  Who would like to share if they like it when sunny days linger, and why or why not?

Abby:  I like when it lingers on and on and on in the summer because every year we get to go to the beach and I get to play with my friends.  We get to play in the pool and eat popsicles.

And within the same story, she provided an elaborate example and used the previously taught word in her peer talk.

Researcher:  Discuss how you could conceal yourself when playing hide and seek.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia:  I concealed myself when my brother . . . I concealed when we were playing hide and seek and I hid in one of the big cabinets.  I fitted in it.  He was right by me; he was counting right beside me.  I quietly wented in it [*sic*].

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It was obvious that Julia had lots of background knowledge which contributed to her discourse throughout all of the read-aloud sessions.  She had a willingness to participate and share her responses which often times included the previously taught word.  She looked to the researcher to provide positive feedback for her contributions to her peer group and within the whole group sharing.

**Sidney's Case**

Sidney, a friendly five year old, seemed to have a strong longing for attention within her peer group and whole group discussion.  Often times, this lead to competition with other peers.  She had a strong desire to spontaneously share her thoughts which caught the researcher's attention from the beginning of the study.  For example, during one of the first read-alouds, *The Day the Crayons Quit* (Daywalt, 2013), Sidney was quick to spontaneously respond during the introduction of the words.

Researcher:  Here is that word we heard three times now.

Sidney:  [Yells out] Declared.

Even though she had willingness to spontaneously express her thoughts in the beginning of the study, she often times mimicked her peers' responses during the times allocated for peer talk.  The following excerpt illustrates this example during the turning and talking of *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012):

Researcher:  Remember, inspiring means encouraging.  Who is someone that inspires you?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen:  My sister.  She inspires me to get my homework done.  My sister inspires me.

Sidney:  My mom always inspires me to get my homework done even though I don't want to.

Helen:  My sister inspires me to get my homework done so we can play

Even though I don't want to get my homework done because it's 1-50 every day, I just

have to do it; it's just wanting to get there.  I just don't want to do it because then I can't

watch TV.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Okay, so you were saying that your mom inspires you to

get your homework done?

Helen:  No, my sister.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Your sister inspires you to get your homework done.  So

then, what do you do after you get your homework done?

Helen:  Um, we play.

Research Assistant's prompt:  And what about you, what did you say?

Sidney:  My mom.

Research Assistant's prompt:  And she inspires you do to what?

Sidney:  My homework.

And again in the very next planned turn and talk:

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk and talk about a time that someone declared that

you do something.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen:  My mom declared I would get homework done and I did.

Sidney:  My mom declared I would get homework done so that I could watch SpongeBob

and play with the dog.

Research Assistant's prompt:  I heard both of you say that your moms declare that you

get your homework done.  Is there anything else?  Has anyone ever declared that you do

something very important?  Tell me.

Helen:  Um, my sister declared that I could swim without my floaties, and I did.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Because she said it; because she strongly stated that you could swim without your floaties, you tried it.  How did you do?

Helen:  I did good. I can swim without my floaties now; in the deep end even.

Research Assistant's prompt:  What about you?

Sidney:  My mom said I could swim underwater.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Underwater?  That is awesome!

Then when given the opportunity to share her thoughts during the whole group discussion, she was eager to share her examples and often times showed frustration and needed to be reminded to raise a quiet hand.  During the review of the word declared with the story *Otto the Book Bear* (Cleminson, 2011)*,* Sidney became very frustrated when the researcher had her wait to share her response.

Researcher:  Do you like it when someone declares something to you?

Students:  No.

Sidney:  Because . . . .

Researcher:  Wait, raise a quiet hand.

Helen:  If they declared that I am not being nice, that makes me feel bad.

Researcher:  It sometimes makes you feel bad when someone has to declare that to you.  Sidney, you had your hand up [Sidney now raised her hand to share].  Do you like it when someone has to strongly state something to you?

Sidney:   No

Researcher:  Why?

Sidney:  Because it makes me feel uncomfortable.

Sidney elaborated on her responses and often extended examples back to experiences occurring in her home life which showed the impact from her family's experiences. For example, while talking about venturing off somewhere during the peer talk of the story *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012), she discussed an adventure to her dad's house.

Researcher: I want you to talk to your talk partner about a time you ventured off somewhere. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Sidney: I ventured off to my dad's.

Research Assistant's prompt: Okay, you ventured off to your dad's so where were you coming from?

Sidney: Pennsylvania.

Research Assistant's prompt: And where does your dad live?

Sidney: Johnson Road.

Research Assistant's prompt: Okay, was that this weekend that you went to your dad's?

Sidney: Uhmum.

Research Assistant's prompt: Cool. And what were some things that you did?

Sidney: We played robbers.

And while talking about a time she felt grumpy during the turning and talking of the story, *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012), Sidney talked about her mom promising to take her to her dad's and not following through with the promise.

Researcher: I want you to turn and talk about a time you felt grumpy and show your partner what your face looked like when you felt that way. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Sidney:  On my day off, my mom said we would be going to my dad's house but then she didn't go because she had to the doctor's because she had the feeling of stomach pain and she found out she was actually pregnant.

Research Assistant's prompt:  How did you feel?

Sidney:  Grumpy that we couldn't go to my dad's house.

Subsequently, Sidney gained independence with her examples provided during the peer talk despite the fact that her peer's may have responded before her.  To illustrate, during the turning and talking about the story, *Bad Apple: A Tale of Friendship* (Hemingway, 2012)*,* Sidney used a different example after Helen spoke.

Researcher:  I want you to discuss a time when you felt fearless, or not afraid.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Helen:  I felt fearless because one time my dad was stepping and he was holding me in the ocean and he fell.  He slipped on the sea shells and I plugged my nose and breathed out of my nose.

Research Assistant's prompt:  And you were in the water and you were not afraid?  You were fearless.  What about your dad, was he fearless?

Helen:  Mhmm.

Research Assistant's prompt:  That's cool. So you know how to swim then?  Good for you, Helen!

Sidney:  One time when I saw a bear in my dad's back yard, I wasn't afraid.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Are you kidding me?!  I don't know, I think I would be afraid. You were not afraid to see a bear?

Sidney was also able to provide support to her peer during a read aloud session. The following is an example of Sidney redirecting her peer of the question posed by the researcher while reading *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011).

Researcher: I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner. What is something you have eaten and you savored every bite? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Sidney: I savored every bite of my cookies.

Research Assistant's prompt: What kind of cookies did you savor?

Sidney: Chocolate chip.

Helen: I savored chocolate chips.

Jocelyn: I never did anything with my tooth loose.

Sidney: No, we are trying to speak anything about savoring.

Research Assistant's prompt: Oh, very good. Good reminding. So we are thinking about something we savored. A food that we enjoyed as long as we could?

Sidney's growth throughout each session was maintained and consistent throughout the remainder of the read-aloud sessions. She continued to seek attention for her thoughts, knowledge, and willingness to be the "helper" throughout each session. She also showed how strongly her family impacted her life as she continued to connect everything to her family throughout the research.

**Jocelyn's Case**

Jocelyn, a very quiet and reserved six year old, who like Helen, had an identified disability; however, no accommodations were required or provided during the turning and talking. Unlike the other participants, initially Jocelyn seemed reluctant to talk due to other peers dominating the conversation. Even with peer and research assistant prompting, Jocelyn

could not provide an accurate example when responding to the planned turn and talk question. For example, the following discussion transpired while reading *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011).

