

The Effects of Differential Exposure to Stories on Second Language Discourse Skills of Pre-Primary Children

by

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Dedication

To all the children of the new South Africa, who face the challenges of language and learning in their multi-cultural society.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The primary objectives of this chapter are to identify the research problem, to review briefly the issues addressed in this study, to define the aims, objectives and research approach of the study, and to outline the structure of this dissertation.

1.2 Identifying the research problem

How do children learn a second language? What features of first language acquisition apply to second language acquisition? How can young children acquire this second language in a pre-school environment? What techniques can be employed in the mastery of a second language using existing teachers and resources?

These are some of the questions that have been asked by second language educators around the world. In South Africa, additional issues are of timely interest. With the advent of a new democracy and free education for all pupils, Minister of Education Sibusiso Bengu has estimated that schools might soon have to cater for two million new pupils in their first year of school [South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), 1996]. This requires progressive new ideas to handle the enormous increase in enrollment in an already burgeoning school population. One key concern for these new students is language. South Africa has 11 official languages -- Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, Pedi, Setswana, Siswati, Sotho, Tsonga, Venda, Xhosa, and Zulu. English is the dominant language of instruction (LOI). The majority of South Africa's students do not speak the LOI as their first language. The educational system has dealt with this problem in two ways. Some students are educated in their mother tongue initially. Within five years, the language of instruction changes, usually to English. Other students begin their education through a second language, usually English or Afrikaans. Because the LOI is most often English, acquiring fluency in

the language is very important, not simply as an end in itself (as a second language or L2) but as a means to an end (as the LOI for all the years of education to come).

The focus of this dissertation is the influence of storybook reading on children's second language acquisition. The reading of storybooks as a means of first language development has already been studied extensively in both home and school settings. To a lesser degree, educators have explored the use of storybooks as an aid in second language acquisition of older children. Rarely have studies investigated the use of storybooks read with younger second language learners.

The research discussed in this dissertation investigates a class of South African pre-primary children who begin the school year with limited or no English as a Second Language (ESL) skills in a school where English is the language of instruction. This study examines the effect of storybook reading, specifically interactive storybook reading, on the development of L2 English with a group of Grade 0 children.

In the following section, background literature on first and second language development will be summarized. A more detailed review can be found in Chapter Two.

1.3 Background to the research problem

Language acquisition is a complex phenomenon, whether the learner is acquiring a first or second language. First language learning has been studied in depth by researchers for many years. Larsen-Freeman (1991) argues that second language acquisition emerged as an identifiable research field only over the past 25 years. In the following sections, both first and second language acquisition will be discussed.

1.3.1 First language acquisition

From time eternal, families have succeeded in transmitting their native language to their young children. The rich learning environment of the home has provided the input necessary

for the infant to acquire its first language. Newborns begin their receptive language development at birth, when surrounding adults talk directly to the infant. Expressive language begins with the infant's unintelligible babbling, to which caregivers frequently offer positive feedback and sometimes meaningful dialogue. The infant is not expected to produce appropriate and meaningful responses for at least a year.

In his pivotal book, *The Foundations of Literacy*, Don Holdaway (1979:21) notes, "early language acquisition provides almost perfect exemplification of effective reinforcement contingencies operating in a manifestly successful learning system". Researchers have found that people speak to children in short, well-formed sentences, in exaggerated pitch, and with contextualized reference to the here-and-now (Hoff-Ginsburg, 1986). Labelling (Ninio, 1983), where parents name vocabulary items and begin a give-and-take dialogue with their child, is one of the first language "games". Parents and caregivers continue to expand and extend the lexical and syntactical features of their child's language through scaffolding (Wood et al., 1976). Repetition of formulaic phrases serves as a basis for language acquisition as well. These and other key features of this child-directed speech enable children to acquire their first language and are described in detail in Chapter Two.

