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ABSTRACT
                Literacy development was studied among 40
kindergarten students at Lummi Tribal School (Washington). Data
consisted of observations during weekly classroom visits throughout
the school year, student writing samples, records of "pretend
reading," responses to environmental print, and teacher checklists
concerning literacy experiences in student homes. Each child's stance
toward reading (level of engagement) was determined by interest in
reading activities, level of print awareness, and stage of reading
development. Results showed 7 children with a high stance, 19 with a
moderate stance, and 14 with a low stance. Each child's stance toward
writing and learning to write was determined by level of interest in
writing activities, ability to write own name, stage of writing
development, and degree of risk-taking. Results showed 9 children
with a high stance, 25 with a moderate stance, and 6 with a low
stance. High levels of engagement in reading and writing were
generally associated with high levels of literacy learning
experiences at home. Suggestions for promoting literacy include the
library corner, repeated read-alouds, the shared book experience,
story re-enactments, functional uses of print and writing in the
classroom, the writing table, and small-group activities. In
addition, teacher and parents should work together as partners in
children's literacy development. Extensive appendices include
research materials, individual results, and resource materials.
Contains 114 references. (KS)

A Longitudinal Study of Literacy Acquisition
in a Native American Community

Observation of the Kindergarten Classes at the Lummi Tribal School

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Report submitted to the Lummi Tribal Council, State of Washington, January 1994.

ABSTRACT

It has been commonly believed that Native American children do not do well in school---they are below the national average on standardized tests; their drop-out rate is high; they are frequently placed in remedial and learning disabled classes. It is further known that young children come to school with varying experiences, especially with reading and writing, and that some children have limited experiences with books and print. Since literacy is a prerequisite for later learning, it is imperative that young children are provided these experiences if they are lacking them. For these reasons, a longitudinal study was conducted to determine what experiences and knowledge Lummi children had about reading and writing in order to create a literacy program that would prepare them to handle the kind of reading and writing that is done in the public schools. Members of the Lummi community in northwest Washington were interested in having the study carried out. During the first year of the project, 3-year-old children were observed at Headstart on the Lummi reservation. During the second year, two 4-year-old classes at Lummi Headstart were observed. The following year, two kindergarten classes at the Lummi Tribal School were observed. This report describes the results of the kindergarten study. The children were observed once a week for one hour during their free play time. In each class the researcher sat at the writing table set up by the teachers with drawing and writing materials which the children could choose to use. The children could choose to draw or write but were then asked to write their name and anything else they could. In addition, the researcher read books to the class and taught two rhymes, then had the children make class books for the rhymes. Data was further collected on the language arts activities in school and the reading and writing experiences of the children at home, the teachers' perceptions of their students' interest and readiness for reading and writing, the children's "pretend reading" of a familiar storybook, and their recognition of environmental print. From the data, the children's literacy learning experiences at home and at school and variations in their reading and writing development were described. In addition, their stances towards reading and writing were identified according to their levels of engagement. Finally, implications for instruction are offered both for reading and writing development in general and specifically for children with different stances toward reading and writing.

A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF LITERACY ACQUISITION
IN A NATIVE AMERICAN COMMUNITY:

Observation of the Kindergarten Classes at the Lummi Tribal School

Background

A longitudinal study was begun in 1988 investigating the literacy acquisition of children on the Lummi Indian reservation in northwest Washington. It is commonly believed that many children from non-mainstream cultures have difficulty learning in public schools. This has been attributed to differences between the cultures of the home and school (Cf., most notably, Philips, 1983, and Heath, 1983). Further, extensive research has revealed that children's experiences with books and print before coming to school have a major influence on their success in learning to read and write (Cf., especially, Teale & Sulzby, 1986, and Taylor, 1983). Thus, because culture plays such a prominent role in the experiences of young children, it seemed important to identify Lummi children's experiences and knowledge of reading and writing in order to provide the experiences and instruction that will prepare them for success in public school. It should be noted, however, that reading and writing experiences in and of themselves may not be sufficient for success because of the "monoculturism" of public school (Cf. May, 1993, for a discussion of the need for cultural and structural pluralism in schools).

During the first year of the study, the 3-year-old class at Lummi Headstart was visited during the academic year. The nature of their school literacy experiences and knowledge was reported in a document submitted to the Lummi Tribal Council (Walter, 1989). The following year, two of the 4-year-old classes at Lummi Headstart were visited during the year. A report of their school literacy experiences and knowledge has also been submitted to the Lummi Tribal

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Council. During the last year of the study, the kindergarten classes at the Lummi Tribal School were visited on a regular basis. Only a few children were observed for three years (n=11) due to the mobility of the population. More children were observed for two years (n=20) but even this figure was low. It seems that many children attended kindergarten in the public schools nearby. This report presents the results of the study and implications for instruction.

Methodology

At the Lummi Tribal School, two kindergarten classes (N=40) were visited by the researcher once a week from November 1990 to May 1991. The classes were taught by non-Lummi teachers who were knowledgeable about the Lummi culture and spoke some Lummi. At the beginning of the study the children ranged in age from 5.1 years to 6.9 years. All of the children spoke English as a first language.

The researcher spent one hour in a class during each visit. Most of the time was spent at the writing table set up by the teachers for free play time. For one class, free play was in the morning and for the other, after lunch. A writing activity was provided by the teachers which usually involved writing personal correspondence such as a greeting card for mother's day and the like. The researcher observed the children's writing activities at the writing table, encouraged children to come to the table, and asked children to write whatever they could. The table was used for other things at other times of the day. In addition, the researcher read books to the class and taught two rhymes--"The Turtle" and "Mice" (see Appendix A), then had the children make class books for the rhymes. During the final data collection stage, the children were asked to write their name and anything else they could, read environmental print (see Appendix B), and read either Mrs. Wishy Washy, a familiar book, or "The Turtle",

the more familiar of the two rhymes. In addition, the teachers were asked to describe their language arts activities and to provide information about the children's reading and writing experiences at home and their interest and readiness for reading and writing in first grade.

As a participant observer, the researcher was accepted by the children very quickly. The children were used to having several adults in the classroom. Some of the children still called the researcher "Mrs. Wishy Washy" as they had the previous year. This familiarity encouraged other children to accept her as a helper and to respond to her requests.

Results

The data that was collected consisted of observational notes, writing samples, records of "pretend reading", responses to environmental print, and checklists completed by the teachers. The results are organized as follows: literacy learning experiences at school, literacy learning experiences at home, writing development, and reading development.

Literacy Learning Experiences at School

The two classrooms provided very similar language arts activities. Some of the activities were observed by the researcher and some were described by the teachers. Teachers were asked to complete and add to a checklist of reading and writing activities that had been observed in the classroom by the researcher (see Appendix C). On the checklist they indicated how frequently each activity occurred. The activities for both classes are described briefly.

Reading activities that were observed by the researcher were mainly teacher initiated and directed with the children participating at some level. In some

instances, children were observed reading on their own. The teachers read storybooks, big books, and poems to the children. The children participated in reading activities in a variety of ways. With the teacher they recited poems and rhymes, dictated stories individually and as a class, read classmates' names, "read" charts, and spelled names and other words. Further, they were taught the alphabet song and the letters of the alphabet, one letter being presented each week. They were taught the name of the letter, how to make the letter, and a key word for one of its sounds. During free play, children were observed reading charts, reading sentence strips, reading books, reading names, playing teacher by reading books to others, saying letters in names, reading labels on play food in playhouse, playing an ABC game, and reading color words on dittos. In addition, the teachers reported that children created individual storybooks, played word games, sang songs from a chart, illustrated teacher-made books, read sentences on the board, shared or read books to the class, and read books on their own during a silent reading period. They also reported that the children were taught to point to words as they read familiar stories and poems and encouraged to take the books home and read to their family. They further reported how often each activity was carried out (see Figure 1). Most activities were teacher initiated and directed (see "teacher" and "teacher-children" in the figure). However, some of these activities required more student involvement than others (see "teacher-children" in the figure). Although all activities were introduced by the teacher, some activities were carried out by the children independently (see "children" in the figure). In addition, some activities that were teacher initiated could potentially be carried out independently by the children, such as reading a chart, dictation or storybook.

Initiator	Type	Frequency
teacher	storybooks	daily (more than once a day)
teacher	poems and rhymes	daily
teacher	new poem/rhyme	weekly
teacher	big books	monthly
teacher-children	reading the calendar	daily
teacher-children	reciting poems/rhyme	daily
teacher-children	reading charts	daily
teacher-children	reading names	daily
teacher-children	letters and sounds	daily
teacher-children	spelling words	daily
teacher-children	class storybooks	weekly
teacher-children	class oral reading	weekly
teacher-children	class dictation	once or twice a week
teacher-children	group oral reading	monthly
teacher-children	individual dictation	more than once a month
teacher-children	reading sentences	end of year
children	reading on own	daily (more than once a day)
children	letter and word games	daily
children	illustrating books	weekly
children	taking books home	weekly

Figure 1. Literacy Learning Experiences at School

Group and class dictations were mainly informational based on topics of study but also included the holidays, birthdays, and letters of the alphabet. The topics for both classes were not the same but there was a great deal of overlap, such as apples, the forest, salmon, weather, families, the farm, wetlands, the seashore, frogs, pets, seasons, the zoo, spiders, dinosaurs, and field trips. Two topics involving narratives were legends and fairy tales. In addition, children dictated stories about their drawings and paintings.

Writing activities that were observed by the researcher were writing the letters of the alphabet, names, and personal correspondence (such as cards and letters). Teachers reported that these activities occurred daily. Children wrote the alphabet letters on small chalkboards or the big chalkboard. In addition, the children were observed to write lists of names on the board during free play time. One teacher had the children write in their journals twice a

week, i.e., draw a picture and write about it (letters, words, "anything"). In the spring, she had them copy their dictation given for their drawings. The teachers reported a variety of writing activities at the writing center: holiday greeting cards, birthday cards, thank you letters, get well cards, birthday books, and class books for units of study. At the center, the teachers provided a variety of paper, writing tools, and word and phrase cards to copy.

Literacy Learning Experiences at Home

Teachers were asked to complete a checklist and give examples of children's experiences with reading and writing at home (see Appendix D). The teachers acquired this information through parent conferences, home visits, and familiarity with the family from having previous students. The results are reported here as a group (Table 1) but results for each child will be later compared with their stances in school toward reading and writing.

Number of Children

Yes	Maybe	No	Unknown	
23	4	11	2	Caregiver reads to child.
5	6	4	5	Caregiver tells child stories.
9	9	14	8	Caregiver takes child to library.
38	1	0	1	Child has books at home.
32	4	2	2	Child has crayons and markers to use at home.
23	8	3	6	Caregiver helps child read and write.

Table 1. Literacy Learning Experiences at Home: Teachers' Report

Most children had books at home and many of these children were read to, told stories by a caregiver, and helped to read and/or write by a caregiver. Teachers reported a variety of caregivers: parent, stepparent, sibling, grandparent, and, rarely, other members of the extended family. For the most part, however, the children were read to by a parent or grandparent. Even though

children were read to, teachers reported variation among children in the frequency, with some being read to frequently and others only sometimes. Children who were read to rarely were counted as "maybe" in Table 1. In addition, although few children were taken to the library, most children took "Read Aloud" books home from school and ordered "SeeSaw" books through the school. Many children were also told stories. It was important to know if children were told stories since the Lummi culture has a tradition of telling stories and some caregivers may not be able to read. Finally, many children had access to crayons and markers at home which indicates children's possible experiences with drawing and writing.