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner.  What is something you have eaten and you savored every bite?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Sidney:  I savored every bite of my cookies.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  What kind of cookies did you savor?
>
> Sidney:  Chocolate chip.
>
> Helen:  I savored chocolate chips.
>
> Jocelyn:  I never did anything with my tooth loose.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  So we are thinking about something we savored.  A food that we enjoyed as long as we could.

Within the same turn and talk session, Jocelyn was now willing to volunteer an example.  The following transcription demonstrates the experience:

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner.  What is something you have eaten and you savored every bite?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Sidney:  I savored every bite of my cookies.
>
>  Research Assistant's prompt:  What kind of cookies did you savor?
>
> Sidney:  Chocolate chip.
>
> Helen:  I savored chocolate chips.
>
> Jocelyn:  I never did anything with my tooth loose.
>
> Sidney:  No we are trying to speak anything about savoring.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh, very good.  Good reminding.  So we are thinking

about something we savored.  A food that we enjoyed as long as we could?

Sidney:  I enjoyed a cookie as long as I could.

Research Assistant's prompt:  You enjoyed a cookie as long as you could.

Helen:  I savored ice cream.

Research Assistant's prompt:  That's a good example.  What kind of ice cream?

Helen:  Chocolate.

Jocelyn:  I know what I wanted to say.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Okay, Jocelyn you've thought of something.  What is

something that you savored or enjoyed?

Jocelyn:  /kajk/, /ca/;  I can't say it right.

Research Assistant's prompt:  That's okay, try it.

Jocelyn:  /kajk/

Research Assistant:  Cake, I am having trouble too because of my retainer.

During the next interactive read-aloud session, *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012), Jocelyn

began providing elaborate examples about feeling grumpy without prompting.  However, she did

not use the word previously taught in her peer talk.

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk about a time you felt grumpy and show your

partner what your face looked like when you felt that way.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jocelyn:  Today, my mom said, Get dressed and I can't take a nap.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Did you make any faces to show you were grumpy?

[Student made grumpy face].  That is a very grumpy face.  Then what happened?

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Jocelyn:  Then I had to pick my clothes out.

In subsequent sessions, Jocelyn then provided the previously taught words in her examples with prompting.  The following is an excerpt of a turn and talk during the reading of *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012) in which Jocelyn demonstrated this application.

Researcher:  Discuss how you could conceal yourself when playing hide and seek.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jocelyn:  I played hide and seek with my sister and her can't [sic] find me outside.

Research Assistant's prompt:  How did you conceal yourself?

Jocelyn:  I wore purple and I go hide in purple.

Research Assistant's prompt:  You wore purple and you what?

Jocelyn:  Concealed.

Research Assistant's prompt:  So you wore purple.  What did you hide in that was purple?

Jocelyn:  My bed.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Is your bed purple?  What did you do to hide yourself?

Jocelyn:  Pull the blankets up.

The need for scaffolding changed in a few of the last interactive read-aloud sessions as she attempted to use the words in her responses.  During the interactive reading of *Creepy Carrots* (Reynolds, 2012), Jocelyn used the word "ridiculous" without scaffolding  and was the initial person to speak in her peer talk group after the researcher posed a  prompted question.

Researcher:  Why do you think Jasper found it *ridiculous*?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jocelyn:  I think him said [*sic*] *ridiculous* because it *ridiculous* because nothing happened.

She also attempted to use the word "adventure" during the interactive reading of *Otto the Book Bear* (Cleminson, 2011), after a question was prompted by the researcher.

Researcher:  What was one of your favorite *adventures*, and why was it your favorite?

Go ahead, turn and talk.

Jocelyn:  I like to *adventure* in the woods.

Research Assistant's prompt:  What do you do when you go on an *adventure* in the woods?

Jocelyn:  Look at the lake.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Do you go with anyone?

Jocelyn:  Sometimes with my dad and my sister, sometimes by myself.

As described above, Jocelyn showed changes throughout the peer talk of each interactive read-aloud.  She spoke more, provided examples, and used the previously taught words throughout her peer talk.  As the read-aloud sessions continued, Jocelyn seemed less intimated by her peers' responses and actively participated in the discussions.

**Doug's Case**

Doug, a very friendly six year old, was an active listener throughout all sessions. However, Doug seemed to be reluctant to share his ideas during the first read-alouds and stated he had nothing to share and defer the conversation to other peers.  The dominance of the other peers in his talk group may have contributed to his unwillingness to share his ideas.  In addition, Doug seemed to have an eye irritation that seemed to cause him embarrassment so he did not want the extra attention given to him; even if it was only to speak in his peer talk group. Eventually, he provided accurate responses to the turn and talk question but initially Doug

required prompting to use the word in context.  For example, during the peer talk of *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Doug needed prompting to use the previously taught word "savor."

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner.  What is something you have eaten and you *savored* every bite?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Doug:  Doritos.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Doritos?  Can you talk about that?
>
> Doug:  I *savored* all my Doritos.

Over time, Doug's understanding of word meanings became more evident when he was able to define the word during the peer talk.  To illustrate, Doug used the word and defined the word in his peer talk about the story *Green* (Seeger, 2012)

> Researcher:  Does the word "faded" look *faded* to you?  Why or why not?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Doug:  It looks *faded* to me because *faded* means to become lighter.
>
> Research Assistant's prompt:  Does it look like it's faded?
>
> Doug:  Yeah.

Another example of Doug's deeper understanding occurred in *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012):

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk about a time you felt *grumpy* and show your partner what your face looked like when you felt that way.  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Doug:  I was *peevish* when my uncle kept saying, wake up, wake up.

He also began to elaborate on his idea which was illustrated during the reading of *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012):

Doug:  One time, me and my uncle were jumping on the trampoline and he always liked to lead me off so he got his shoes on and ran and I looked all over the place and he was over at Bubba's.

 Research Assistant:  He ventured over to Bubba's?

Doug:  Yes.

This is illustrative of Doug's ability to provide more elaborate and descriptive examples during the turning and talking episodes.

Doug continued to actively participate throughout all of the read-alouds and elaborate on his responses.  He periodically would need prompting in order to use the previously taught word throughout his discourse.  His confidence as well as his oral language seemed to have increased throughout each session.

**Martin's Case**

Martin, a very jovial and bubbly six year old, seemed to take great joy in every interactive read-aloud.  His joyful personality made it difficult for him to sometimes perform the new words such as "grumpy" or "peevish;" he tried very hard but a smile would always shine through on his face.  He was eager to participate in the turn and talk sessions as well as the group sharing sessions.  Initially, Martin mimicked responses of his peer group members.  For example, during the first turn and talk session of *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), Martin used the same example as his talk partner by discussing someone helping him with his work and then when prompted by the research assistant he also used his brother as an example just as his talk partner did.

Researcher:  Remember, inspiring means encouraging.  Who is someone that inspires you? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Doug:  My brother inspires me because, well, when I do my homework, after I'm done, he do have the same thing.  He makes you say that eight times to know.

Martin:  My mom a lot of times.

Research Assistant's prompt:  How does your mom inspire you?

Martin:  She just keeps trying to help me with my work.

Research Assistant prompt:  What does she say?

Martin:  She just keeps saying the same thing like, Hi, hi, hi, hi, hi.

Research Assistant's prompt:  And that's inspiring?

Martin:  Sometimes my brother do [*sic*].

Research Assistant's prompt:  Who does sweetie?

Martin:  My brother.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Your brother.  How does your brother inspire you?

Martin:  He keeps saying like, "Hey you're okay, and hey do you want to play a game? Hey do you want to play a game?"

Research Assistant's prompt:  And what does that do for you?

Martin:  It just annoys me and then it inspires me.