In many of the studies on early language, storybook reading plays an important role in language development and emergent literacy in the home (Butler & Clay, 1987; Chomsky, 1972; DeBaryshe, 1993; Heath, 1982; Morrow, 1988; Ninio, 1983; Ninio & Bruner, 1978; Vivas, 1996; Wells, 1986). These joint book-reading sessions often occur in the laps of caring adults, sometimes referred to as "lapreading" time (Klesius & Griffith, 1996). The child receives personal one-on-one time learning new vocabulary with contextualized clues given by the pictures in books and through discussions with adults. In several studies, it was found that the parents' style of storybook reading and the use of interactive methods affect the child's literacy development (DeBaryshe, 1993; Haden et al., 1996; Heath, 1982; Snow, 1983; Wells, 1985; Whitehurst et al., 1988). Repetition also plays a key role in storybook reading in the home. Frequently, young children request repeated readings of their favorite stories; the book then provides a framework for discussion and for learning linguistic

structures and vocabulary, with some variation each time the book is read together (Ninio, 1983; Snow & Goldfield, 1983; Sulzby & Teale, 1991).

In a personal account, one mother described her children's experiences with storybook reading. In *The Braid of Literature: Children's Worlds of Reading*, Wolf and Heath (1992:133) documented the effect that storybook reading had on Wolf's two young daughters. They connected Wolf's personal experience of daily reading with her daughters with their conversations and responses to life. The authors noted that:

A young child listens to a story and for days and years after, meanings come wherever the child's life experience converges with multiple texts -- worlds in dialogue, in an active process of constructing and testing. The meanings are individual, rather than conforming to expert or single interpretation, for they connect to the social world of the child, reaching out to hold a conversation with her community. . . . And the patterns of understanding constantly shift and change to accommodate new insights and new needs to test rules of text, practice and belief formation.

Frank Smith (1982) has also written about the importance of reading together at home. He speaks of the parents' role in providing their child with a "well-stocked mind" -- a mind that is curious and active -- before the child starts school.

While storybook reading is a regular activity in some households, the practice of book reading in the home appears to differ in various socioeconomic (SES) and cross-cultural settings. Studies have shown that children in lower SES neighborhoods are read to less frequently than other children (Heath, 1982; Ninio & Bruner, 1978) and lower income mothers are less likely to engage in potentially instructional behavior during storytime (Bus & van IJzendoorn, 1995; Ninio, 1980). Children who are raised in lower SES homes suffer from disproportionately high rates of illiteracy and other forms of reading problems (Alexander & Entwisle, 1988, as cited in Valdez-Menchaca & Whitehurst, 1992). In the United States, lower SES communities are often comprised of limited-English-proficient children. One study (Ramirez et al., 1991, as cited in Krashen, 1995) found that the average number of books found in a limited-English-proficient home is 22, which include books for all members of the family, while the average middle-class U.S. child personally owns 50 to

100 books. The use of the public library in the U.S. by limited-English-proficient students is also very rare (Constantino, 1995). The majority of South Africans are also unfamiliar with public libraries because, while policies differed considerably from city to city, "most of the free public libraries were for whites only" until recently (Lor, 1996:240). Often lower SES parents have fewer years of education; some studies point to the "intergenerational transmission of illiteracy" (Bus et al., 1995; Kvalsig et al., 1991) and the need for joint parent-child reading, literacy excursions, and book ownership to serve as key determinants for a child's reading success.

1.3.2 Second language acquisition

Larsen-Freeman (1991) notes that the emergence of second language acquisition research became an identifiable field of study around 1970. Since that time, many researchers have investigated the features of successful second language learning.

In some instances, second language learning has been compared to first language acquisition. Noting the similarity to an infant's early first language experiences, Krashen (1982) points to the need for an environment with reduced anxiety and stress. He also proposes the "silent period" where a learner can focus on receptive language skills, listening to the surrounding language speakers, before speaking. Repetition is an important characteristic in the rehearsal and memorization of the new language, as was demonstrated in Ninio's findings with infants (1983). Boyle and Peregoy (1990) note the importance of "literacy scaffolds" where language and discourse patterns repeat themselves, providing predictability which serves as a model for a newly-acquired language pattern. In her studies, Wong-Fillmore (1991) found that social settings are important, especially when native speakers outnumber learners. In speech, much like the child-directed speech referred to in Section 1.3.1, Long (1983, as cited in Wong-Fillmore, 1991) noted that language produced by native speakers in social contacts with L2 learners is inclined to be structurally simpler, more redundant and repetitive.