While many children seemed to be receiving literacy experiences at home, too many children had little or no experiences ("maybe", "no" and "unknown" in Table 1). Seventeen children were not read to, 15 children were not told stories, 17 children did not receive help at home, 2 children did not have books at home, and 8 children did not have crayons or markers to use at home. These are the children that teachers must be concerned about. In some cases, the teachers reported that they sent books, crayons, and markers home with children who did not have them.

Indication of parental involvement was deduced from the checklists. Degrees of involvement were determined by how many different ways the parents were involved and how frequently they carried out the activities (see Table 2). The teachers indicated frequency by writing yes, sometimes, probably, maybe, occasionally, a few, very few, rarely, not often, usually not, and no. Sixteen children had parents who were involved to very involved in their education. However, the teachers did not always indicate in what way the parents were involved other than what was on the checklist. In a few instances, they reported

that the parents took time to listen to their child, talk to their child, answer their child questions, read to their child, come to parent conferences, and provide books, paper, and writing implements. By far the most frequent indication of involvement was listening and talking to their child.

	Number of Children
High Degree	16
Some Degree	10
Low Degree	14

Table 2. Literacy Learning Experiences at Home: Degrees of Parental Involvement

Reading Development

Children's reading development was studied to identify each child's stance toward reading as had been done the previous year. Throughout the year, children's reading behaviors were observed, including pretend reading of familiar books. At the end of the year, data was collected regarding children's interest in reading, their readiness for learning to read, their print awareness, and their stage of reading development.

Degree of Interest in Reading: To determine each child's interest in reading, teachers were asked to complete a checklist consisting of reading behaviors that the teachers could observe (see Appendix E and Figure 2). Other behaviors that one teacher observed were listening to a storybook on tape, bringing books from home to share, sounding out words, and having a sight vocabulary.

looks at books
asks to be read to
pretend reads
points to and reads classmates' names
talks about stories heard
listens while story is being read
recites poems, finger rhymes, etc.
asks what the print says
points to and names the letters
names stories heard
points to and reads words and signs in the room
talks about reading
talks abo.t letters
talks about words

Figure 2. Reading Behaviors Displayed at School

Since the teachers assessed the children separately and seemed to use different criteria for assessment, the results are reported for each class (see Table 3). It is difficult to determine whether the difference between classes was a true difference, probably not. The teacher for Class B also identified other ways that her children demonstrated an interest in reading which were not tallied in the results.

	Number of Children	
	Class A	Class B
High Interest		
13-14 behaviors	10	1
11-12 behaviors	2	1
Some Interest		
9-10 behaviors	4	2
7-8 behaviors	2	5
Low Interest		
5-6 behaviors	2	9
3-4 behaviors	0	2

Table 3. Degrees of Interest in Reading

The levels of interest were evenly divided among high, some and low. Fourteen children demonstrated a high interest in reading and learning to read. Thirteen children demonstrated some interest, and 13 children demonstrated little interest. Upon further analysis of individual behaviors, it was found that all children had an interest in books and stories. They all liked to listen to stories being read and to look at books. Most children asked to be read to but a few did not (n=9). Almost all children had an interest in reading or learning to read in some way: pretend reading, reading classmates' names, asking what the print says, and reading words and signs in the room. Of the 4 children who did not have any interest in reading, 3 of them had an interest in learning the letters of the alphabet. Only 1 child did not have any interest in learning to read books, words, or letters of the alphabet. However, his teacher explained that he continually surprised her by what he knew. Finally, many children had an interest in learning poems, finger rhymes, and songs (n=27).

Degree of Readiness for Learning to Reading: Based on their assessment of the children's knowledge, interest, and ability in reading activities, the teachers determined their readiness to learn to read. At the end of the year, the teachers were asked to indicate the degree of readiness, high, moderate, or low, and what factors they considered in determining it (Table 4).

Number of Children

High Readiness   14

Moderate Readiness   18

Low Readiness   9

Table 4. Degrees of Readiness for Learning to Read

Fourteen children had a high readiness, 18 children had a moderate readiness, and 9 children had a low readiness for learning to read. The teachers indicated that they took into consideration the children's knowledge of sight words, letter recognition, recognition of letter sounds, vocabulary and conceptual development, ability to invent spelling, ability to rhyme, ability to comprehend stories, ability to retell (pretend read) a story and the like, interest in books and reading, participation in class reading activities, good attendance, and ability to identify and create patterns.

Level of Print Awareness: Children's knowledge of environmental print was assessed by asking them to identify labels of familiar items (the same items that were used the previous year): Burger King, Cheerios, Crest, Campbell's Chicken Soup, Milk or Fred Meyer (see Appendix B for copies of each item). Each item was presented as a flat piece taken from the side of the original product, giving some context but not in the same form found at home or the store. In this activity children were asked to "read what it says" and "show where it says that". Any indication of reading was identified, such as pointing to the exact word, pointing to a word with the same initial letter, and sweeping their hand left to right across the word. Based on their identification of the labels and their recognition of words, children's level of print awarenesss was determined, high, moderate, and low (Table 5).

	Number of Children
High Level	9
Moderate Level	14
Low Level	17

Table 5. Levels of Print Awareness

Nine children demonstrated that they recognized words on the labels. Fourteen children demonstrated recognition of the labels but not necessarily the words. Seventeen children did not demonstrate recognition of words or labels, other than knowledge of the contents, such as "toothpaste" or "cereal".

In addition, children were asked "how do you know it says that". Many of their responses indicated familiarity with the context of the item rather than to the print itself (see Figure 3). However, other children pointed to or said the initial letter (n=20). One child simply stated "I can read." Although not all of these children identified the correct initial letters for each label, at least the children were aware that words can be identified by their letters.

Cause I went there.
Cause I go there.
Cause I eat it.
Cause my sister told me.
Cause my mom makes it.
I have it at home.
I brush my teeth.
The store had it.
We buy it at the store.
It's in that kind of bag.
It's the box.
It's Campbell's kids.
It has big letters.
It has a hamburger.

Figure 3. Responses to Environmental Print: "How do you know it says that?"

Stage of Reading Development: The children's stages of reading development were assessed by asking them to choose a familiar book or poem to read, Mrs. Wishy Washy, "The Turtle", or "Mice". Several children read more then one. They were evaluated on their ability to read independently, to read the complete story, to use the language of the story, to match their voice with the print while pointing. Based on the results the children's stage was determined using

categories from the previous year: beginning reading, pretend reading, and attempted pretend reading (Table 6). See Appendix F for samples of children's reading for each category.

Number of Children

Beginning Reading	8
Pretend Reading	9
Attempted Pretend Reading	22

Table 6. Stages of Reading Development: Pretend Reading of a Familiar Book/Poem

Eight children were at beginning stage of reading, 9 children were at the pretend stage of reading, and 22 children attempted to pretend read. Those at the beginning stage showed signs of word recognition; they read nearly perfectly and pointed at the words with close voice-print match. One child attempted to read the words and did not want to guess when he did not know them. Those at the pretend reading stage read from memory, without voice-print match and changed or skipped pages they did not remember. Those that attempted to pretend read asked to be read to first, needed help or made up their own "story". Those who were read to then tried to "read" on their own.

Stance toward Reading: Each child's stance toward reading and learning to read was determined by their interest in reading activities, level of print awareness and stage of reading development (see Appendix G for results on each child). The stances are described in terms of levels of engagement. Since most children did not receive the same level or degree in each area examined, their scores were averaged to determine their stance (see Table 7). Further analysis revealed any variations in the three areas assessed.

Levels of
Engagement   Number of Children

High   7

Moderate   19

Low   14

Table 7. Stances toward Reading and Learning to Read: Levels of Engagement

Seven children had a high level of engagement in reading and learning to
read, 19 children had some engagement, and 14 had little or no engagement. Those
children who had a high level of engagement generally had a high degree or level
in all three areas (n=4). They demonstrated a wide variety of reading behaviors,
could read environmental print, and were beginning to recognize words in familiar
books. Some children who had little engagement had a low degree or level in the
three areas assessed (n=5). The others who had little engagement demonstrated
an area of strength. In most cases, they showed some interest in reading if not
learning to read. Children who had a moderate engagement generally varied across
the three areas assessed. They could not be described as a group. Only 3
children received a moderate degree or level in all three areas. They
demonstrated some interest in reading activities, had some knowledge of
environmental print, and could pretend read a story from memory. Five children
varied only slightly in their degrees or levels, i.e., between moderate and low.
In most cases, they demonstrated less interest in reading activities than their
level of print awareness and stage of reading development. The other children
demonstrated areas of both strength and weakness. Some children were very
interested in reading activities but could not pretend read (n=8) or could not
read environmental print (n=5). A few children were not very interested in
reading activities but could pretend read (n=1) or could read some environmental

print (n=2). One child could read environmental print quite well but could not pretend read and demonstrated some interest in reading activities.

Comparison of Stance and Readiness for Reading: To confirm the children's stances toward reading and learning to read, they were compared with the teachers' assessments of their readiness (see Appendix G and Table 8). Although children's stances and readiness for reading were determined using different criteria, it was assumed that both reflected children's interest, knowledge and concepts in reading and learning to read. However, they offer different perspectives on children's literacy, i.e., reading readiness, where children are not considered to know about print and reading before they are taught, vs. emerging literacy, where children are considered to already have knowledge about books, print, and reading before they are taught to read.

	Number of Children	
Same level	23	
Differed by one level	12	
Researcher higher		3
Teacher higher		9
Differed by two levels	5	
Researcher higher		1
Teacher higher		4

Table 8. Comparison of Reading Stance and Readiness for Reading

The researcher's and teachers' assessments were the same only for 23 children. However, for 12 children they only differed by one level and for only 5 children they differed by two levels. In addition, the teachers placed more children at a higher level than the researcher. It was expected that there would be differences of one level, since the data collected by the researcher was more limited than what the teacher was able to observe. However, differences of two

levels were unexpected. This means that teachers placed some children (n=4) at a high level of readiness while the researcher gave them a low stance towards reading and learning to read. This may have happened because the teachers were able to observe the students more frequently and in more contexts than the researcher. However, it may also have happened because readiness was assessed in terms of atomistic reading skills while stance was identified in terms of wholistic reading behaviors. For example, these children may have been able to recognize letters and sounds, but they were not able to recognize environmental print or pretend read. It should be noted, however, that these teachers assessed both wholistic and atomistic behaviors in determining readiness although it is not certain how much influence each had in their assessment.

Comparison of Stances in Headstart and in Kindergarten: In order to determine the stability of stances over time, a comparison was also made between the stances of children in kindergarten with their stances in the 4-year-old class at Headstart (see Appendix G and Table 9). Although criteria used at Headstart and in kindergarten were not the same, children were expected to maintain their stance if progress was made. In Headstart, the children were assessed on their interest in reading, their level of print awareness, and their stage of reading development. Interest was determined by how many times the children chose to read with the researcher. Print awareness was assessed in terms of whether they could recognize environmental print: high--used print to identify items; moderate--used picture or design to recognize items; low--could not recognize items. Reading development was assessed in terms of whether they could pretend read: high--could pretend read; moderate--attempted to pretend read; low--could not or would not pretend read.