When Martin was the first in his group to speak, he did not use the previously taught word during his peer talk; instead, he focused his talk on the story meaning and his opinion of the story, rather than vocabulary.  The following excerpt from *The Day the Crayons Quit* (Daywalt, 2013), illustrates this point:

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk.  Why do you think the red crayon declared a talk with Duncan?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin:  Maybe he wanted a break because he's tired every day of coloring red stuff.

At times Martin did attempt to use the previously taught word in his turn and talk responses; however, his early attempts often resulted in an incorrect use of the word in his response.  He seemed to misunderstand the word "pried" and "perched" in *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011).

Researcher:  And I said the word *pry*, good!  Now, I want you to talk about a time that you had a loose tooth or you knew of someone who had a loose tooth.  Did somebody have to *pry* it out?  How did they have to *pry* it out?  So, if you know that it happened to you; did someone have to *pry* your tooth out?  Or do you know of somebody who had their tooth *pried* out?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin:  When I *pried* [*sic*], I went to the doctor and he had to pull my tooth out.

Research Assistant's prompt:  The doctor had to pull it out?  Why?

Martin:  Cause it had a cavity.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh it had a cavity.  So did he *pry* it out?  Did he have to use tools to *pry* it out?

Martin:  No.

Research Assistant's prompt:  How did he get it out?

Martin:  Dental floss.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Dental floss?

Martin:  Then they smashed the door.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Oh really!  So they tied dental floss around it and then closed the door?  That's how they *pried* it out?  Did it hurt?

Martin:  Yeah.

And the word "perched" where he seemed to confuse the word perch with conceal:

Researcher:  *Perched*!  He was *perched* on it.  Now, you are going to turn and talk.  I

want you to talk about a time when you saw a bird or something [I told you my chicken]

that was *perched* somewhere.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin:  I saw a bird.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Where was it *perched*?

Martin:  In the garage.  It was hiding.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Hiding in the garage?  What happened after that?

Martin:  I found it and then it was *perched* and then I didn't know where it was that time.

When prompted by the research assistant in later read-alouds, Martin was able to use the

word in the proper context during the whole group share even though he used the word

spontaneously during the peer talk.  While reading *Blue Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), Martin uses

the word "peevish" after being prompted:

Researcher:  If you were feeling *peevish*, how would you look?  Show your partner and

talk about a time when you felt *peevish*.  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin:  When my brothers kept saying to me, Martin, Martin, Martin.

Researcher:  Oh that's a good one.  So your brother kept saying, Martin, Martin, Martin

You felt?

Martin:  *Peevish*.

Researcher:  Because he was?

Martin:  Annoying.

Researcher: Annoying you and bothering you. Show us what that looked like when you felt that way. [Student tried to show a peevish face but found it hard not to smile].

In later read-alouds, Martin frequently substituted a synonym or definition for a term and was able to recall the previously taught word when prompted. For example, Martin substitutes the word "peevish" for "grumpy" and did not use the word even when prompted by his peer.

Researcher: I want you to turn and talk about a time you felt *grumpy* and show your partner what your face looked like when you felt that way. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin: I was *peevish* when my brothers kept saying, "Martin, wake up; it's time for school."

Jim: Did you feel *grumpy*? Can you show me a *grumpy* face?

Martin used a synonym for the word "charged" during his peer talk of *Lenore Finds a Friend* (Katz, 2012):

Researcher: Now listen. I want you to think about this. Why do you think Rose came *charging* over to Brutus' leg? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin: I think he wanted the sheep to go away so they couldn't play. That's why he *rammed* into him.

Research Assistant's prompt: He *rammed* into him or he *charged*, right? Very good.

Martin also defined the word "linger" when talking about *A Leaf Can Be* (Salas, 2012):

Researcher: I'm going to have you turn and talk. Do you like when sunny days *linger*? Why or why not? Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin: I like it because if it was sunny and going *over and over and over* again, I'd be happy.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Do you get happy when it's sunny over and over again?

You like it when it *lingers*, right?

However, Martin was able to use some of targeted words without any prompting. While reading *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Martin was able to use the word "savor" in his peer talk without prompting.

Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk with your talk partner.  What is something you have eaten and you *savored* every bite?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin:  I *savored* my cookies; chocolate chip cookies.

Research Assistant's prompt:  Chocolate chip? Is that your favorite?

Also, while reading *Green* (Seeger, 2012), Martin was able to use the word "wacky" in his peer talk even when the turn and talk prompt used the word unusual.

Researcher:  Do you think the lizard looks a little *unusual*?  I want you to turn and talk. Why do you think the lizard looks *unusual*?  Go ahead, turn and talk.

Martin:  The lizard looks like it's *wacky* because it was probably in the art room and they were scared of it and then they spilled paint on it.

As indicated, Martin made steady progress with his use of words in his peer talk.  His blissful personality was evident to the research team from the beginning of the study when he would greet us at the door and say, "Are you back to read to us?"  You would often times hear the research assistant chuckle at Martin during the recordings due to his inability to make unhappy faces.  He showed enthusiasm for all of the read-alouds as he would ask when we were going to be back at the end of each reading.  He truly was a fun-loving member of the group.

**Landon's Case**

For a five-year-old, Landon demonstrated good-humor throughout the read-alouds. When reading the story *Blue Chicken* (Freedman, 2011), Landon made the research team chuckle with his response

Researcher: Guess what happened to me. My chickens were out in the yard pecking for bugs and stuff and they went into my flower bed. They got all the mulch and scraped it all over my sidewalk and I was feeling grumpy. I chased them with a broom. I was so peevish and grumpy because they did that.

Landon: You need to teach those chickens some manners.

Researcher: I do need to teach those chickens some manners [researcher laughs].

when the researcher discussed a time she was grumpy:

At the very first session, Landon positioned himself directly in front of the vocabulary anchor chart, at the foot of the researcher's chair. It soon became evident that he possessed a strong willingness to actively participate; this disposition continued through all of the read-aloud sessions. Landon's early responses during the peer talk were imitations of his peer's ideas. For example, *Rocket Writes a Story* (Hills, 2012), Landon imitated his peer's response when he used his brother and indicated his brother was bossy.

Researcher: I want you to turn and talk and talk about a time that someone declared that you do something. Go ahead, turn and talk.

Julia: My brother declared me when I was watching the television he declared me to turn it off.

Researcher's prompt: Who did?

Julia: My brother. My big brother; he's really bossy.

Researcher's prompt:  Okay, how about you?

Landon:  My brother that is ten, when I was watching SpongeBob, he told me to change the channel on to Spiderman and I didn't.

Researcher's prompt:  So your brother told you to change the station.  What did he do?  He . . . .

Landon:  Told me to turn on Spiderman.

Researcher's prompt:  Is there another word instead of "told you?" He . . . .

Landon:  Declared.

Researcher's prompt:  He declared.  What did he declare?

Landon:  Me to put it on Spiderman and I didn't.  He's bossy.

Researcher's prompt:  Okay, both of you had someone that declared something.  Declared means what?

Landon:  Strongly state it.

Landon gave elaborate, relative examples during the peer talk but required prompting to use the previously taught word in his discussion and then was able to use the word in context during the whole group sharing time.  This point is illustrated in the transcript of *Chopsticks* (Rosenthal, 2012) below when Landon declared that his brother was not playing fair when he threw Bulleye, the toy horse from Toy Story, instead of the aliens.

Landon:  Me and my brother were playing Toy Story together and he ran away from me.  We were throwing aliens at each other and he cheated.  He used Bullseye and we're not allowed to use Bullseye.