Although it is possible to acquire a second language in the home (Dart, 1992), most second language learning begins at school. Language learning in the school setting will be discussed briefly in the following section and in more detail in Chapter Two.

1.3.3 The transition to school

At age six, the child shifts to a new learning environment – the school. For some children, the transition is easy, as they move from a learning environment at home to the new environment of school. For others, the transition is not easy and they experience difficulties with the new literacy tasks of early schooling. In several longitudinal studies, it was found that literacy difficulties slowly escalated as time in school progressed (Heath, 1982; Juel, 1988; Macdonald, 1990; Wells, 1986). Several reasons for this have been proposed. Holdaway (1979:17) suggests that the "language of schooling" has its own special sub-culture, "embodying attitudes and values – and even a special type of language". The special language is the "dialect of books", which favors the learner who has a familiarity with and love of books, while alienating children who are frightened unnecessarily by that dialect. Numerous studies have found a relationship between success in school and the use of books in the home (Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Feitelson et al., 1986; Heath, 1982; Holdaway, 1979; Vivas, 1996; Watson & Shapiro, 1988; Wells, 1986).

Another proposed reason for these difficulties lies in the comprehension of decontextualized print. Decontextualized print depends on lexical and syntactical features to convey meaning, rather than pictures and other interpretive cues employed by early reading books or prosodic and other paralinguistic cues used in oral discourse. Students unfamiliar with the "dialect of books" may be less adept at deciphering the book language. This decontextualization also requires the student to exhibit a higher order of thinking skills, moving from simple recall questions to "why" and "what if" analogies (Cochran-Smith, 1985; Heath, 1983; Watson & Shapiro, 1988). Juel (1988:438) notes that "children who come from homes in which language is used almost exclusively for direct (i.e. instrumental) communication may have difficulty with the decontextualized nature of communication in books and in school".

The skills required for comprehending decontextualized language are also observed in second language acquisition. In an attempt to define these skills, Cummins (1979) distinguished between two kinds of language ability: cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). CALP relates to higher level thinking skills, while BICS incorporates skills used in oral fluency. Later, Cummins (1981, as cited in Brown, 1987) modified his theory of CALP and BICS by including the need for, or lack of, contextualized clues. He noted that BICS employed dialogue in a context-rich environment to provide face-to-face communication with a focus on meaning. The school environment offered "context-reduced" communication, where school-oriented language required a focus on form and the use of decontextualized materials (Brown, 1987). Students who could master BICS did not necessarily succeed in the school environment and, in fact, required a higher level of language skills, like CALP, for school success.

1.3.4 The South African context

While South Africa has 11 official languages to represent its multi-faceted population, English is widely acknowledged as the lingua franca. English is the first language of less than 10 percent of the population (SAIRR, 1997), but parents view it as the key to future economic advancement for their children and express an interest in having their children learn English in school and use it as their language of instruction.

At present, there are two options available for students who use English as the LOI. Some South African schools begin children's education in their home language and switch to English as the language of instruction after five years in the classroom. Others begin English instruction as they enter school. While there do not appear to be any studies to compare the two language learning styles, difficulties seem to arise for many ESL learners as they progress through school. Low levels in academic performance demonstrate varying success in school. The 1994 high school pass rate for black students was 49% as opposed to 97% for whites, 93% for Indians, and 88% for coloreds (SAIRR, 1996). The 1995 statistic for blacks

dropped to 43% but numbers for other races were not published, aside from an overall all-race statistic of 55% pass.

In 1985, a study was conducted in South Africa by the Institute for Research into Language and the Arts to investigate the difficulties that black children were experiencing in the schools. Macdonald (1990) spearheaded the project and noted a variety of contributing factors. One of the key problems seemed to be the transition from English as a subject to English as the language of instruction. The shift from the language of everyday informal discussion to the context-embedded academic activities created major obstacles for the students. Macdonald noted the very useful distinction between BICS and CALP (the theory proposed by Cummins), stating that the major discrepancy between the two highlighted the differences between proficiency and academic achievement. As Linington and Stoll (1993:5) noted:

Macdonald's contentions have enormous ramifications for the teaching/learning situation in primary schools in South Africa; namely, if proficiency in BICS and CALP is to become an attainable reality, the initial focus should be at the primary school level where students are developing the social and cognitive skills needed for informal interaction and future academic success.