Number of Children

Same Stance   8

Stance Increased   3

Stance Decreased   9

Table 9. Comparison of Reading Stances in Kindergarten and Headstart

Eight children maintained their stance from Headstart to kindergarten while the stances of 3 children went up and the stances of 9 children went down (see Table 9). Those children who maintained their stance showed progress in learning to read. Those whose stance increased showed substantial progress and those whose stance decreased showed little or no progress. Upon further analysis, it was observed that only 1 child actually demonstrated the same degree or level in all three areas of assessment: interest, print awareness, and pretend reading. This child already had a strong stance toward reading in Headstart and maintained it in kindergarten. Further, 8 children acquired more interest in reading activities, 5 children could read more environmental print, and 3 children who were pretend reading in Headstart were beginning to read in kindergarten. The fact that some children seemed to have a lower stance towards reading is not an indication that they regressed but an indication that they did not make observable progress. In kindergarten, children were expected to demonstrate more interest in reading and in more reading activities, to recognize environmental print, and to pretend read familiar stories. Thus, 7 children did not develop further interest in reading activities, 5 children did not develop their knowledge of environmental print and 10 children were not able to pretend read at a higher level. The reasons for their lack of progress, however, could not be determined.

Writing Development

The children's writing development was studied to identify each child's stance toward writing as had been done the previous year. Throughout the year, children's writing behaviors were observed. At the end of the year, data was collected regarding children's interest in writing and learning to write, readiness for learning to write, name writing, and stage of writing development. Interest was determined by the variety of writing activities that they participated in. Readiness was assessed by the teachers. The ability to write their first and last names was identified. Stage of writing development was determined from the kinds of writing the children did at the writing center. Their level of risk-taking was also assessed. Finally, the children's stances towards writing was determined based on four areas: interest, name writing, stage of writing development, and risk-taking.

Degree of Interest in Writing: To determine the children's interest in writing and learning to write, the teachers were asked to complete a checklist of writing behaviors that the they could observe (see Appendix E and Figure 4).

copies letters
copies words
writes letters from memory
writes on chalkboard
pretend writes
writes at writing table
asks how to spell(write) a word
writes name
writes words other than names
spells own name
spells other names
asks to be show how to make a letter
recognizes letters in names and words
talks about writing
talks about spelling

Figure 4. Writing Behaviors Displayed in School

Again, the teachers seemed to assess their children differently so the results are reported for each class separately (see Table 10). It is not possible to determine whether the difference between classes was a true difference or whether the teachers used different criteria for assessment. The teacher for Class B also indicated frequency of involvement so that some children who did not participate in a variety of activities demonstrated a high interest in a specific activity.

Number of Children

	Class A	Class B
High Interest		
14-15 behaviors	5	0
11-13 behaviors	5	1
Some Interest		
9-10 behaviors	4	3
6-8 behaviors	2	8
Low Interest		
4-5 behaviors	1	5
1-3 behaviors	3	3

Table 10. Degrees of Interest in Writing

Eleven children demonstrated a high interest in writing and learning to write, 17 children demonstrated some interest and 12 children demonstrated low interest. Teacher B indicated that 4 children who participated in some writing activities demonstrated a high interest in one particular activity, writing at the writing table. Upon further analysis, 32 children were interested in writing at the writing table cr chalkboard during free play time. Of the children who did not, only 1 demonstrated some interest in other writing activities. Only 12 children were interested in pretend writing while 33 children were interested in

copying letters, words or names or writing them from memory. Further, 16 children were interested in knowing how a word was spelled.

Level of Readiness for Learning to Write: Based on their assessment of knowledge, interest, and ability in writing activities, the teachers determined the children's readiness to learn to write in first grade. At the end of the year, the teachers were asked to indicate the degree of readiness, high, moderate, or low, and what factors they considered in determining it (Table 11).

	Number of Children
High Readiness	13
Moderate Readiness	21
Low Readiness	6

Table 11. Levels of Readiness for Learning to Write

Thirteen children had a high degree of readiness, 21 children had an moderate degree of readiness, and 6 children had a low degree of readiness for learning to write. The teachers indicated that they took into consideration the children's fine motor skills, self-expression, vocabulary, inventive spelling, ability to write letters of the alphabet, numbers, and first and last names, and participation in creating class and individual books.

Level of Name Writing: The children were asked to write their name at the end of the year (see Table 12). While all children could write their name, 2 children could not write their first name from memory. Twenty-three children could write both their first and last names from memory; 4 almost could write them. For many of these children, they were able to write their last name by the end of the year.

Number of Children

First Name   38

First and Last Name 23

Table 12. Levels of Name Writing

Stage of Writing Development: Throughout the year the children were also asked to write anything they could. A variety of behaviors was elicited on this writing task: drawing, scribble writing, writing (copying) letters of the alphabet, writing (copying) names, writing (copying) words, and writing a story (see Table 13).

Number of Children

Drawing	34	
Scribbling	7	
Scribble Writing		2
Writing Letters	19	
Copying		2
Pretend Writing		7
Writing Names	16	
Copying		7
Memory		5
Copying & Memory		4
Writing Words	26	
Copying		18
Inventing Spelling		3
Memory		13
Writing Story	4	

Table 13. Children's Behaviors Displayed at the Writing Table

Thirty-four children drew pictures as part of writing; 6 children never drew a picture. Four children drew exclusively in addition to writing their name. Of the children who drew and wrote, some drew before writing (after

writing their name), some drew after writing, and a few mixed drawing and writing. Seven children scribbled but only 2 actually pretended to write words or names. Nineteen children wrote letters with 2 of them copying the letters. Seven of these children pretended to write words or names. Sixteen children wrote names with 7 children copying names, 5 writing names from memory, and 4 writing some names from memory and copying some names. Further analysis revealed that family names were usually written from memory and classmates' names were copied. In addition, more children wrote names as time went on. By the end of the year, 26 children wrote words. Most children copied words but 13 children wrote words from memory, such as love, mom, dad, yes, and no. Three children invented spelling, i.e., attempted to sound out words. Upon further analysis, most children wrote lists of names or words, but 4 children attempted to write a story with one entirely scribble and the others prephonetic.

The children's stage of writing development was determined by examining their writing other than their name (see Table 14). Children at the highest stage of development could write words from memory and frequently wrote names from memory. Children at the next stage copied words and sometimes wrote names from memory. Children at the lowest stage wrote or copied letters, frequently only those in their name. Thirteen children were at the word stage of writing development, 18 children were at the name stage and 9 children were at the letter stage.

	Number of Children
Word	13
Name	18
Letter	9

Table 14. Stages of Writing Development

<u>Degree of Risk-Taking</u>: In addition, children were assessed in terms of the amount of risk they took during the writing task (see Table 15). Children who were high risk-takers would pretend write, invent spelling, write stories, write extensively, if only lists of names and words, or write from memory. Not all of these children could write letters or words, but most of them could. Children who were low risk-takers did not write at all and, in some cases, did not even draw. Other children wrote only what they knew, such as letters and names, and copied names or words. These children would not pretend write or invent spelling.

Number of Children

High Risk-Takers	14
Moderate Risk-Takers	19
Low Risk-Takers	7

<u>Table 15</u>. Degree of Risk-Taking

Fourteen children were high risk-takers; they were experimenters and willing to try new things. Nineteen children were moderate risk-takers; they wrote what they felt confident about writing. Seven children were low risk-takers; they wrote only their name and, in one case, letters.

<u>Stance towards Writing</u>: Each child's stance toward writing and learning to write was determined by their level of interest in writing activities, ability to write their name, stage of writing development, and degree of risk-taking (see Appendix H for results on each child). Since most children did not receive the same level or degree in each area examined, their scores were averaged to determine their stance (see Table 16). Further analysis revealed any variations in the three areas assessed.

Levels of
Engagement   Number of Children

High   9

Moderate   25

Low   6

Table 16. Stances toward Writing and Learning to Write

Nine children had a high level of engagement in writing and learning to
write, 25 children had a moderate level of engagement, and 6 had a low level of
engagement. Those children who had a high level of engagement had a high degree
or level in three out of four areas assessed although the areas varied among the
children. They demonstrated a wide variety of writing behaviors, generally could
write their first and last names (n=7), wrote extensively and wrote words and
names from memory (n=8), and generally were high risk-takers (n=7). Children who
had low engagement had a low degree or level in two to four areas assessed (two
areas: n=1; three areas: n=4; four areas: n=1). This means that, except for 1
child, these children demonstrated an area of strength although at a moderate
level. In most cases, they were able to write their first name from memory
(n=4). One child who could not write his first name showed an interest in
writing nevertheless. Children who had moderate engagement generally varied
across the four areas assessed. They could not be described as a group. Two
children demonstrated a moderate degree or level in all four areas. Some of
these children demonstrated areas of strength and weakness, in some cases in more
than one area (n=21). The children demonstrated a strong interest in writing
(n=6), a high stage of name writing (n=12), a high stage of writing development
(n=3), and high level of risk-taking (n=6). Some of these children also

demonstrated a low level of interest in writing (n=8), a low stage of writing development (n=2), and a low level of risk-taking (n=1).

Comparison of Stance and Readiness for Writing: To confirm the children's stances, they were compared with the teachers' assessment of the children's readiness to write (see Appendix Ħ and Table 17). As with reading, children's stances and readiness for writing were determined using different criteria. Again, it was assumed that both reflected children's interest, knowledge and concepts in reading and learning to writing. However, it should be remembered that they offer different perspectives on children's literacy.

	Number of Children	
Same level	22	
Differed by one level	18	
Researcher higher		7
Teacher higher		11

Table 17. Comparison of Stance and Readiness for Writing

The researcher's and teachers' assessments were the same for only 22 children. However, for the other children they only differed by one level. In addition, the teachers placed more children at a higher level than the researcher. This time there were no differences of more than one level. It was expected that there would be differences of one level, since the data collected by the researcher was more limited than what the teacher was able to observe. However, these children may have been able to write the letters and their name and copy words, for example, but they may not have been able to pretend write, invent spelling, or write words from memory, all of which require an interest in writing and a willingness to take risks. Thus, there may have been a difference

in researcher's and teachers' views of readiness for writing as with readiness for reading.

    Comparison of Stances at Headstart and in Kindergarten: In order to determine the stability of stances over time, a comparison was also made between the stances of children in kindergarten with their stances in the 4-year-old class at Headstart (see Appendix H and Table 18). Although criteria used at Headstart and in kindergarten were not the same, children were expected to maintain their stance if progress was made. In Headstart, the children were assessed on their interest in writing, their ability to write their name, and their stage of writing development. Risk-taking was not assessed. Interest was determined by how many times the children chose to write at the writing table with the researcher. Name writing was assessed in terms of whether they could write their name from memory: high--wrote first name from memory; moderate--copied first name; low--wrote some letters of name from memory. Writing development was assessed in terms of what they could write other than their name: high--wrote names and words; moderate--wrote letters; low--scribbled or wrote letter-like shapes.

            Number of Children

Same Stance   8

Stance Increased   13

Stance Decreased   3

Table 18. Comparison of Writing Stances in Kindergarten and Headstart

    Eight children maintained their stance from Headstart to kindergarten while the stances of 13 children went up and the stances of 3 children went down. Those children who maintained their stance showed progress in learning to write.

Those whose stance increased showed substantial progress and those whose stance decreased showed little or no progress. Upon further analysis, it was observed that none of the children actually demonstrated the same degree or level in all three areas of assessment: interest, name writing, and writing development. Most of these children's interest was not maintained (n=13). However, more children developed further in name writing (n=13). Seven children could now write their first names from memory and 6 children could now write their first and last names from memory. Further, while all children increased their stage of writing development, 13 children improved dramatically. Nine children were now copying names and words and 4 children were now writing names and words from memory. The fact that some children had a lower stance towards writing is not an indication that they regressed but an indication that they did not make observable progress. In kindergarten, children were expected to demonstrate more interest in writing, write their first and last names, and write names and words. Thirteen children did not increase their interest in writing activities, 3 children did not improve in their ability to write their name, and 4 children did not advance in their stage of writing development. The reasons for their lack of progress, however, could not be determined.