Researcher's prompt:  Did you *declare* anything?

Landon:   I *declared* that that's not fair when he uses Bullseye.

Researcher's prompt:  And what were you playing?

Landon:  Toy Story.

Researcher's prompt:  And what did you *declare*?

Landon:  That's not fair to me that he's using Bullseye when we were throwing the alien at Buzz.

Researcher's prompt:  So you *declared* that it wasn't fair.  Why did you *declare* it?  What did you have to do when you declared? Say it . . . .

Landon:  I had to bust him off of Bullseye.

Researcher's prompt:  Okay so why did you *declare* it?  Did you have to strongly state it?

Landon:  Umhum.

Researcher's prompt:  Why did you have to strongly state it?

Landon:  I tried to tell him to stop but he wouldn't.  He still made all three of his robbers fly, but he couldn't.

Researcher:  So you had to strongly state it.  You had to *declare* that it wasn't fair.

Subsequently, after prompting, Landon used the previously taught word.  However, during the group sharing session, Landon used the previously taught word without prompting.

Researcher:  Okay, who would like to share something that they *declared*?  Landon?

Landon:  When me and my brother were playing Toy Story, I *declared* that it's not fair to me when he's using Bullseye when I had Bullseye and we were playing against Buzz.

Researcher:  And it wasn't fair, so you *declared*; This isn't fair!

After only four sessions, Landon demonstrated his ability to use the word during peer talk without prompting.  This phenomenon was observed periodically throughout the observation

period.  For example, while reading *Bear's Loose Tooth* (Wilson, 2011), Landon used the word "perched" in his peer talk without prompting.

> Researcher:  Now, you are going to turn and talk.  I want you to talk about a time when you saw a bird or something [I told you my chicken] that was *perched* somewhere.  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Landon:  My dog was *perched* in the grass.
>
> Researcher's prompt:  What does that mean?
>
> Landon:  It means that she stayed there for long until I told her to go inside.
>
> Researcher's prompt:  *Perched* on the grass.  Okay, when you are *perched*, you are sitting on the edge of something.  So what was she sitting on the edge of?
>
> Landon:  The edge of the steps.
>
> Researcher's prompt:  Oh, the edge of the steps. So who was on the edge of the steps?
>
> Landon:  My dog, Bailey.
>
> Researcher's prompt:  Oh, she was *perched* on the edge of the steps.
>
> Landon:  My dog was *perched* on the edge of the steps.

Also, during the turning and talking about the story *Green* (Seeger, 2012), Landon used the previously taught word "wacky" in his peer talk without prompting.

> Researcher:  I want you to turn and talk.  Why do you think the zebra looks *wacky*?  Go ahead, turn and talk.
>
> Landon:  I think that the zebra got *wacky* because he eated [sic] green grass.  The children spilled green paint on it.

Landon clearly demonstrated his progress using the previously taught words in his peer talk; he truly developed an awareness of words throughout his conversations.

His eagerness to participate continued throughout all read-aloud and his talk usually related to him and his brother playing video games.  It was apparent that he had a strong interest in Xbox games as most of his conversations related to his encounters playing the games.

## Summary

Although the researcher was careful to alternate among Sipe's (2000) literary responses when introducing words, it was noted that the students seemed to focus more on personal and transparent responses in their peer talk.  However, it was difficult for the children to make intertextual connections in their responses.  In addition, when the researcher required the children to perform the word during the peer talk, most children used examples, defined the word, or used the word in their conversations but needed additional prompting to act out the word.

It is clear that all of the children learned to use sophisticated vocabulary in their peer and whole group discussions during the interactive read-alouds, which focused on explicit vocabulary instruction.  While each child displayed differences in the developmental pathway toward understanding words, all of the participating children demonstrated a deepened understanding of each of the targeted words, following explicit instruction.  Therefore, the use of interactive read-alouds in the classroom has strong implications for enhancing students' expressive vocabulary.  Chapter V provides a summary and discussion of the research finding and recommendations for how interactive read-aloud along with explicit vocabulary instruction can impact children's oral language development.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

There is no question that children's vocabularies exert a powerful influence on their oral language proficiency. Facility with oral language affects long-term literacy achievement and this, in turn, influences the career opportunities available when children become adults (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Cazden et al., 1996; Duke, 2000). Engaging in sophisticated discourse involves knowing and using complex words fluently in spoken and written language (Fairclough, 1989). According to critical literacy theory, facility with language also is associated with cultural capital, power, and wealth (Cazden et al., 1996; Fairclough, 1989; Ream & Palardy, 2008; Scott et al., 2003). Effective communicators are better equipped to participate fully in their communities and to exert an influence over those who have lesser language capabilities. In addition, an extensive and rich vocabulary is correlated with a high level of reading comprehension and overall academic proficiency (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). Therefore, educators need to start as early as possible to increase children's vocabulary acquisition (Neuman & Dwyer, 2011).

The development of state standards has influenced the impact of vocabulary instruction. "Of the 32 English language arts Common Core Standards, 12.5% of these standards focus on vocabulary" (Fisher & Frey, p. 594) and "the term *vocabulary* occurs more than 150 times in the document" (Manyak et al., 2014, p. 13). Children need to be able to understand the meaning of words and use words appropriately in their oral language (Scott et al., 2003). Therefore, vocabulary is not a skill that should be taught in isolation but rather in contextualized text, not having children merely write definitions. Such is the case in the study by Scott et al. (2003) who found that 39% of vocabulary instruction was spent on the teacher referring to the word and

assigning children to look up definitions in a dictionary or textbook rather than explicitly teaching the word.  The goal of this observational study was to examine how analytic talk defined as, vocabulary-focused conversations between students before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud, influenced kindergarten children's oral vocabulary.  Of particular interest in this study were the patterns of new vocabulary use that emerged during students' analytic talk throughout the read-aloud after students had explicit instruction of the word.

In Chapter II, it was noted that increased and extensive conversations between teachers and students or among classmates may enhance oral language development and vocabulary acquisition (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Gest et al., 2006; Wasik, 2010).  Interactive conversations between peers or analytic talk was defined as conversation facilitated by the teacher but occurs between students before, during, and after the interactive read-aloud and focuses on story context and language (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).  Interactive dialogue plays a vital role in vocabulary development and has long-lasting effects, not only on a child's academic advancement but also their social skills (Dickinson & Sprague, 2001).  Chapter II described the theoretical framework for the study.  Fisher et al.'s (2004) implementation practices were used in describing the essential components delivering an interactive read-alouds.  Beck et al.'s (2002) theory for choosing vocabulary supported the choice of words; Tier Two vocabulary words were the words of focus throughout each read-aloud.  Explicit instruction of the vocabulary words before reading the story aloud was supported by Sipe's (2008) framework for children's literary responses. Finally, this research study was supported by Vygotsky's (1978) socio-linguistic theory and how it plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development.  The social nature of learning gives children the ability to develop both interpersonal and intrapersonal to control

thoughts (Vygotsky, 1978).  Together, these theories provided the conceptual framework and offered insight into the findings of children's responses.

The methodology of the study was presented in Chapter III.  This observational study was designed to analyze patterns that emerged within the students' analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud.  This research style provided opportunities for the researcher to observe and participate (Adler & Adler, 1994; Jorgenson, 1989) in the natural flow of events throughout an interactive read-aloud.  All observational data of children's analytic talk were recorded, coded, and sorted using a variation of Halliday's (1973) Model of Language Function and Sipe's (2000) literary responses to identify the categories and subthemes in the children's dialogue.