Certainly, in South Africa, many obstacles exist. In addition to the multiplicity of home languages, teachers often have limited education and experience. Seventeen percent of South Africa's primary teachers are without professional qualifications. In the former "independent" homelands, 28% of the primary school teachers are without formal teaching qualifications (Hartshorne, 1992). Often, particularly in rural areas, classroom materials are limited, with textbooks, paper, desks, and electricity in short supply or non-existent. At one rural site, Linington and Stoll (1993) noted that two teachers were responsible for 118 students with 47 desks, no electricity, and no running water. Another concern is the teacher's own knowledge of English. The majority of South Africa's teachers are second and third language speakers of English, even though they are teaching through the medium of English. Much like Elley and Mangubhai's study (1983) in the South Pacific, teachers offer less than fluent models of English for their students. Linington and Stoll (1993) found

some teachers model phrases for class repetition that are incorrect, i.e. "where do Precious live?" and "yes, she do". All of these factors hamper the progress of South African ESL students.

1.3.5 My personal experience

This writer's first-hand experiences lent support to the many theories and studies discussed previously. When I began to investigate my Master's research topic, my own twin sons were three years old and their language was expanding exponentially. In our household, we read storybooks daily. References to storybook language occurred often during the normal routine of a day. When we baked cookies, Jonathan always wanted to bake "the gingerbread man". When Nicholas was asked to blow out some candles, he said that he would "huff and puff and blow the house down". While we led a full life brimming with both interesting and mundane activities, the books that we read together created shared opportunities for connections in everyday life. At the same time, I was a volunteer in a predominantly black primary school in the Johannesburg area, and I was aware of the difficulties that these students faced in acquiring English. Yet my sons seemed to be absorbing their language easily. How could storybooks assist in second language acquisition? Were there special techniques that needed to be applied in the classroom? Could the beneficial effects of book reading on my sons' linguistic and cognitive development be replicated in the classroom?

This research attempts to answer these questions and make the connections between storybook reading and language development.

1.4 The research approach

In the previous sections, the research problems have been outlined in relation to the domains of psycholinguistics, reading, and the South African child. The upcoming sections will define the research approach, the aims, the objectives, and the research methods.

In this study, a "quasi-experimental design" has been utilized. Nunan (1992:41) notes that a "quasi-experiment" utilizes "both pre- and post-tests and experimental and control groups, but no random assignment of subjects". Because the subjects were in a pre-existing class at a primary school, the selection of subjects could not be totally random. While this design is quasi-experimental, it comes very close to a true experiment with matching being used together with a random component. Hypothesis-testing approaches have been designed in order to use statistical inference.

1.5 The research aims and objectives

The aims of this study are twofold. The first aim is to test the effects of storybook reading on the second language development of Grade 0 children. The second aim focuses on the effect of interactive reading of storybooks. To isolate specific aspects of the independent variables and determine their effect on second language development, two objectives have been set, as follows:

- (i) to perform a comparative linguistic analysis in order to determine whether the amount of exposure to stories has an effect on second language development.
- (ii) to perform a comparative linguistic analysis in order to determine whether interactive features of storybook reading have an effect on second language development.

These objectives provide direction for the research project.

1.6 The research method

At an inner-city private school comprised mainly of township children, a class of 16 Grade 0 children was selected for the 36-session intervention. During each session, one interactive storybook reading was performed for the whole class. Additional intervention was then applied. The 16 children were divided into three groups. One group (the "Control Group") received only the all-class story using the method of interactive reading. Another group (the

“Interactive Reading Group”) received the all-class story plus three additional stories with interactive reading during each session. The third group (the “Reading Only Group”) received the all-class story plus three additional stories without interactive reading. Details on the methodology have been set out in Section 3.2.

1.7 Hypotheses

There are three general hypotheses and each is tested in terms of three measures: noun diversity, number of correctly used verbs, and number of clauses. The first general hypothesis is a three-way hypothesis, comparing all three experimental groups. The second and third general hypotheses are two-way hypotheses to determine which experimental group is most successful in its treatment using gain score comparisons. The gain scores refer to the differences between pre- and posttest results within each group and are then compared between groups.

H1 There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of discourse development skills.