Summary of Stances toward Reading and Writing

Stance towards reading and writing provides an alternative to the notion of readiness (see McDonell & Osburn, 1978; Stewart, 1985; Strickland & Morrow, 1988a, for a discussion of readiness vs. emergent literacy). Readiness is typically determined by identifying children's skills that are assumed to be prerequisites for reading, such as visual discrimination and auditory discrimination among others. These behaviors are evaluated by giving tests of

discrete, atomistic skills. Children are then taught skills one by one, following a predetermined sequence. Stance is determined by identifying what children know about reading and writing. Recent research has demonstrated that young children know a lot, although this is variable, about reading and writing before they come to school and that they learn about reading and writing in a wholistic way (Goodman & Goodman, 1979; Teale, 1982).

The concept of stance toward reading and writing is new. Although variations in children's knowledge and concepts have been thoroughly researched (see especially Kontos, 1986, and Teale, 1987, for summaries) and sequences of literacy development has been studied (Hiebert, 1981; Lomax & McGee, 1987; Mason, 1980), little research has examined individual children's stances toward reading and writing and how their stances might affect later learning. One study (Dahl & Freppon, 1990) described children's stances in terms of their attitude, risk-taking, need for instruction or help, and level of engagement with literacy activities. They found that the interaction of children's stances, entering knowledge, and type of instruction resulted in differences in their reading and writing development at the end of kindergarten. They also found that stance seemed to be the most important variable because it consistently indicated how children made sense of reading and writing activities. However, they determined stance as if reading and writing were a unitary process. There is some indication in the literature that reading and writing are complementary processes but children may acquire reading and writing behaviors in different ways because of differences in their experiences and interests (Kamberelis & Sulzby, 1988).

For the present study, stance was described in terms of levels of engagement. Stance toward reading was determined based on interest in reading activities, level of print awareness, and stage of reading development. Stance

toward writing was determined based on interest in writing activities, level of name writing, stage of writing development, and degree of risk-taking. Stance characterizations are summarized in Figure 5.

Levels of Engagement	Stance Characterizations	
	Reading	Writing
High	likes to be read to likes to pretend read beginning to recognize words reads environmental print	likes to write and pretend write writes names and word from memory writes first and last names high risk-taker
Moderate	likes to be read to likes to look at books retells story using story language recognizes environmental print	likes to copy writes and copies letters copies names writes first name from memory moderate risk-taker
Low	likes to be read to does not look at books on own retells story using pictures is not aware of environmental print	does not like to write beginning to copy letters copies first name low risk-taker

Figure 5. Characterizations of Reading and Writing Stances

In comparing children's stances toward reading and writing, it was found that children did not always have the same level of engagement for both (Table 20). Only 3 children had a high level of engagement in both reading and writing and 4 children had a low level of engagement in both. However, 13 children had a moderate level of engagement in both reading and writing. In addition, more children (n=26) had a moderate level of engagement in writing even though they might have a low or high level of engagement in reading. Further, 4 children with a high level of engagement in reading and 6 children with a high level of engagement in writing had a lower level of engagement in the other. Likewise, 9 children with a low level of engagement in reading and 2 children with a low level of engagement in writing had a higher level of engagement in the other.

It seems that children do not usually have the same level of engagement for both reading or writing. It was not possible to determine the reasons for these differences. However, since research has shown that learning in one influences learning the other, knowledge of children's stances can help teachers "reach" children through their strengths and interests.

Levels of Engagement	Stances		
	Reading	Writing	Reading/Writing
High	4	6	3
Moderate	7	12	13
Low	9	2	4

Table 20. Children's Stances toward Reading and Writing

Comparison of Stances with Literacy Learning Experiences at Home: To determine whether children's literacy learning experiences at home influenced children's stances toward reading and writing, the children's stances were compared with their literacy learning experiences at home (Table 19). To do this, reading and writing experiences were tabulated separately. For reading, there were five types of experiences identified: Caregiver reads to child; caregiver tells child stories; caregiver takes child to library; child has books at home; caregiver helps child read and write. For writing, there were only two types of experiences identified: Child has crayons or markers to use at home; caregiver helps child read and write. High, moderate, and low degrees of involvement were determined. For reading, a high level of involvement was identified as four to five types of experiences, a moderate level as two to three types, and a low level as one type. For writing, there were only three

possibilities: 2 types of experiences for a high level of involvement, 1 type of experience for a moderate level, and no experiences for a low level.

Levels of Engagement	Literacy Learning Experiences at Home					
	Reading			Writing		
	High	Moderate	Low	High	Moderate	Low
High	6	1	1	7	3	0
Moderate	9	9	2	11	10	2
Low	2	5	2	2	3	1

Table 19. Comparison of Stances and Literacy Learning Experiences at Home

As can be seen in the table, children with high levels of engagement in reading and writing for the most part received high levels of literacy learning experiences at home. Children with moderate levels of engagement in reading and writing received moderate to high levels of literacy learning experiences at home. Children with low levels of engagement in reading and writing received low to high levels of literacy learning experiences at home. From the data, it seems that the amount and type of literacy learning experiences at home did not make a difference for all children. Some children had moderate to high levels of engagement in reading and writing in spite of low levels of experiences at home (n=3 and n=2 respectively) and some children had low levels of engagement in spite of moderate to high levels of experiences at home (n=7 and n=5 respectively). Reasons for these differences could not be determined.

In the present study, stance was determined in order to study the reading and writing development of children over several years. Although the research was not able to be continued, the results can be still be useful for describing the variations in reading and writing behaviors so that the teachers are more

aware of what children know about reading and writing and can, thus, plan a curriculum to meet the needs of children who have different stances. Although it can be said that each child has his or her own stance toward reading and writing, teachers, generally, plan one curriculum and then try to meet the needs of individual children on an as-needed basis. However, somehow not all children progress in their reading and writing development; they seem to reach a plateau and stop (Fagan, 1987). The plateau effect may be attributed to the different stances children have. Different kinds of activities may need to be provided for children with different stances. In addition, teachers can help children progress by building on the stance that is the stronger one or the preferred one, i.e., reading or writing. Implications for instruction will be discussed next.

Implications for Instruction

Teachers have always known that children have diverse experiences and vary in their knowledge and abilities. Traditionally, teachers have taught all children the same way, according to their own philosophy of teaching or theory of learning. They have met individual children's needs by giving them help on an as-needed basis. This study, however, has described how children vary in their knowledge and stances toward reading and writing. One program, one way of teaching, one sequence of instruction will not meet the needs of these children. Not only different approaches to teaching need to be adopted but a variety of reading and writing experiences need to be offered.

General recommendations for a developmentally appropriate literacy program for kindergarten are given first. Then, suggestions are made for children with different stances towards reading and writing. Most activities will be similar for all stances but there will be variations in how they are implemented. In

addition, suggestions for the involvement of parents, which is considered essential, are offered.

A Developmentally Appropriate Curriculum

The Early Childhood and Literacy Development Committee of the International Reading Association has provided two sets of general guidelines for administrators and teachers to use when planning a developmentally appropriate curriculum for young children (IRA, 1986a; IRA, 1986b). In addition, the Texas Association for the Education of Young Children (TAEYC, no date) has made a position statement, describing a developmentally appropriate kindergarten reading program. The emphasis is "on providing children with daily opportunities for holistic, functional, meaningful experiences with written language" (Teale & Martinez, 1988, p. 10), an approach consistent with the way young children learn (Weir, 1989). The guidelines have been compiled and organized into seven main categories (see Appendix I for the complete guidelines):

- Build on what children know already know about language, reading and writing.
- Focus on meaning and the functions of reading and writing.
- Foster phys:.cal, socio-emotional, and cognitive development.
- Allow children to explore and experiment with language, reading and writing.
- Provide a model of language use, reading and writing.
- Monitor children's learning through informal means.
- Inform and involve parents in their children's learning.

These guidelines are based on what we know about how children learn language in general and, specifically, what children learn about reading and writing in early childhood (see TAEYC and Mavrogenes, 1986, for summaries of research findings).

Stances toward Reading

Children have different levels of engagement with books and print. Some children with high stances toward reading are already interested in listening to, looking at and pretend reading books. They need to listen to and have access to a wide variety of texts, poetry, rhymes, stories, and non-fiction. In addition, they need to see other kinds of print being used in a meaningful and functional way in the classroom, such as messages, letters, recipes, invitations, lists, directions, and so on. Other children with moderate stances toward reading need the same but will require teacher guidance in making the transition from looking at books to pretend reading, i.e., focusing on print. There are several techniques that teachers can use to do this, repeated read-alouds, language experience charts, and story re-enactments. Children with low stances toward reading will need teacher intervention, and, more than likely, on an individual basis. These children will not choose to look at books unless the teacher creates a time, a place, and a reason for doing so. Teachers will need to provide the experiences with books and print that they have not had.

The library corner, repeated read-alouds, the shared book experience, story re-enactments, the language experience approach (updated version), and functional uses of print are reading experiences that teachers should offer in the kindergarten classroom. While all children will profit from these experiences, approaches can be varied to help children with different stances toward reading.

The Library Corner: While some children may be interested in looking at books in the library corner, Morrow (1982) and Morrow and Weinstein (1982) found that the design of a library corner affects many children's choices of reading books during free play time. To attract children to the library corner, they suggest that the library corner should be quiet, accessible, large enough to

accommodate four children, comfortable, and partitioned off from the rest of the room; and have open-faced shelves for displaying a wide variety of trade books, bulletin board/poster displays, and props for re-enactments. In addition, time for looking at books may need to be set aside, since children with low stances toward reading may never choose to look at books. This is a good time for teachers to interact with children with low stances to model reading behaviors.

Repeated Read-Alouds: Research has amply demonstrated how important is reading to children (Teale, 1978, 1987). In fact, books should be read aloud more than once a day. In addition, children should be read a variety of texts, rhymes, poetry, stories, non-fiction, and language experience stories. Anything can be read to children, messages, letters, invitations, recipes, etc. Research has also shown that repeated reading improves children's comprehension of stories as demonstrated by the kinds of questions they ask (Martinez & Roser, 1985). Children frequently ask for favorite stories to be read again and again. Books should be read repeatedly so that children develop a deeper understanding of stories, develop expectations for what will happen next and even what word will come next, and become more familiar with story structure and story language. It has also been found that children choose books repeatedly read by the teacher more often than other books in the library corner (Teale & Martinez, 1988). Further, children with low and moderate stances are more apt to look at books and to pretend read a book because it is familiar. In addition, children who are at the stage of looking at books can progress to pretend reading.

The Shared Book Experience: All children profit from listening to stories read aloud and repeated read-alouds, but those children who have a low stance toward reading, due to limited experiences listening to stories, must be exposed to as much reading aloud as possible and on a personal level. Teachers must seek

out these children, reading to them on a one-to-one basis, talking with them about stories and relating stories to their lives. However, if it is not possible to read to them individually, Holdaway has developed a shared book experience (see Appendix J) that involves children in reading in much the same way that parents involve their children. This method encourages children to participate interactively with the teacher (see also Strickland & Morrow, 1989a, 1990a). It also may be useful for teachers to study the research on parent-child interaction during storybook reading to learn how parents involve their children in the stories they are reading (see "inio, 1980; Snow, 1983; Teale, 1982; Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Wells, 1986). Further, the shared book experience focuses children's attention on the print, so that children who are pretend reading will begin to make a voice-print match.