In Chapter IV, a constant comparative analysis as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) was used when categorizing and modifying codes throughout the data analysis.  Themes that emerged throughout the analysis were explained, reported, and supported with examples of students' dialogue.  Chapter IV analyzed the individual participants comments by identifying themes that emerged throughout children's peer talk.

A general summary, a discussion and implications of the research findings are the focus of Chapter V.  Limitations of the study are discussed.  The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research in vocabulary instruction and the promise it may hold for enhancing children's oral language.

### General Summary

The findings of the analysis suggest the importance of the implementation of daily read-alouds, with high quality talk, in classrooms of young learners.  Most research on the topic of children's vocabulary acquisition has been conducted with children in grades three through eight

(Justice et al., 2005); therefore, more research in the early grades—widely recognized as a critical period for vocabulary growth—needs to be conducted.  Further, studies have found that more than half of preschool children are not engaged in high quality talk that would build vocabulary during storybook reading (Dickinson & Sprague, 2001; Neuman & Dwyer, 2009). This study provided children with opportunities for conversation about books using the vocabulary words explicitly taught.  The analysis revealed with intentional teaching of new vocabulary, children were able to use the sophisticated words in peer conversations; a finding that is consistent with Justice et al.'s (2005) findings.  Therefore, it is important that teachers improve the quality of and opportunities for children's talk before, during, and after sharing books; the evidence suggests that conversation are a powerful way to enhance student vocabulary and future academic achievement (Fisher & Frey, 2014; McClelland, Acock, & Morrison, 2006).  Throughout this study, it became apparent that all students, regardless of their families' socio-economic status, have the ability to learn vocabulary.  Therefore, educators should not focus on the deficits in children's lives but the opportunity all children have for learning robust vocabulary.

## Vocabulary Instruction

The selection of Tier Two words, or words of more mature language Beck et al. (2002), seemed to have influenced children's use of sophisticated words.  The findings suggest that, with explicit instruction, kindergarten students were able to incorporate more sophisticated words into their speaking vocabulary.  These findings were consistent to those of Neuman and Dwyer (2011).  By identifying three to four words for instruction (Coyne et al., 2004; Santoro et al., 2008), young children were able to use the word in their peer talk.  The present study's findings were consistent with to Coyne et al. (2007) three-step approach to vocabulary instruction in

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which students mastered more words and demonstrated deeper understandings of the new words. One important piece of evidence of deeper and wider understanding is that children are able to use the word effectively in their expressive language rather than just supplying a definition (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2010). Although the teacher's selection of which vocabulary words to teach may seem obvious, it is an important aspect of vocabulary (Neuman & Dwyer, 2009). Graves, Bauman, Blachowicz, et al., (2013) for example, recommended an approach to selecting vocabulary words for instruction that is called SWIT; it deals with four types of words: essential words, valuable words, accessible words, and imported words. In keeping with these trends, this study demonstrated that word choice matters when teaching vocabulary.

This study found, as did Blachowicz and Fisher (2010), that explicitly teaching vocabulary and providing opportunities for children to use the word throughout their conversation made a difference in their understanding and use of new terminology. Roskos and Neuman (2014) explained that explicitly teaching vocabulary was one of the best practices for effective literacy instruction. Best practices are those that are "implemented well with considerable intention, deliberate practice, and reflection for teachers to be successful at" (Roskos & Neuman, 2014). The findings of this study suggest that with a small amount of explicit instruction, kindergarten students were able to use the word correctly throughout their peer talk; often times using the word with minimal scaffolding. This study used guidelines for the explicit instruction similar to Graves (2006) in which words were individually taught through active participation; developing children's word awareness. Neuman and Dwyer (2011) refer to this explicit instruction as "helping children to get set by providing background information and giving meaning to deepen understanding of the topic" (p. 106). This form of explicit instruction has been scarce across all grade levels (Cunningham, 2009; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Robbins &

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Ehri, 1994; Wasik & Iannone-Campbell, 2012; Wright, 2012). Scott et al. (2003) found only 6% of total instructional time was spent on vocabulary instruction with whole-group instruction being the most common form of instruction. This observational study further concluded that students seldom had time to discuss the meanings with the teacher or other students; much of the time, a new word was mentioned and students were directed to look up the definition. This study lends support to the instructional practice of scheduling instructional time for explicit vocabulary instruction followed by student discussion of the words. The implementation of explicit vocabulary instruction echoes the importance of intentional teaching with a clear goal at an early age (Coyne et al., 2004; Blachowicz & Epstein, 2007; Fisher & Ogle, 2006).

Providing a rich introduction of the word and allowing students to practice using the word within their peer talk supported students' vocabulary learning. This study's vocabulary introduction was similar to a study conducted by Manyak et al. (2014) in which the model for introducing target words was to: (1) present the word using a child-friendly definition, (2) support the meaning of the word by using multiple examples from both real-life and the text, (3) provide a visual image of the word on an anchor chart, and (4) prompt students to use the word within their peer talk. Using this way of introducing new vocabulary helped students understand the meaning of the word and relate it to their background knowledge thereby enhancing their learning and use of the word. It was noted within this study that by providing students' rich experiences and prompting students to use the word within their peer talk deepened their understanding of the word. The usage of words is consistent with the findings of Manyak, Gunten, Autenrieth, et al. (2014). The researchers found that mastery of the word may not have occurred in the introduction; however, as students continued to interact with the word throughout their peer talk, they became more confident using the word; often times needing no scaffolds

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from the research team.  Therefore, it is very important for teachers to invest in the time to plan for vocabulary introduction that foster guidelines similar to those offered by Graves (2006).

### Using Vocabulary Throughout an Interactive Read-Aloud

Interactive read-alouds provides a context for a "rich source of interesting and sophisticated words" (Blachowicz et al., 2006; Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008, p. 187). Blachowicz et al. (2006) refer to this as providing a "word-rich" environment (p. 527) or a "word-loving culture" (Toth, 2013, p. 206).  This interactive environment supports students' use of rich language (Blachowicz et al., 2006).  Using this instructional approach throughout this study piqued students' curiosity about words  (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008; Kucan, 2012; Scott et al., 2003; Toth, 2013); impacting students' disposition of word learning (Anderson & Nagy, 1992).  Students began to listen for words in other contexts which demonstrated the well-known phenomenon of selective perception.  The more curiosity students had about each word, the word attune they were to hearing it in conversations such as the news, television shows, commercials, and so on.  Providing students the opportunity to get excited about words is very important especially for those students who may have limited vocabularies.  Throughout the study it was noted that students' interests were sparked which ultimately impacted their independent word learning; an important component of effective literacy instruction (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008).  Students began to understand the interconnectedness among words.  This study's findings suggest when students are immersed in word learning and given opportunities to practice using the word throughout an interactive read-aloud these experiences build their excitement about learning new words.  The children's excitement and awareness of words has the potential to increase their acquisition of vocabulary. The learning of new words help build children's schema and add to their background knowledge.

Schema theory refers to the role of prior knowledge. It suggests that what the learner already knows exerts a powerful influence on new learning (An, 2013). Vocabulary learning is a good example of schema theory in action because background knowledge associated with the word, represents a strong advantage for students learning new words (Arum & Roksa, 2011; Roskos & Neuman, 2014). When students have an understanding of one word, this knowledge often supports their understanding and interest in other related words (Dashiell & DeBruin-Parecki, 2014; Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2008). This knowledge increases the chances of children building connections among words and concepts (Fiano, 2013; Roskos & Neuman, 2014; Wright, 2013). This was the case in this study with some of the newly taught words such as "charged." A student who had experience "charging" a player in hockey connected the word to his experience with a sport. This background knowledge provided support for the student to understand the word more deeply and not just a simple definition. The background knowledge becomes the foundation for students who are trying to make sense of the new word (Roskos & Neuman, 2014).