This hypothesis predicts that the increased exposure to reading and the use of an interactive style will demonstrate differences between these groups for the young children's English discourse skills. There are two underlying assumptions for this hypothesis. First, that additional reading will improve English skills and will be shown by the significant improvements of the Reading Only Group and the Interactive Reading Group. Second, that children who receive an interactive intervention, with emphasis on discussion, explanation, and use of realia, will improve their English skills to a greater degree, as demonstrated by the Interactive Reading Group. The Control Group is expected to improve only marginally, since it will receive only limited exposure to storybook reading. Although several studies have indicated increased vocabulary acquisition when stories are read to students, Elley (1989:186) noted that while language acquisition from story reading improves, "more research is needed to help determine which characteristics of stories are critical in

contributing to children's learning". Martinez and Teale (1993) called for an examination of storybook reading styles and their contributions to language and literacy development.

In order to compare the three groups in this small, quasi-experimental study, a non-parametric test, Kruskal-Wallis, will be run. This statistical test will show any differences between the three groups, although it will not define which treatment is best. A two-group comparison will be needed to examine any patterns revealed by the Kruskal-Wallis test and to compare with other similar studies' results. This study begins with a limited number of two-way hypotheses so as not to spawn large numbers of possible hypotheses.

Initially, the Reading Only Group and the Control Group will be compared in order to manipulate the amount of reading exposure variable. This will determine whether increased exposure to reading has an effect on discourse development. The following hypothesis helps to define the amount of reading exposure variable:

H2 There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of discourse development measures.

This hypothesis assumes that increased exposure to stories has an effect on the three areas of discourse development: noun diversity, verb usage, and number of clauses. The Reading Only Group received 108 non-interactive stories during the intervention while the Control Group was employed in craft or free play time.

Next, tests will compare the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in order to isolate the style of reading variable, while the amount of exposure will remain a constant.

H3 There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of the discourse development measures.

The assumptions underlying this hypothesis are that students who receive interactive reading will increase their language skills through increased participation with the teacher and peers because of discussion, explanations, and the use of realia. As Ninio (1983) found, the production, comprehension, and imitation of labels represented alternative forms of rehearsal, with imitation employed for the less well-learned but already comprehended words.

As an overall prediction, this researcher hypothesized that the Interactive Reading Group would show the greatest gains in noun diversity, correct verb usage, and number of clauses. The Reading Only Group was expected to improve performances in all three categories as well but not with the same degree of success as Interactive Reading Group. The Control Group was expected to make a small gain, commensurate with 12 weeks of additional schooling, but not equal to the successes of the experimental groups.

1.7.1 Additional benefits

While the quantitative aspects of this research are of utmost importance, two other qualitative aspects also play an integral part. Because many of the children came from lower socioeconomic surroundings, their exposure to storybooks was limited. The school did not have a library and there were no books in the classroom for student use. The teacher read one different storybook each day to the class. Therefore, two other goals were established for this study:

- to note any change in the teacher's and students' attitude toward books;
- to observe any changes in the teacher's use of books in the classroom.

It was important to observe any qualitative changes in the classroom and what effect the influence of reading had on the teacher and the students.

1.8 Structure of dissertation

In this chapter, the research problem was identified, the background of the issues were addressed, and the aims and objectives of the study were set out in some detail. The remainder of the dissertation is structured in the following way.

In **Chapter Two**, a brief overview of the literature on first and second language acquisition is given. Because reading is a key feature of this study, this topic is reviewed in greater depth, in response to its contribution to the development of the child – affectively, cognitively, linguistically and through literacy development. The role of interactive reading is investigated as well.

In **Chapter Three**, the research method is explained and the subjects, materials, procedures and analysis are discussed.

Chapter Four discusses the statistical analysis and the results in terms of the inferential statistical aspects of the hypotheses.

Chapter Five completes the study by providing a review of its contributions and by noting the implications that follow from these findings for teachers in a multi-cultural society.

Chapter Two

Literature Review of the Research Problem

2.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter is to review the literature on reading and its effects on first and second language acquisition, specifically focussing on the effects of reading on affective, cognitive, linguistic, and literacy variables. Through this review, specific research gaps will be identified and this chapter will show how the present study addresses these gaps.