Research has shown how social interaction during reading alouds promotes literacy development (Teale, 1987). When stories are discussed and children are encouraged to ask questions, they are more apt to think about what is happening in the story. Perhaps most importantly, reading aloud may "enhance the child's reflective awareness, not only of language as a symbolic system but of the processes of his own mind" (Donaldson, 1978, p. 102).

> ....Through discussion, stories are related to children's own experiences and they are encouraged to reflect upon and ask questions about the events that occur, their causes, consequences, and significance, not only are their inner representations of the world enriched, but also their awareness of the ways in which language can be used in operating on these representations is enhanced. (Wells, 1985, p. 253)

Research on minority children (Baghban, 1984; Gutierrez & Garcia, 1989; Heath, 1983; Kawakami & Au, 1986) has further demonstrated how important it is to incorporate children's background knowledge in their understanding of what is being read and taught.

Story Re-Enactments: After children have listened to books, poetry, and rhymes, they can continue to enjoy them in a variety of ways: dramatizing, role-playing, retelling, and pretend reading, as well as other forms of communication: drawing, chanting, singing, and dancing. In this way children explore the meaning, language, and sounds of stories and poetry in a concrete way. Most young children need to express what they know, think, and feel in concrete ways but some children can only express themselves in this way (Cannella, 1985; Blank, 1982). These kind of activities give all children the chance to make a connection between the real world of objects and people and the abstract world of words and print. Further, they "become aware of spoken language as a separate structure, free from its embeddedness in events" (Dyson, 1983, p. 20). "In dramatic play, children employ a number of devices through which they distance themselves from the language in ways reminiscent of the conventions used in books" (Blank, 1982, p. 88). It is such "disembedded oral language skills" that are "precursors to written language mastery" (Blank, p. 80). This is a time for children to select and recall familiar stories, explore their understanding of stories, and develop their ways of making sense.

Children can re-enact stories in a variety of ways, from movement to drawing. Since children are naturals at pretending, they can role-play characters in a story or dramatize a story (see Strickland & Morrow, 1989h). Other common means are the use of puppets and felt-boards. Children at first will create their own story, making up their own words. As time goes on and children become more familiar with stories, they will begin to use the language of the story. Children will vary in their use of story language but this should be encouraged. Peterson (1982) has described a way children can be helped to use story language to retell stories, the Storybox. A Storybox is created for a

story and consists of objects that represent key phrases in the story. Children then can use the objects to help them recall the story language (see Appendix K for an example). Drawing pictures and creating books are other ways that children can recall and retell familiar stories. Not all children will be able to use the language of a story in their re-enactment, but they should be encouraged to try and their attempts should be valued. Teachers can also provide models and facilitate the re-enactment when children are having difficulty.

As children become familiar with stories, they often begin to pretend read on their own. Children will display various stages of pretend reading. Sulzby (1985) has shown how children develop in their ability to "re-enact" stories as they pretend read. This can be encouraged by having the children read Big Books, predictable books (Bridge, 1986) and language experience charts together. This can further be facilitated by using cloze reading where children provide the missing word or phrase, shared reading where children read with the teacher, echo reading where children repeat what the teacher just read, and assisted reading where children read to the teacher and receive assistance as needed. Each technique can be used according to the level of each child's pretend reading. Learning the language of literature can be further facilitated by having children chant repetitive phrases from stories, memorize rhymes and poetry, and even sing songs. Again, all children should be encouraged to pretend read at whatever level they can manage.

All of these ways not only promote the enjoyment of stories but also help children to learn the structure of stories and to recall the language of stories. Repeating the language of stories and, especially, poetry and rhymes may even help children develop phonological awareness, i.e, awareness of the sounds in words (Dickinson & Snow, 1987; Maclean, Bryant & Bradley, 1987). Strickland and

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Morrow (1988c) demonstrate how these types of experiences help children develop their oral language and communication skills as well.

Functional Uses of Print: Books are not the only means by which children experience print. There is plenty of print in the home, community, and classroom environments. In fact, most children come to school already able to recognize environmental print (Harste, Burke & Woodward, 1982; Teale, 1987). Children will, of course, vary in what they know but more children will have experienced print in their environment than stories read aloud.

Children's experiences with this type of print are highly contextualized, i.e., the context provides clues for reading the print (Teale, 1987). Out of context, most children are unable to read the print. This does not mean that teachers should ignore this type of print. Teachers can make use of the children's natural ability to make sense of print in meaningful contexts. One way is to make use of print that they are familiar with, at first, their name and other names, and, later, the letters in names. A useful way is to incorporate print in the children's play centers. An important way to do this is to create a "language and print rich environment" (Strickland & Morrow, 1988b; Taylor, Blum & Logsdon, 1986).

Names: Most kindergarten children can already recognize their name and many can write their first name. The first print that children may recognize is their own name. Since their name is very important to them, teachers can use their names to introduce children to the world of print and, later, the alphabetic principle, i.e., print and words are made up of letters. Once they can recognize their name, children soon learn to recognize the names of their family members and even pets. Children can go on to learn the names of their classmates. Recognition of names involves more than just visual discrimination; children also

learn that spoken language can be written down. At first, children perceive names as objects, especially when they have their name on a card which they can hold in their hands. Later, as children begin to write their name and other names, they learn that names are symbols for spoken language, a beginning level of abstraction (Vellender, 1989). When they see their name as a symbol, they begin to learn the concept of word and begin to discriminate on the basis of form rather than context. Thus, teachers should have children read their name and other names whenever possible. Children will vary in how quickly they learn names but all children will be interested and will learn to read their name as well as names of other children in the class.

Letters of the Alphabet: Teachers can also begin to talk about letters in children's names. It is much more meaningful for children to learn the letters in their name than to learn the letters in alphabetical order, which has no meaning to children, except as part of the alphabet song. Letter names and sounds are abstractions of written language that are remote from stories, books, and names. Children should not be asked to deal with such abstractions "before they have had an opportunity to understand the real thing" (King, 1982, p. 35), i.e., meaningful words, such as names. "Their learning is not linear--they do not seem to learn a letter a day or a letter a week. Rather, learning to name and recognize alphabet letters seems to be a function of the meanings that children find in the world of print" (McGee & Richgels, 1989, p. 224). It is by drawing attention to letters in their names that children learn the alphabetic principle and begin to discriminate letters on the basis of features rather than context (Kontos, 1986; McGee & Richgels, 1989). Then learning the names of the letters becomes a useful activity because it gives children a way of talking about print (McGee & Richgels, 1989; Vellender, 1989) and a way to start learning

the sounds of letters (Kontos, 1986). However, at this stage, "the focus on letters and sounds is appropriate only when children begin to get interested in and ask questions about graphic cues in print" (Kontos, 1986, p. 65; also see Manning, Manning & Kamii, 1988, for a discussion of early phonics instruction). "Effective teachers will observe children as they engage in reading and writing activities to find out what letters and aspects of letters children are exploring" (McGee & Richgels, 1989,p. 223). It is by identifying what each child is ready to learn, i.e., what they need to know when they need to know it, that children will learn (see Kamii, 1985, for a discussion of the learning process; Strickland & Morrow, 1989f, for a discussion of learning skills; and Veatch, 1988, for a discussion of the application of Piaget to learning the alphabet).

Play Centers: Names and letters of the alphabet are only one type of print ⁺hat children can learn to recognize in the kindergarten classroom. Recent research has examined the effects of providing print and reading and writing materials in play centers, such as the block center or the playhouse (Morrow & Rand, 1991; Neuman & Roskos, 1990; Strickland & Morrow, 1989g). It was found that children increased their interactions with print when it was made available in the play centers. Since children's dramatic play is an enactment of what they know from their own lives, print and reading and writing materials become a natural part of their play. Possible literacy props to place in play centers are up to the imagination of the teacher and the children (they can help, too) but many ideas are provided in the literature (see especially Neuman & Roskos, 1990; Morrow & Rand, 1991). Play centers can be organized around a theme or a topic of study, such as a restaurant, a bakery, a grocery store, a newspaper office, a post office, an airport, a gas station, a car repair shop, a veterinarian's office, a farm and so on (Borysiewicz, 1992; Morrow & Rand, 1991; Strickland &

Morrow, 1990d). It was also found that children are more likely to engage in literacy behaviors when teachers guide the children by modeling behaviors and giving directions for using literacy materials in the play centers. All children may not need this type of guidance but certainly some children with low stances will need it. Thus, teachers must take time to observe children's play and decide which children need guidance.

Print Rich Environment: Other meaningful and functional uses of print in the classroom have been suggested in the literature. This is more than just posting signs and labels in the classroom. Print needs to be used for real purposes. Before children learn the form of print, they "must first understand what print is for and how it is used" (Kontos, 1986, p. 65). Researchers have found that knowledge of environmental print does not necessarily "lead" children into word recognition (Teale, 1987). This may be because environmental print is not used for a specific purpose. When children were "immersed" in functional uses of print, it was found that their print awareness and word reading acquisition increased when compared with traditional readiness programs (Reutzel, Oda, & Moore, 1989). Examples of functional uses of print include directions, lists, messages, records, charts, graphs, news, letters, greeting cards, invitations, rules and so on (Goodman & Goodman, 1979). Children can even assist in the creation and use of such print (Strickland & Morrow, 1990e). According to Cairney & Langbien (1989), "if one creates an environment in which literacy is an important part of the children's world, this has a strong positive effect upon literacy development" (p. 564). They found that even 4-year-old children would use reading and writing to communicate and share with others.

Stances toward Writing

According to Clay (1991), "the first explorations of print in the early childhood years may occur in writing rather than reading" (p. 108). Children become interested in writing when they see others writing (Dyson, 1982a). It has been found that children as young as three are beginning to differentiate drawing from writing and to identify features of print (DeFord, 1980; Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984; Voss, 1988). Their initial attempts at writing may not be letters but their scribbles take on the form of print and even become letter-like (see Harste, Woodward & Burke, 1984, for examples). They first learn to write letters of the alphabet when they attempt to write their name (Dyson, 1984a).

Kindergarten children need to explore and experiment with writing (Blazer, 1986; Cannella, 1985; Dyson, 1984a). They need opportunities to draw, scribble, and pretend write as well as instruction in writing their name and letters of the alphabet. In fact, children who have not had the opportunity to draw and scribble may have difficulty learning to write in school because they have not developed their eye-hand coordination and small muscle control sufficiently. Teachers can facilitate children's writing development in several ways: at the writing table, with language experience stories/journals, in small-group activities, and in daily classroom life.

The Writing Table: A writing table should be set up with a variety of paper and writing tools, the alphabet at eye level, and three dimensional letters (Strickland & Morrow, 1989b). Unlined paper has been recommended because it allows greater freedom and choice for children in writing what they want and at their level (Martinez & Teale, 1987). The table should be available for children to use at free play time and other times of the day. At the table, children can draw and write whatever they choose, dictate stories for their drawings, copy

letters, names, words, sentences, and pretend write. Children will naturally explore and experiment with what they know, demonstrating a variety of strategies for expressing themselves in writing (see all of Dyson's work, but especially 1981, 1982b, 1986, 1990).

This is a good opportunity for teachers to observe what children can do (see Strickland & Morrow, 1989d, 1990h). Initially letters and names represent objects and only later symbols for spoken language (Dyson, 1984b). At first, children may just want to "draw" letters and names; often they will want to experiment, trying out different ways of forming letters and "playing" with patterns of letters and signs (Cannella, 1985; DeFord, 1980; Dyson, 1984c); sometimes they will want to practice what they know; later they will explore the relationships between print and speech (Dyson, 1982b, 1991); then they will want to label (Dyson, 1981, 1982b); eventually they will imitate their teachers' use of writing in the classroom. While children are writing, teachers will observe them talking, singing, drawing, and acting (Karnowski, 1986). These are familiar ways that children communicate which help them to make the connection between concrete objects and events and abstract words and print in much the same way that they acted out stories to understand them (see especially Dyson, 1981, 1982b, 1983, 1986, 1987, for studies of children's talk during writing). Whatever children do, their strategies will vary in the way they "weave" together their intentions and resources, both personal and social (Dyson, 1990).