Previous research supports the importance of providing multiple exposures to words in meaningful contexts and the increase in vocabulary acquisition (Beck et al., 2002; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Stahl, 2003) and was supported by the current study. For example, participants in this study were explicitly taught and give rich, multiple exposures to one word throughout the study. It became evident that students not only learned the word but had a deep understanding of the word with each encounter. As Graves and Watts-Taffe (2008) indicates, "repeated encounters with this word in a variety of contexts will provide the fuel needed to move this new word along the continuum until the student knows it well, remembers it, and uses it in a variety of appropriate contexts" (p. 192). This repetition and practice with the word's use allowed

children to indicate when the word was heard in the reading and understand its meaning.  To illustrate, students made the connection between the word 'declare' and examples of using a "declarative" voice.

## Rich Analytic Talk

When children are given more time to talk to adults and with each other in rich conversations of what they are thinking about at that moment (Fiano, 2013; Fisher & Frey, 2014; Hart & Risley, 2003; Harvey & Goudvis, 2013; Heath, 1987; Serafini & Moses, 2014; Stead, 2014), the greater their chances of increasing their expressive vocabulary.  Similar to Walsh and Blewitt (2006), this study revealed that students' active use of the word had the greatest impact on vocabulary acquisition.  Children were active participants and not passive recipients of word knowledge (Blachowicz et al., 2006).  However, often times, teachers provide an explanation of the word but never provide children the opportunity to discuss the word throughout the reading (Wright, 2012).  Several studies have concluded that purposeful conversations with others increase children's vocabulary development and builds oral language skills (Hart & Risley, 1995; Wasik & Iannone-Campbell, 2012).  However, the dominant type of talk in classrooms is "teacher-directed management-focused talk that leaves little time for explicitly discussing vocabulary words" (Wasik & Hindman, 2013, p. 303).  "Teachers need to engage children in purposeful strategic conversations that focus on explicit development of vocabulary words and help children construct the meaning of words through multiple activities and experiences" (Wasik & Iaanone-Campbell, 2012, pp. 321-322).

At times, cues and support were needed throughout this study in order for the children to build their confidence in discussing the prompt and using the newly taught word.  Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) refer to these cues as scaffolding, or the "expert" helping the novice complete a

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task.  The findings of this study were consistent with the findings of Karchmer-Klein and Shinas

(2012).  Along similar lines, Wasik and Hindman (2011) found that the more opportunities that

young children had to respond to open-ended prompts with scaffolding, the more vocabulary

they acquired over the course of one year.  This study also demonstrated the importance of

scaffolding children's vocabulary learning through the use of open-ended question prompts.

With this support in place, children began to use the word within their conversation and

ultimately needed less scaffolding in future read-alouds.  In addition, scaffolding or researcher

prompts were needed in order to help students contribute to the peer discussion using appropriate

examples and correctly using the newly introduced word.  Ankrum, Genest, and Belcastro (2014)

refer to this verbal scaffolding as the teacher providing careful guidance and support in

meaningful conversation in order for the children to accomplish a task that they found

independently difficult.  According to Vygotsky (1978) zone of children's learning is known as

the children's Zone of Proximal Development.  Verbal prompting was provided during the peer

talk.  The researcher and assistants  provided effective prompts, rephrased the initial turn and talk

question, and praised learners which ultimately increased students' ability to use the word within

their peer dialogue; bringing students "a little further along" (Rodgers, 2004, p. 505).  Robertson,

Dougherty, Ford-Connors, and Paratore (2014) refer to this scaffolding as "skilled facilitation of

the conversation" (p. 554).  The amount of scaffolding needed varied across each turn and talk

session ranging from what Pentimonti and Justice (2010) refer to as a range from high support to

low support scaffolds.  Most of the scaffolds used throughout the study were low support or

helping children continue to successfully participate in using the newly introduced word in their

peer talk.  The present study found as did Ankrum et al. (2014) that authentic conversation with

meaningful verbal scaffolding influenced early literacy instruction and growth.  This study adds

to the literature base of research which demonstrates the impact of teachers scaffolding students'
responses.

## Limitations

There are important limitations to this study that must be acknowledged. This study was
conducted in one kindergarten classroom with eight children; therefore, these findings are not
generalizable. Flyvbjerg (2006) explained that contextualized research, such as the case study, is
needed to build foundational knowledge from "rule base to experts" (p. 221). As Merriam and
Associates (2002) purport, "If one thinks of what can be learned from an in-depth analysis of a
particular situation or incident and how that knowledge can be transferred to another situation,
generalizability in qualitative research becomes possible" (p. 28). By researching and observing
students' peer talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud about explicitly taught
vocabulary, documentation of students' use of the words became apparent.

Data collection for this study focused solely on the 30 minutes of 12 researcher planned
interactive read-aloud sessions. Observations did not occur during the entire literacy block or
throughout the day. Therefore, it remains unknown if and whether or how often the teacher used
the words throughout the day. Such interactions may have influenced the students' use of the
word, if opportunities were given for students to hear, say, and use the words throughout the
school day.

The teachers studied seemed to have increased pressure to teach to particular content and
provide instruction that would "cover" the required academic standards. As a result, the teacher
was strict with the amount of time she allocated for the interactive read-aloud; each session had
to occur from 9:00 am -9:30 am. Therefore, there were some inconsistencies in visits. It was
difficult to find time to schedule the visits consecutively, as there were four different schedules

that were taken into consideration (teacher, two research assistants, and the researcher).  Three of the read-alouds were done and then approximately one month passed before the other interactive read-alouds were completed.  The teacher often indicated that she did not have time to conduct an interactive read-alouds and that they were only done for the purpose of this study.  This scheduling dilemma may have caused some inconsistencies with the data collection in this study as time was taken to review the rules and procedures of the interactive read-aloud each time there was a significant break between sessions.  In addition, the inability to continue daily read-alouds may have impeded some of the vocabulary learning in the previous sessions.

A further limitation is that a team of researchers scaffolded students throughout the interactive read-aloud.  Some may question whether the student talk that resulted in this study could occur in a classroom with only one teacher.  However, if the interactive read-aloud is a routine component of instruction it is possible that all children would experience such support on a regular basis.

## Areas for Future Research

Further research is needed to describe the nature of integration of vocabulary instruction across an entire day.  It is important to determine the impact that comprehensive, vocabulary instruction, with multiple exposures to the word, would have on word learning.  Allowing the students to practice using the word gives students multiple exposures to the word which has shown evidence of increasing depth of knowledge with the word.  A study demonstrating the outcome of teachers providing multiple exposures to the word could be a mixed-methods study that uses quantitative measures.  Future researchers could use pre-test and post-test data to indicate an increase, if any, in vocabulary scores following explicit instruction and implementation of the vocabulary across an entire day.

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Research is also needed to determine if and how explicit vocabulary instruction may influence students' discourse within their homes. Fiano (2013) identifies this discourse as students' primary discourse. Researchers could communicate to the caregivers which words were introduced and give suggestions for integrating the words in the children's primary discourse. This communication could be done via a weekly newsletter or posted on the classroom's webpage. The correspondence could include the list of words and ideas for incorporating the words into the children's homes. This study could be a longitudinal study that reports the long-term gains of explicitly taught vocabulary in the classroom to the students' practice and use of the words within their homes. This relationship between home and school is imperative where the goal is to increase students' oral language and cognitive development (Fiano, 2013).