Many studies have focussed on the benefits of reading, with most of the research fitting into two categories: reading at home and reading in school. These two areas will be discussed first, followed by a discussion on interactive reading. Thereafter, the effect of reading on second language learning will be incorporated.

2.2 Reading at home

In today's environment, book stores offer a wide range of children's literature. This has not always been the case, however. Literature written specifically for children was very limited until the late 19th Century. This form of literature gradually became more accepted during the early 20th Century as more and more parents read to their children, both as an educational experience and as a shared time together. Eventually, educationalists began to study and write about the benefits of reading to children.

Reading at home involves parents or caregivers reading with children from birth to age six. In all the literature that discusses reading in the home, various terms are used to describe the time spent together with storybooks. Vygotsky (1978) wrote of "social interaction" between

an adult and a child, noting that the child acquires literacy through conversations. The "shared book experience" was a term coined by Holdaway (1979). Wells (1985) referred to this time as a "shared world", while others have preferred the term "lapreading" (Klesius & Griffith, 1996).

Several language development features are employed by parents during reading. Three features -- **labelling**, **scaffolding**, and **repetition** -- play a key role in early language learning. Parents often use **labelling** or specific vocabulary to identify common nouns in a child's environment. Ninio and Bruner (1978) studied a mother and child during storybook reading where over 75% of the daily labelling occurred. They found that the practice of labelling introduced early dialogue skills through give-and-take, with the parent asking "what's that?" to which the child responds "that's a (label)". This turn-taking was often followed by positive feedback. Ninio (1983:450) furthered the study of labelling with a group of 20 Israeli mother-infant dyads and found that production, comprehension, and imitation of labels represented alternative forms of rehearsal, with imitation employed for the less well-learned but already comprehended words. Ninio found that "imitation occurs literally on the threshold of acquisition because, following imitation, the success in producing and comprehending the same items approaches the 70% level".

The term **scaffolding** was also introduced into the study of language learning in the late seventies. Wood et al. (1976) used "scaffolding" to refer to the methods by which adults elaborate and expand upon children's early language attempts. For example, a child might point to a truck and say "look, truck" to which the mother responds "yes, it's a red truck", thereby offering a linguistic model for the child to follow in future conversational exchanges. Sulzby and Teale (1991) point out that scaffolding is not static but dynamic and it encourages a give-and-take on the part of the parent and child, based on the child's linguistic knowledge at that specific time period. As the above studies suggest, young children require the assistance of a caregiver that can consistently and intuitively help in escalating their language competency.

Snow and Goldfield (1983:567) studied mothers with their young children and noted that:

...the existence of a strategy like 'identify a situation, remember what is said in it, say that yourself the next time the situation recurs' has implications for the nature of the optimal language-learning situation.

According to Snow and Goldfield, situations which offer **repetition** of linguistic utterances and that are predictable permit the language practice so necessary to early language learners. Formulaic speech, or ready-made chunks of speech, enable the early learner to memorize patterns of speech. For example, the routine completion of a meal may evoke "all gone" from a child; the recurrent request of a child to be picked up by an adult with "up" expands to "pick me up, please" as the child uses language in his daily negotiations. Hoff-Ginsburg (1986) found that one of the three significant predictors of young children's syntactic growth is the mother's self-repetitions, most of which are usually partial or modified repetitions. The thesis that vocabulary acquisition requires repetitive hearing of words has been supported by a study which tested vocabulary growth from watching television. This study found that "a prime candidate for rapid on-line processing of words is the number of repetitions coupled with clear, although not exaggerated, depictions of putative meanings" (Rice & Woodsmall, 1988:426).

All of these language development features -- labelling, scaffolding, and repetition -- play a key role in the child's early language acquisition. These features can also be instrumental in promoting the child's enjoyment of books and enhancing the time spent with adults in the process of hearing stories. The influence of these three development features will be discussed in the next section with regard to the important contributions that reading makes to inspiring a curious and inquisitive child.

2.2.1 Reading effects on the under-six child

There are four aspects of the child's life that benefit from shared book reading. In the following subsections, these areas -- affective, cognitive, linguistic, and literacy development -- will be discussed.