Although the writing center is self-selected and self-directed, the teacher or another adult can serve as a facilitator there. The adult can help the children plan what they want to write, talk about what they are writing, encourage them to work out their problems, have them read what they wrote, and serve as a recorder for dictated stories (Martinez & Teale, 1987). Of course,

the adult always lets the children take the "lead" even when specific activities are offered, such as writing cards or other personal correspondence (see Hall, 1985; Martinez & Teale, 1987; Mavrogenes, 1986, for other writing activities). Some children will need more encouragement than others but the goal is to allow children to explore and test their own theories of writing and print.

Once children get started through teacher intervention, they will continue to do so. According to Piaget, "the more a child explores in a particular domain, the more he or she wants to experience" (Cannella, 1985, p. 284). This may be because children naturally seek to make sense of their worlds. As Langer claims, "meaning-making, like eating and sleeping, is an inherent part of being alive" (Dyson, 1991, p. 158). It is in exploring and experimenting that children acquire their knowledge, concepts, and skills. This results in the formation of theories about how the world functions, in this case, theories of reading and writing, books and print (see Dyson, 1982a, for how children "solve the written language puzzle").

> Once [a child] has a theory, no matter how primitive, s/he can pay attention to results that confirm or contradict this theory. Noticing a novel feature in someone else's print or his/her own inventions may confirm or contradict this theory. A contradiction may lead the child to figure out some other theory that would take the new features into account. In this way a few examples can raise the child's understanding to another level. (Clay, 1982, p. 228)

In addition, the adult and other children serve as an audience for children's writing. This can be done at the writing table when children interact with each other as well as at special times, such as "Author of the Week" (Martinez & Teale, 1987) and "Author's Chair" (Graves & Hansen, 1983), where children take turns reading what they wrote. It is in reading their own writing that children begin to discover the connections between print and spoken language

(Dyson, 1982a), to reflect on language and events (Donaldson, 1978), and to disembed language from its context (Wells, 1985).

Language Experience Stories/Journals: The language experience approach has undergone a major change in kindergarten. Teachers still have children dictate stories and captions for their drawings but it is now primarily used as a stepping stone to independent, free writing rather than reading and word recognition (Strickland & Morrow, 1990b). Some kindergarten teachers now use dictation during journal writing (Dyson, 1988; Hipple, 1985); other teachers use group journal writing to model the reading and writing processes (Strickland & Morrow, 1990b).

Dictations are still a valuable way to teach both reading and writing in the beginning stages. It allows children to express themselves freely without worrying about the mechanics of writing and encourages them to elaborate on their stories (Throne, 1988). When dictations are read back to children, they can even revise them, thus, learning about the editing process. Further, children can easily "pretend" read their stories because they are familiar with them. Teachers may have the children create storybooks or select words to learn from their stories. Teachers also can use dictations to determine children's awareness of story structure and story language. Sulzby (1982) has developed a checklist for judging children's emergent reading ability based on their rereadings of dictated stories.

In kindergarten, drawing is still a necessary part of the writing process (Neu & Berglund, 1991; Throne, 1988). Drawing allows children to reflect on their experiences and share them with others. Children create stories, reproduce events in their lives, and express emotions (see Dyson, 1988, for ways that children draw). By drawing children's ideas become concrete, abstract symbols

are created for real objects, and symbols are combined to form scenes and events (Dyson, 1988). Initially, children spend more time drawing than writing. The drawing, and talk used when drawing, tells the story (see Dyson, 1990). Children may incorporate writing into their drawings, very often, in dialogue form (see Dyson, 1981). Later, drawings are used to create a "story" in pictures which is then written (see Dyson, 1988). The written story may be more or less elaborate than the drawing (Dyson, 1990). When talking about their drawings, children begin to see the connection between spoken language and objects and events depicted in their drawings. When children see their words being written while dictating, they will begin to make the connection between spoken language and print.

Journal writing is not thought of as a kindergarten activity but many kindergarten teachers have used it successfully with their students. Some teachers have children dictate what they want to say; other teachers have children draw and/or write whatever they can. One teacher had the children "write something that they would like to class to know" (Coate & Castle, 1989). The purpose is to give children the opportunity to express themselves, their feelings, ideas, and reactions. Strickland & Morrow (1990b) suggest four steps to follow when using journals in kindergarten: experiencing, group journal writing/reading, independent journal writing/reading, and sharing. The first step, experiencing, provides children with something to write about. Then, the teacher models the writing process in a group journal. Next, the children write about the experience in their own journal. Finally, they share what they have written with the class, usually two or three children a day.

Whether language experience stories or journal writing is used in the classroom, children need to be given the opportunity to write independently on

topics of interest to them, expressing their feelings and ideas, and trying out what they know about written language. A program that focuses on copying and practicing the letters of the alphabet "confronts children with the pieces of the literacy puzzle one at a time, denying them an opportunity to view the puzzle as a whole" (Dyson, 1984a, p. 264; see also Blazer, 1986, and Dyson, 1984b for a discussion of copying).

Small Group Activities: Children who have limited experiences with drawing, scribbling, and writing will not choose to do so even when given the opportunity unless they see a purpose and a connection with their own lives (DeFord, 1980). This can be accomplished through small group activities where the teacher facilitates and guides the writing process and through functional uses of writing in the classroom where the teacher models the forms and functions of writing.

There should be a time set aside for drawing and writing just as there is time set aside for play and for reading. Although the writing table can be used during free play time, children will not often choose the table because other play activities are more interesting and certainly just as important. Teachers can meet with small groups of children to carry-out activities where literacy can be used as described by Kantor, Miller, and Fernie (1992). The purpose of these activities is not to teach writing but to use writing as a tool to accomplish other tasks (Dyson, 1984c).

According to their curriculum (cited in Kantor, Miller, and Fernie, 1992),

Early in the year, we begin the small group curriculum....with an introduction to new materials....While we each work with our own, but identical materials we talk: we notice each other's work, we describe what we're thinking about, we describe what we're doing....During the second half of the year, or whenever the teacher determines that the group is ready, our goal is to work collaboratively on a single project....to experience the idea of working in and as a group, of making unique contributions to a group effort through collaboration and cooperation. (p. 191)

As an example, the teacher "presented materials to explore (math, science, games, or literacy-related materials). At the conclusion of these experiences, written language was often introduced; for example, a chart of some kind might have accompanied a science exploration to classify and record the outcome. The social purpose for the literacy event...[was] 'so that everyone would know what we found out.' " (Kantor, Miller, & Fernie, 1992, p. 193). A variety of activities can be carried out at this time: making holiday cards, writing recipes, creating books, creating Legos constructions, writing rules for the care of a classroom pet, creating signs, playing games, experimenting with art media, exploring the properties of materials, and so on.

In addition to the teacher-directed small group activities, Kantor, Miller, and Fernie (1992) describe self-directed activities where children often chose to integrate print and writing in their play, although the purpose was not to practice or even explore print and writing:

> The activity table area was a context where children were encouraged to try out their ideas through the use of a wide range of art and construction media. A daily free choice activity, this context was structured each day by the teacher's selection of open-ended materials. These materials for painting, drawing, printing, working with dough and clay, and constructing collages and sculptures were selected to promote unique, divergent, creative work instead of products which looked identical from artist to artist. The main purpose of the activity tables was to introduce children to materials for extensive free exploration. (p. 195)

As an example, in a balancing scale activity, the teacher "presented a dry mixture of small alphabet noodles and other materials (cornmeal, rice, pasta) as media to explore, weigh, measure, scoop, and so forth" (Kantor, Miller, and Fernie, p. 195). Rather than using the scale, the children chose to play with the letters, finding letters they knew, spelling their name, and singing the alphabet song. If teachers feel that children need direction or supervision with this kind of activity, then they should "view themselves as coexplorers cf the

media and cocreators of ideas", following the "lead of the children" and helping

them "articulate, implement, and extend their art and construction ideas and

knowledge" (Kantor, Miller, and Fernie, p. 195).

These types of activities provide children a purpose for writing, i.e., to

accomplish personal and group goals (Dyson, 1984c), a sense of audience as they

interact with others (Dyson, 1991; Rowe, 1989), and control over their own

learning (Dyson, 1984c). They are especially important for teachers to do with

children who have limited experiences with writing, because teachers not only can

provide them guidance but they can observe what they know (Dyson, 1982c, 1984d).

Daily Life in the Classroom: In addition to purposeful writing in small-

group activities, teachers can model the forms and functions of writing in the

daily life of the classroom (Crowell, Kawakami, & Wong, 1986; Strickland &

Morrow, 1989b). These models then form the basis of the children's exploration

and experimentation at the writing table and in the play centers. Just as

children need to see a variety of written texts that the teacher reads, they need

to see the teacher writing a variety of texts: lists, signs, letters, messages,

recipes, charts, stories, poems, posters, maps, invitations, and so on. In other

words, teachers need to use writing "opportunistically", when the chance occurs

(Kantor, Miller, and Fernie, 1992, p. 199). For example,

> The teacher and children are gathered around the guinea pig cage
> discussing their new pet. The teacher is explaining the food guinea
> pigs eat and is showing the children the food they will be feeding
> their pet. One of the children remembers that the class goldfish
> died because too much food was put in his bowl. The teacher
> suggests that the class make a sign to put on the package telling
> the right amount of food and a chart to put near the cage to be
> checked on the day he is fed. She discusses the reasons these
> written records will help. (Taylor & Vawter, 1978, p. 942)

This can take place through shared writing where the teacher and children compose

together or assisted writing where the teacher helps the child write. If teachers

use writing in a meaningful and functional way, children will begin to imitate the teacher to accomplish their personal goals. Children will not only imitate the forms of writing but they will imitate how an activity involving literacy is carried out, i.e., the materials, actions, and talk that are used (Dyson, 1984b, 1984c). Their focus, of course, is on the activity as a whole rather than on the forms of writing (Dyson, 1984c). To create activities where children can spontaneously make use of reading and writing, some teachers create a classroom postal system or a message board to foster communication between classmates, between teacher and children, and even between classrooms. In addition, teachers have children sign their name for attendance, turns at centers, and other kinds of lists. Further, language experience stories become part of the everyday life of the classroom when records of daily or special events are recorded. In this way, literacy becomes an integral part of "doing school" (Kantor, Miller, and Fernie, 1992, p. 199). "It is important to keep in mind that purposes, functions, or uses must be made apparent to children within the framework of their own interests" (Taylor & Vawter, 1978, p. 944). This is particularly essential for children with limited experiences with print and writing.

Involvement of Parents

Research has demonstrated the importance of parents' contributions to their children's literacy development (Strickland & Morrow, 1989c, 1990c; Teale, 1987). (It should be noted that the term "parents" can refer to any significant adult or older sibling who has the role of caregiver.) Not only do children become aware of print and become familiar with books, their name, and the alphabet before they come to school, they learn that reading is enjoyable, meaningful, and functional (Teale, 1987). Children's early experiences with print and books form

the foundation of later learning. In fact, it has been found that the concepts of print and reading that children acquire before they learn to read are a necessary prerequisite (Lomax & McGee, 1987). Children, however, vary in the kinds and amount of experience they have with print and books.