There is a paucity of research in the area of teachers' beliefs about vocabulary instruction, including word selection. This study could be done by conducting a national survey of teachers' vocabulary practices in first grade. A study on this topic may lead to improvement of teachers' understanding of effective practices in vocabulary instruction through professional development. This improved education would focus on choosing appropriate vocabulary words as well as strategies for explicitly teaching the words. It is possible that some teachers may believe that traditional or ineffective methods for teaching vocabulary constitute good teaching. Understanding the beliefs and perceptions that teachers have will allow professional developers to tailor sessions to the needs of the participants

A final area may be a qualitative study designed to investigate students' use of vocabulary in their writing following explicit instruction of the Tier Two words from the story. Students' journal writing could be collected and analyzed to determine themes that emerged in

students' writing following explicit instruction. Research may focus on how explicit vocabulary instruction impacts students' writing. Connecting students' word learning to their writing builds depth of knowledge with the word and its meaning.

## Chapter Summary

It is clear that vocabulary instruction plays a vital role in the development of children's expressive language. This brings to the forefront the importance of teachers' instructional decisions to support word acquisition (Neuman & Dwyer, 2011). Interactive read-alouds provide the avenue for learning sophisticated words that young children are unlikely to acquire during independent reading (Wright, 2012). Toth (2013) describes this type of instruction as providing opportunities for children to think of vocabulary learning as an "exciting expedition" (p. 206). As children's active vocabularies grow, it lends to support their ability to communicate using both oral and written language.

Explicit vocabulary instruction has shown promise for developing students' oral language. When teachers afford the time for students to talk about the newly taught words, students are able to apply the words in their peer talk. In addition, posing questions that encourage children's use of the word throughout peer talk helped students to develop a sense of word awareness. This word awareness was observed through a demonstrated excitement for learning new words and recognizing words throughout the planned read-aloud. This excitement increased students' breadth and depth of word knowledge.

Engagement in high quality talk about newly taught words has added to the knowledge base of children's oral language development. The findings of this study offer direction to practices that exert a positive influence on young children's literacy growth. It has been noted that children who have learned more vocabulary in the early grade levels have an increased

chance of understanding what they read because of their vocabulary knowledge (Stanovich, 1986; Wright, 2013).  Still, the amount of time children have to discuss newly taught vocabulary in rich conversations is limited in classrooms (Wasik & Hindman, 2013).  Opportunities for young children to talk about vocabulary in daily read-alouds, with high quality talk, need to occur frequently in classrooms.  Affording the time for children to talk coupled with explicit vocabulary instruction provided evidence that students are able to use the newly taught word within their peer talk.

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Appendix A

Site Permission


Dear Dr. DiLeo:

I am writing this letter to introduce you to a study that I will be conducting as part of the completion of my doctoral dissertation through Indiana University of Pennsylvania. The research study I will be conducting will identify patterns of kindergarteners' oral vocabulary development through their use of analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud.  Prior to the study, I will provide professional staff development to your kindergarten teachers at Jackson Elementary on interactive read-alouds.

I am writing you to specifically request participation in my study.  Study approval will be granted through Indiana University of Pennsylvania's Institutional Review Board.

All data collected will be kept confidential and pseudonyms will be used to protect the privacy of the participants.  An executive summary of the study will be made available to the participating teacher and the administrator of the building upon request.  I feel this study could provide your district important information for increasing students' oral vocabulary development.

Thank you very much for your time and consideration.  If interested, please provide

approval on school letterhead stating your interest.  After approval by Indiana

University of Pennsylvania, I will invite your teacher to participate.


Jacqueline M. Myers                      Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Mary Renck Jalongo
Primary Researcher                       Professor, Professional Studies in
IUP                                      Education
E-mail qpwd@iup.edu                      122 Davis Hall
Phone: 814-931-0812                      Indiana University of Pennsylvania

**Jackson Elementary School**

CENTRAL CAMBRIA SCHOOL DISTRICT
3704 William Penn Avenue
Johnstown, PA 15909
814-749-8421

**Tricia Murin**
**Principal**

October 28, 2013

To Whom It May Concern,

      As superintendent of the district, I have granted Jacqueline M. Myers permission to conduct her research study of *Interactive Read-Alouds in Kindergarten: A Qualitative Study of the Analytic Dialogue between Students* on the site of Jackson Elementary School. Jacqueline Myers' dissertation will explore patterns of kindergartens' oral vocabulary development through their use of analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud.

Sincerely,

*[signature]*, D. Ed.

Dr. Vincent DiLeo

Appendix B

Site Permission

February 2014

Dear Ms. Murin:

I am writing this letter to introduce you to a study that I will be conducting as part of the completion of my doctoral dissertation through Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

The purpose of this study is to identify the impact of students' analytic talk and their oral vocabulary development.  I will be conducting a small group interactive read-aloud while the classroom teacher delivers a large group interactive read-aloud.  This study will focus mainly on the talk during the vocabulary introduction and review of the words.  In addition, the analytic talk between students in the small group interactive read-aloud and how the use of vocabulary is applied throughout the conversation will be analyzed.

If you decide I can complete my study at Jackson Elementary School, professional staff development will be provided to the teachers.  In addition, the researcher will model interactive read-alouds in the kindergarten classroom and observe the teacher's delivery of an interactive read-aloud to ensure fidelity.  Multiple observers will be visiting the school to take comprehensive field notes on the vocabulary introduction, the analytic talk between students, and the review of vocabulary words after the reading.  The first observer holds a Ph.D. in reading education and the second observer holds a Ph.D. in special education.  Both observers have current required clearances.

The Indiana University of Pennsylvania supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research.  There are no known risks related to this research study.  All data

collected will be kept confidential and pseudonyms will be used to protect the privacy of the

participants. An executive summary of the study will be made available to you upon request. I

feel this study could provide your kindergarten classroom important information for increasing

students' oral vocabulary development.

If interested, please provide approval on school letterhead stating your interest. After approval

by Indiana University of Pennsylvania, I will invite your teacher to participate.

**Principal Investigator**

Jacqueline M. Myers

qpwd@iup.edu

570 South 11<sup>th</sup> Street

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Indiana, PA 15705

Phone: 814-931-0812

**Faculty Sponsor**

Dr. Mary Jalongo

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570 South 11<sup>th</sup> Street

122 Davis Hall

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Indiana, PA 15705

Phone: 724-357-2417

**This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional**

**Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).**

**Jackson Elementary School**

CENTRAL CAMBRIA SCHOOL DISTRICT
3704 William Penn Avenue
Johnstown, PA 15909
814-749-8421

**Tricia Murin**
**Principal**

February 2, 2014

To Whom It May Concern,

As principal of the Jackson Elementary School, I have granted Jacqueline M. Myers permission to conduct her research study of *Interactive Read-Alouds in Kindergarten: A Qualitative Study of the Analytic Dialogue between Students* on the site of Jackson Elementary School. Jacqueline Myers' dissertation will explore patterns of kindergartens' oral vocabulary development through their use of analytic talk before, during, and after an interactive read-aloud.

Sincerely,

Mrs. Tricia Murin

Appendix C

Classroom Teacher Informed Consent

February 2014

Dear Ms. Caposky:

The following information is provided in order to help you decide and make an informed decision regarding your participation in a research study.

The purpose of this study is to identify the impact of students' analytic talk and their oral vocabulary development. I will be conducting a small group interactive read-aloud while you deliver a large group interactive read-aloud. This study will focus mainly on the talk during the vocabulary introduction and review of the words. In addition, the analytic talk between students in the small group interactive read-aloud and how the use of vocabulary is applied throughout the conversation will be analyzed.