In addition, as explained by Y. Goodman, "literacy development cannot be understood without recognizing the significance of literacy in culture, i.e., the culture of both the larger society and the specific culture of which the child is a part" (Gutierrez & Garcia, 1989, p. 114). In other words, it is "through the place and value given to literacy in the everyday activities of the family" (Wells, 1985, p. 234) that children learn to read. Thus, it can be said that children learn to read and write because they see significant people in their environment reading and writing, they have opportunities to explore and experiment with reading and writing, and they have assistance in their attempts.

Because of the importance of children's experiences at home, parents and teachers must work together to help children learn and develop. Whether educators and teachers offer a formal course, such as The Intergenerational Literacy Model Project (Quintero & Velarde, 1990) or The Intergenerational Reading Project (France & Hager, 1993), or teachers work with parents informally, such as during home visits, parent conferences, letters, or newsletters, teachers must actively involve parents in their children's education (see Ross & Bondy, 1987, for ideas). Parents are more apt to spend time helping their children if they know they have something to contribute and their contributions are valued. In their Intergenerational Reading Project, France and Hager (1993) identif. 1 three important principles for increasing parent involvement: recruit parents, respect their efforts, and respond to the needs of the parents.

Parents can be asked to do a variety of activities with their children (see France & Hager, 1993; and Quintero & Velarde, 1990), but it is probably best to keep it simple. First, parents can read to their children. This is of primary importance. Teachers should show parents ways to read and discuss stories with their children. Second, parents can take their children to the library regularly. Teachers should organize a field trip to the library for parents and children or even take them there. However, if this is not possible, teachers can send books home. Third, parents can make writing materials available, such as paper, pens, pencils, markers, and crayons. Teachers should demonstrate what children are expected to be able to do and how this contributes to literacy development. They can also send materials home for children to use. Fourth, parents can make their children aware of the print around them, including signs, logos, names, and letters of the alphabet. Teachers should find out what print is available in the children's environment and how print is used (see van Kleeck, 1990, p. 28, for a list of possibilities). Then, they can show parents how to draw attention to print and how this contributes to their children's literacy development. Finally, parents can visit the classroom and share their knowledge with the children. Teachers should find out what parents know and can do. Perhaps Lummi parents are storytellers or artists. Parents can also be asked to narrate the history of their community or their own personal histories (see an example of this in Britsch, 1989). Whatever parents are able and willing to do should be encouraged and appreciated.

Summary

Although children are not taught to read in kindergarten and children are taught to write only their name and the letters of the alphabet, teachers can do

so much to facilitate their students' emerging literacy and to provide experiences that they have not yet had. Children know so much more than we think and can learn so much more than previously realized. Teachers need to find out what their students know and to offer them opportunities to grow in their knowledge of reading and writing. Only a few ways for promoting literacy have been offered in this report: the library corner, repeated read-alouds, the shared book experience, story re-enactments, functional uses of print in the classroom, the writing table, small-group activities and functional uses of writing in the classroom. In addition, teachers can work together with parents as partners in their children's literacy development. There are other ways as well but, if these are implemented, all children will acquire the necessary foundations for learning to read and write.

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65 seconds

APPENDIX A: Poems Taught to the Kindergarten Children
by the Researcher

The Turtle

There was a little turtle
Who lived in a box.
He swam in a puddle.
He climbed on the rocks.

He snapped at a mosquito.
He snapped at a flea.
He snapped at a minnow.
And he snapped at me.

He caught the mosquito.
He caught the flea.
He caught the minnow.
But he didn't catch me!

Mice

I think mice are rather nice.
Their tails are long,
Their faces small,
They haven't any chins at all.
Their ears are pink,
Their teeth are white,
They run about the house at night.
They nibble things they shouldn't touch
And no one seems to like them much.
But I think mice are nice.

APPENDIX B: Environmental Print Test Items
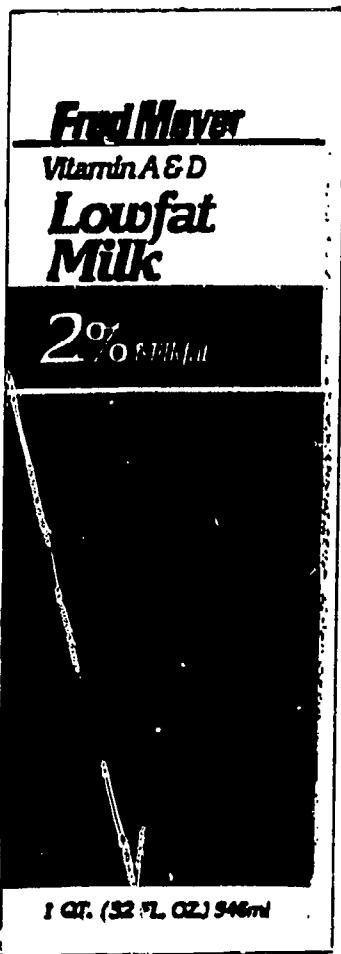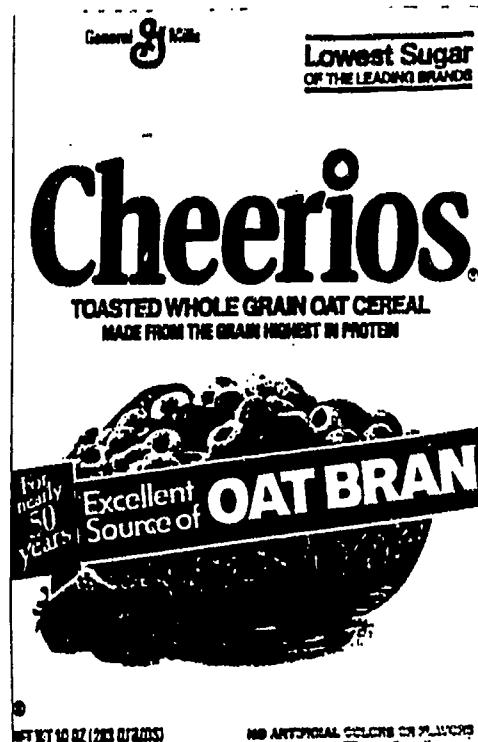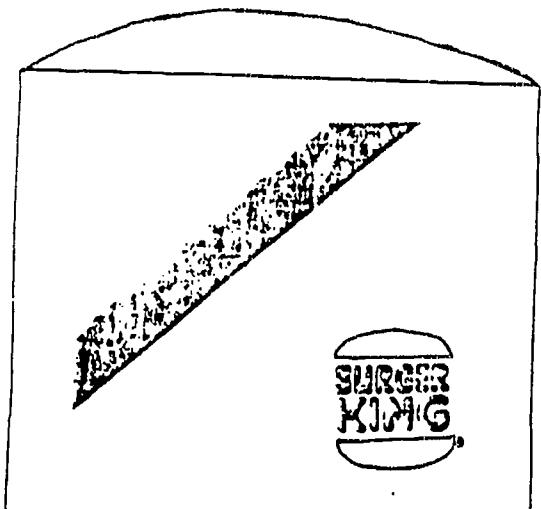
APPENDIX C: Checklist for .iteracy Learning Experiences at School

KINDERGARTEN CURRICULUM

TEACHER_____

Directions: The following is a list of activities involving reading or writing that I have observed in your classrooms. List any additional activities that I have not observed during my visits. Indicate how frequently the activities take place, e.g., daily, once a week, one time, etc.

READING

reading storybooks to children
reading big books to children
reciting/reading poems or finger rhymes
teaching children to recite poems or finger rhymes
individual children dictating stories
class dictating group stories
creating class storybooks
reading corner--children choose to read

WRITING

teaching children to write alphabet
teaching children to write first and last name
writing table--children choose to write
        (examples of writing:

APPENDIX D: Checklist for Literacy Learning Experiences at Home

NAME_____ DATE_____

Directions: Indicate what you know about the child's experiences with reading and writing at home by marking those behaviors. You may add any other behaviors that you know about.

Caregiver read to child

Caregiver tells child stories

Caregiver takes child to library

Child has books at home

Child has crayons and markers to use at home

Caregiver helps child read and write (e.g., the alphabet)

     examples:

APPENDIX E: Checklist of Children's Interest in Reading and Writing

NAME_____ DATE_____

Directions: Indicate the child's interest in reading and writing by marking those behaviors that you have observed. These should be behaviors that the child exhibits spontaneously without teacher direction and should occur enough times to demonstrate interest. You can add additional behaviors that you think indicate the child's interest.

CHILD'S INTEREST IN READING

looks at books
asks to be read to
pretend reads
points to and reads classmates' names
talks about stories heard
listens while story is being read
recites poems, finger rhymes, etc.
asks what the print says
points to and names the letters
names stories heard
points to and read words and signs in room
talks about reading
talks about letters
talks about words

CHILD'S INTEREST IN WRITING

copies letters
copies words
writes letters from memory
writes on chalkboard
pretend writes
writes at writing table
asks how to spell (write) a word
writes name
writes words other than names
spells own name
spells other names
asks to be shown how to make a letter
recognizes letters in names and words
talks about writing
talks about spelling

APPENDIX F: Examples of Categories of Reading

<u>Actual Story</u>:

Title Page	Mrs Wishy-Washy
2	Oh, lovely mud, said the cow,
3	and she jumped in it.
4	Oh, lovely mud, said the pig,
5	and he rolled in it.
6	Oh lovely mud, said the duck,
7	and she paddled in it.
8	Along came Mrs Wishy-Washy.
9	Just LOOK at you! She screamed.
10	In the tub you go.
11	In went the cow, wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
12	In went the pig, wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
13	In went the duck, wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
14	That's better, said Mrs Wishy-washy, and she went into the house.
15	Away went the cow. Away went the pig. Away went the duck.
16	Oh, lovely mud, they said.

<u>Example of Beginning Reading</u>:

Title Page	Mrs Wishy-Washy
2	Oh, lovely mud, said the cow,
3	and she jumped in it.
4	Oh, lovely mud, said the pig,
5	and he rolled in it.
6	Oh lovely mud, said the duck,
7	and she paddled in it.
8	Out came Mrs Wishy-Washy.
9	Just look at you. She screamed.
10	

11	In the tub you go,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
12	In you go,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
13	In you go,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
14	Oh, that's much better.
	Oh lovely mud, they said.
15	Away went the cow.
	Away went the pig.
	Away went the duck.
16	They rolled in it.
	They jumped in it.
	They paddled in it.
	Oh, lovely mud,
	they said.

Example of Pretend Reading:

Title Page:	
2	The cow said, look at the mud
	and he said, Oh, lovely mud.
3	He rolled in it.
4	Then the pig, the pig said,
	Oh, lovely mud, said the pig.
5	Then he rolled in it.
6	(What's this again? "duck")
	Oh, lovely mud, said the duck,
7	and she paddled in it.
8	Mr Wishy-washy said,
9	Ahhh, ohhh.
10	Get into the tub.
11	Wishy-washy, wishy-washy, wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
12	In went the pig,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
13	In went the duck,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
14	
15	Then he ran into the mud again.
16	

Example of Attempted Pretend Reading:

Title Page	Wishy-Washy
2	The pig
3	Then cow jumped in
4-5	The pig jumped into get dirty.
6-7	The duck jumped to paddle.
8-9	And she go,
	Oh, my god, goodness,
	she thinking.

10-11	In a tub, said the cow,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
12	In, said the pig,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
13	In, said the duck,
	quack, quack, quack,
	wishy-washy, wishy-washy.
14-15	They are running to the dirt again.
16	The end.

APPENDIX G: Individual Results on Reading Behaviors

Class A:

	Interest	Print Awareness	Reading Develop.	Stance	Teacher's Assessm't	Last Year's Stance	Literacy Experiences at Home
AN	3	3	3	3	2		1
AC	3	1	3	2	2		4
CE	1	2	3	2	2	1	1
CJ	1	3	3	2	2	2	3
DES	2	3	3	3	1	2	5
EW	1	2	1	1	1		4
GW	2	3	3	3	3	2	2
GJ	2	2	3	2	3		2
JJ	1	3	2	2	2		3
KAS	1	1	3	2	2		5
KK	2	3	3	2	3	2	2
LB	1	3	3	2	2	2	2
MC	1	2	3	2	2		2
MGJ	1	2	3	2	2		4
NS	1	1	1	1	1	2	5
RN	2	3	3	3	1	1	2
RJ	1	1	1	1	3	1	2
RIC	1	3	2	2	1	2	5
ROC	2	3	3	3	1		1
TC	2	3	3	3	2	2	2

Class B:

	Interest	Print Awareness	Reading Develop.	Stance	Teacher's Assessm't	Last Year's Stance	Literacy Experiences at Home
BM	2	1	2	1	2		5
BR	3	3	3	3	3		?
CC	3	2	2	2	2		?
DP	2	2	2	2	1		5
DH	3	3	3	3	2	2	5
DED	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
HO	3	1	1	2	2		5
JA	2	2	2	2	1		2
JW	2	2	1	2	1		5
JP	1	1	1	1	1	2	4
KAT	3	3	3	3	3		3
KJ	2	1	1	1	1	1	5
MA	2	1	1	1	1	2	4
MDJ	3	2	2	2	2	2	4
NC	3	2	2	2	2	1	4
PS	3	2	3	3	3	2	1
SJ	2	3	3	3	1		?
SS	3	3	3	3	3		2
SH	1	3	3	2	1		5
SK	3	2	3	3	2	2	4

APPENDIX H: Individual Results on Writing Behaviors

Class A:

	Interest	Name	Writing Develop.	Risk-Taking	Stance	Teacher's Assessm't	Last Year's Stance	Literacy Experiences at Home
AN	3	1	2	2	2	2		0
AC	3	2	3	2	3	2		1
CE	2	1	1	1	1	2	3	1
CJ	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1
DES	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	2
EW	1	1	2	2	2	1		2
GW	3	2	3	1	2	3	3	0
GJ	2	2	2	2	2	1		1
JJ	1	1	2	2	2	1	.	1
KAS	1	2	2	1	2	2		2
KK	1	2	2	2	2	2	3	1
LB	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2
MC	1	1	2	2	2	2		1
MGJ	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2
NS	2	1	3	3	2	2	3	2
RN	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	1
RJ	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
RIC	2	1	1	1	1	1	3	2
ROC	1	1	2	2.	2	2		1
TC	1	1	1	2	1	2	3	1

Class B:

	Interest	Name	Writing Develop.	Risk-Taking	Stance	Teacher's Assessm't	Last Year's Stance	Literacy Experiences at Home
BM	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
BR	3	3	3	3	3	3		0
CC	3	1	1	2	2	2		?
DP	2	1	1	2	2	1		2
DH	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	2
DED	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	2
HO	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
JA	2	2	2	2	2	1		1
JW	2	1	2	2.	2	1		2
JP	2	1	3	3	2	1	3	2
KAT	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	1
KJ	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
MA	3	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
MDJ	3	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
NC	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2
PS	3	2	2	2	2	3	3	1
SJ	2	2	1	1	2	1		1
SS	2	3	3	3	3	3		1
SH	1	1	1	2	1	1		2
SK	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1

APPENDIX I: Compilation of Position Statements on
Literacy Development in Early Childhood
(IRA, 1986a; IRA, 1986b; TAEYC)

BUILD ON WHAT THE CHILDREN KNOW ALREADY KNOW ABOUT LANGUAGE, READING, AND WRITING

1. Respect the language children bring to school, and use it as a base for language and literacy activities.

2. Build instruction on what children already know about oral language, reading and writing.

3. Focus learning activities to build on functions, uses and strategies of reading and writing that prevail in the children's home background.

4. Use materials for instruction that are familiar, such as well-known stories, because they provide the child with a sense of control and confidence.

5. Encourage children to talk about their experiences with other children and adults in the classroom.

FOCUS ON MEANING AND THE FUNCTIONS OF READING AND WRITING

6. Provide reading and writing opportunities that focus on meaning rather than on abstract, isolated skills.

7. Defer instruction in the **forms** of reading and writing until children have a good grasp of the **functions** of reading and writing. Form, isolated units of language, should be presented in the context of the meaningful whole.

8. Provide reading and writing experiences as an integrated part of the broader communication process, which includes speaking and listening, as well as other communication systems, such as art, math, music and dance.

9. Provide opportunities for children to use written language for a wide variety of purposes, for a wide variety of audiences and in a wide variety of situations.

10. Provide daily opportunities for all children to engage in meaningful print contexts, both in a group and independently: listening to stories, participating in shared book experiences, making language experience stories and books, developing key word vocabularies, reading classroom labels, and using print in various learning centers.

FOSTER PHYSICAL, SOCIO-EMOTIONAL AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

11. Foster children's socio-emotional and cognitive development by providing opportunities to communicate what they know, think and feel.

12. Encourage feelings of success for all children, helping them see themselves as people who can enjoy exploring oral and writing language.

13. Incorporate the arts and movement in the exploration of meaning in books and print. Allow and encourage children to talk, act, draw, dance, and sing while reading and writing. (See especially Dyson, 1986.)

14. Allow and encourage drawing and scribbling as part of children's attempts to write so that they can develop their eye-hand coordination and small muscle control as well as explore and experiment with writing.

ALLOW CHILDREN TO EXPLORE AND EXPERIMENT WITH LANGUAGE, READING, AND WRITING

15. Encourage children to be active participants in the learning process rather than passive recipients of knowledge, by using activities that allow for exploration and experimentation with talking, listening, reading and writing.

16. Provide opportunities for a variety of meaningful and functional reading and writing activities at play and learning centers, including socio-dramatic, block, science, math, listening, reading, writing, art, construction, music, manipulative centers.

17. Encourage risk-taking in first attempts at reading and writing and accept what appear to be errors as part of children's natural patterns of growth and development.

18. Encourage children's first attempt at writing without concern for the proper formation of letters or correct conventional spelling.

PROVIDE A MODEL OF LANGUAGE USE, READING, AND WRITING

19. Present a model for children to emulate, using language appropriately, listening and responding to children's talk, especially questions, engaging in their own reading and writing, demonstrating reading and writing activities in which they wish children to engage, and modeling of the pleasure and satisfaction found in such experiences.

20. Take time to read regularly to children from a wide variety of poetry, fiction and nonfiction, reading at least once and preferably two or more times a day.

MONITOR CHILDREN'S LEARNING THROUGH INFORMAL MEANS

21. View reading and writing as a process where children develop at an individual rate and therefore use sensitive monitoring of progress through careful observation and informal assessment rather than competency testing or other forms of standardized testing in early childhood.

22. Use evaluative procedures that are developmentally and culturally appropriate for the children being assessed and based on the objectives of a developmentally appropriate instructional program.

INFORM AND INVOLVE PARENTS IN THEIR CHILDREN'S LEARNING

23. Make parents aware of the reasons for a total language program at school and provide them with ideas for meaningful and developmentally appropriate activities to carry out at home.

24. Alert parents to the limitations of formal assessments and standardized tests of pre-first graders' reading and writing skills.

APPENDIX J: The Shared Book Experience
(Holdaway, 1979)

Step 1. Whet the Appetite.
1. Mention the name of the "big book" for several days before the presentation.
2. Mention the activities planned for the class in connection with the "big book."

Step II. Present the Story.
1. Discuss the cover of the "big book," the author, the illustrator, the publisher, and place and date of publication.
2. Read the story to the whole group using lots of expression.
3. Point to the words as they are being read, using a sliding motion with a pointer or your hand.
4. Read the story a second time, encouraging the children to supply the words to complete phrases.

Step III. Read the Story Again and Again.
1. Read to individuals or groups of no more than three or four children from a "small book," which is a replica of the "big book."
2. Be sure each child is sitting close enough to see the print and maintain physical contact with the adult.
3. Point to the words as they are being read, using a sliding motion with a pointer or your hand.
4. If possible, read the book as often as the children request it.
5. Encourage parents or other adult volunteers to help with small-group readings.

Step IV. Implement Multisensory Activities.
1. Plan art activities to correlate with the story, such as drawing the characters.
2. Dramatize the story by using puppets or having children portray characters.
3. Sing a song composed from the words of the story, or sing a familiar song about a related character or activity.
4. Use materials related to the story for math activities.
5. Develop science activities to illustrate the story.
6. Carry out a cooking activity related to the story, and let the children eat what they've cooked.
7. Let children listen to taped versions of the story, and read along in a small book as they listen.
8. Read other books that reinforce or extend the subject of the story.
9. Have available in the library center other books on the subject for the children to enjoy.

Step V. Expand the Experience.
1. Keep copies of the "big book" and "small book" on hand for children to read whenever they desire.
2. Have tapes and copies of the "small book" available for children to hear the story as they desire.
3. Have books and pictures in the library center that correlate with the subject of the story.
4. Tape children as they "read" the story, and play back the tapes (with children's permission).

Step VI. Begin the Process of Writing.
1. Children dictate sentences to the teacher, who writes them on a large chart in front of the group.
2. At the end of dictation, children "read" what they have dictated.
3. Systematically zero in on certain things, such as a particular letter, high-frequency word, color words, or punctuation. Use colored markers.
4. Date and keep together daily entries to form a classroom journal. Share journal entries with another class.
5. In the spring, following extensive experience with group journal keeping, have children begin to keep individual journals. On Monday, give each child five sheets of plain white paper that have been stapled together, so that they may (pretend) write something every day. Anything the child "writes," from squiggles through illustrations, is acceptable. The child may select an entry to share with the class. Send a letter of explanation to parents and let children take their journals home.
6. Teachers should write in their own journals while students write. Children need to see the teacher writing.
7. Have children create, with the help of the teacher, a new story by using the format of the "big book" and changing nouns, verbs, or adjectives. An example would be, "Mary, Mary, whom do you see?" "I see Peter looking at me," following the format of "Brown bear, brown bear, whom do you see?"

APPENDIX K: Example of a Storybox

Story: The Surprise by George Shannon

Page

1   Squirrel was worried.

2-3   His mother's birthday was one day away, and he still hadn't found her a present.

4-5   He had looked in all the stores in town, but nothing seemed just right.

6-7   She had perfume and books and the most beautiful garden. He'd already given her drawings, and songs that he'd made up.

8-9   And every time he made a cake, he burned it.

10-11 He sighed and said, "I'll just have to send her a plain old birthday card." But as he was putting the stamp on, he had an idea.

12-13 He called his mother on the telephone and said, "I'm sending you a package with a surprise inside. Be sure to open it right away."

14-15 The next day when the package arrived, his mother took off the ribbons and opened the box.

16-17 But there was only another box inside.

18-19 So she opened that box and found another box.

20-21 And opened that box and found another box.

22-23 And opened that box and found another box.

24-25 And when she opened that box...

26-27 Squirrel jumped out and gave her a kiss!

Storybox Props:

small squirrel
calendar
child's drawing
black tissue paper
birthday card
envelope with stamp
telephone
large squirrel
ribbon
5 boxes of decreasing size, wrapped with decorative paper