If you decide to participate in this study you will be asked to take part in professional staff development regarding interactive read-alouds. In addition, the researcher will model interactive read-alouds in your classroom and observe your delivery of an interactive read-aloud to ensure fidelity. Multiple observers will be visiting your classroom to take comprehensive field notes on the vocabulary introduction, the analytic talk between students, and the review of vocabulary words after the reading. The first observer holds a Ph.D. in reading education and the second observer holds a Ph.D. in special education. Both observers have current required clearances.

The Indiana University of Pennsylvania supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research.  There are no known risks related to this research study.  Your participation is completely voluntary.  The researcher is currently employed at the University of Pittsburgh at Johnstown and has no responsibility for evaluating you.   During the study, no administrator or principal will be involved.  Your participation is entirely voluntary and you are free to decide not to participate in this study or withdraw at any time.  If, for any reason, you decide not to participate, you can withdraw from the study with no negative consequences.  If you choose not to be involved in the study at any time, a new participant will be selected and any data collected will be destroyed.  To withdraw, please send an email to qpwd@iup.edu or call (814)931-0812. In addition, your name will never be divulged nor associated with the findings in any way.  All information obtained will be kept strictly confidential.

Please print and sign your name on the consent form if you are willing to have your kindergarten classroom participate in this study.

Sincerely,

**Principal Investigator**                              **Faculty Sponsor**

Jacqueline M. Myers                                  Dr. Mary Jalongo

qpwd@iup.edu                                         mjalongo@iup.edu

570 South 11<sup>th</sup> Street                     570 South 11<sup>th</sup> Street

Indiana University of Pennsylvania          122 Davis Hall

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                                                       Phone: 724-357-2417


**This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional**

**Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).**

I have read and understand the information above, and I consent to volunteer to participate in this study. I understand that I will participate in staff development and open my classroom for modeling and observing interactive read-alouds. In addition, I understand that multiple observers will be visiting the classroom to take comprehensive field notes of the vocabulary introduction, review of vocabulary words at the end of the story, and the analytic talk between peers. I realize that only the analytic talk of the students in the small group will be audio-taped and used for data collection. The audio-recordings will be kept confidential and only privy to the researcher. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name (PLEASE PRINT):_____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix D

Parent/Guardian Informed Consent

February 2014

Dear Kindergarten Parent/Guardian:

My name is Jackie Myers, and I am an instructor at University of Pittsburgh at Johnstown. I am also a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. I am writing to you in order for you to decide if you would give permission for your son/daughter to participate in a research study.

The purpose of this study is to observe how students learn new vocabulary in the books they are reading. I will be reading to a small group of children while Ms. Caposky reads to a larger group. This study will focus mainly on the conversation before, during and after the story reading. Data collected will determine if and how your child uses the vocabulary words taught prior to reading the story. No new material will be covered as a part of this study, and the educational objectives will align to the Pennsylvania State Standards and the Pennsylvania Common Core Standards. If your child is a participant in the study, his or her conversations about the book will be audio-taped and chosen for data collection.

The Indiana University of Pennsylvania supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. There are no known risks related to this research study. Participation or non-participation in this study will **not** affect your child's grade in kindergarten; this study is

completely <u>voluntary</u>. If, for any reason, you or your child decides not to participate, you can withdraw from the study with no negative consequences. To withdraw, please send an email to qpwd@iup.edu or call (814)931-0812. In addition, your child's name will never be divulged nor associated with the findings in any way. All information obtained will be kept strictly confidential. While your child's participation is critical to the collection of data, his or her participation remains voluntary. Below you will find a copy of the assent statement I will be reading to the entire class. Children can circle the face that indicates whether or not they would like to participate in the story reading and have their conversation about the story taped. However, only those children who have parent/guardian consent can participate.

| |
|---|
| Dear Children: <br><br> Ms. Myers is a teacher and she wants to read stories aloud to you and listen to you talk about the book with another student in your class. Now, please listen to these directions. If it is okay for me to read to you and tape your talk about the story, circle the smiling face. If it is not okay for me to read to you and tape your talk about the story, circle the frown. |
| Child's Name: |
| Date: |
| ☺　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　☹ |

If you want your child to be in the study, please print and sign your name on the parent consent form. Return one copy of this voluntary consent form to Jackson Elementary School office.

There is a box labeled for the consent form.  A summary of the findings of the study will be

made available to you upon request.  Please feel free to contact me at (814) 931-0812 if you have

any questions.


Sincerely,


**Principal Investigator**                          **Faculty Sponsor**

Jacqueline M. Myers                                 Dr. Mary Jalongo

qpwd@iup.edu                                        mjalongo@iup.edu

570 South 11th Street                               570 South 11th Street

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                                                    Phone: 724-357-2417

**This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).**

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM

I have read and understood the information in the consent letter, and I give consent for my son/daughter, _____, to be a participant in the study using conversations before, during, and after the story reading.  I am aware that the data collected in the study will remain confidential and that my child has the right to withdraw at any time throughout the study.

PARENT NAME: _____

SIGNATURE: _____

PHONE NUMBER: _____

E-MAIL: _____

Appendix E

Child Assent

| Dear Children: |
| Ms. Myers is a teacher and she wants to read stories aloud to you and listen to you talk about the book with another student in your class.  Now, please listen to these directions.  If it is okay for me to read to you and tape your talk about the story, circle the smiling face.  If it is not okay for me to read to you and tape your talk about the story, circle the frown. |
| Child's Name: |
| Date: |
| ☺                                               ☹ |

Appendix F

Teaching Checklist for Interactive Reading and Analytic Talk

- ✓ Select a developmentally appropriate piece of literature.
- ✓ Preview & Practice the selected literature.
    - o This includes adding "sticky notes" in predetermined locations.
    - o This also includes thinking of questions that will reinforce the mini-lesson.
- ✓ Establish "turn & talk" partners.
    - o It is also helpful to establish a signal to end a "turn & talk" session.
- ✓ Model how to "turn & talk", if necessary.
- ✓ Introduce your mini-lesson.
    - o You can always create a poster that will serve as your anchor chart.
    - o This should introduce the vocabulary word using one of the literary responses
- ✓ Introduce the book.
    - o This includes a quick "gist" of the story as well as the author and the illustrator.
- ✓ Begin reading the book.
    - o While reading: be enthusiastic, vary your voice intonation, model fluency, and think aloud.
- ✓ Stop and do "turn & talk" which should be a reinforcement of your mini-lesson.
    - o Be sure to listen to some of these conversations between your students, taking anecdotal notes of the conversations.
- ✓ Discuss what the students talked about with their "turn & talk" partners.
    - o To hold students accountable for listening, maybe ask a student to discuss what his or her partner said.
- ✓ Finish reading the text until you reach the end.
- ✓ When you are finished reading, discuss any questions your students may still have about the lesson and provide a review of the vocabulary word.

Appendix G

Observation Log

| Date: | Time: | Observer: | Place: |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Participants:**<br><br>**S-S (Student to**<br><br>**Student)**<br><br>**T-S (Teacher to**<br><br>**Student)** | **Introduction/Review**<br><br>**of vocabulary:**<br><br><br>**Teacher input:**<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>**Students' input:** | **Routine/Procedures:**<br><br>**(Mini-lesson)**<br><br>**I-Intertextual**<br><br>**PM-Performative**<br><br>**T-Transparent**<br><br>**P-Personal** | **Students' Quotes:**<br><br><br>**Student A:**<br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br><br>**Student B:** |