2.2.1.1 Affective development

In the beginning, reading is a social activity. The child and an adult sit together and discuss a storybook, either employing labelling techniques, reading the book verbatim or summarizing the book through the use of scaffolding techniques which enable the child to understand the book. In some families, these "lapreading" sessions begin before the child can walk or talk. The close proximity to an attentive adult often generates warmth and positive feelings about storytime. As Holdaway (1979:40) noted,

there is a feeling of security and special worth arising from the quality of the attention being received. Thus, the child develops strongly positive associations with the flow of story language and with the physical characteristics of the books.

Bus and van IJzendoorn (1995) found that children who felt secure in their mother-child attachment were less distracted during storybook reading together and that their mothers had to discipline them less often than children who felt insecure. This study, completed in the Netherlands where only a small percentage of mothers work outside the home full-time, noted that a safe and secure environment offered children the opportunity to learn and explore books due to the added confidence of their mother-child bond.

As the child grows through the genre of children's storybooks, another positive effect from this shared reading world occurs: the world of books and all its various avenues is unlocked for the child. As Peters (1993:5) points out, children who are read to are "consciously assimilating and accommodating literacy information" while gaining positive attitudes about reading. Several researchers noted a new level of enthusiasm for books and reading amongst children (and in many studies amongst teachers and parents too) after intervention programs (Carger, 1993; Dickinson & Smith, 1994; Elley, 1991; Feitelson et al., 1993; Feitelson et al., 1986; Klesius & Griffith, 1996). As Throne (1988:10) notes,

Being read to gives children an enjoyable, satisfying experience with literature and fosters the desire to read as well as the ability. When we fill our classrooms with books, share our enthusiasm for books, and read aloud

every day, we generate positive attitudes toward reading. Children extend their knowledge of books and the world when they reflect upon and integrate their own experiences and feelings with those found in books.

The positive effects of storybook reading can influence the child throughout his life.

2.2.1.2 Cognitive development

Reading often fosters a child's cognitive development by offering language to express his thoughts and new opportunities to communicate what he/she knows and thinks. Initially in a child's life, experiences of the world are limited. Storybooks can often broaden a child's experience of the world and provide a wide variety of discussion topics for caregivers. In his ethnographic study of 32 children, Wells (1985:245) described one little boy's storybook experience in this way:

As a result of the stories that are read to him, Gerald's world stretches beyond the present actuality into the world of imaginary characters whose actions and feelings he is invited to try to understand in terms of his own experience. Stories read are drawn upon as a means of making sense of the objects, people, and events in his day-to-day environment.

Several studies (Snow et al., 1991; Sorsby & Martlew, 1991; Waterland, 1988) noted that books require certain representational skills that are strongly influenced by the child's experiences. The various personal experiences are woven together with literature to form a base for the child's knowledge of the world.

In a seven-year study of her own children, Wolf (Wolf & Heath, 1992:185) read with her two young daughters and recorded all the book-reading episodes. She documented all the references made to stories and their re-enactments employed by the girls during their daily lives. The authors noted:

Such a comprehensive record provides important substantiating data for several theories that call our attention to the fact that any text, on the page or in the head, is not a single text. Instead, each text includes within it multiple

texts -- the words and ideas of other occasions, other persons, and other authors.

A young child's knowledge of the world around him is enhanced through storybooks and the opportunity to explore new environments.

Another cognitive advantage of storybook exposure is the introduction to written language. As Perera (1984) points out, written and spoken language have different registers. Through shared reading, parents use scaffolding and repetition techniques to introduce written language to their children. Sulzby (1985:460) noted that:

Young children who are read to before formal schooling are ushered into an understanding of the relationships between oral and written language within a social context in which written language is used in hybridized fashion at first and then gradually takes on its more conventional nature. This hybridized form is evident particularly in parent-child storybook interactions in which characteristics of oral language enter into the parents' rendering of the 'written text'.

This "hybridized" form allows parents to move from the context-embedded talk of everyday life to the more decontextualized form of written language. Cochran-Smith (1985:30) found that children with early storybook reading experiences brought to school a knowledge of "how to talk like readers, or how to use oral language to interpret decontextualized written language". Snow (1983) argues that the four communicative skills -- reading, writing, speaking and listening -- are moved along from the physical context to decontextualization, or the need to infer the context from previous knowledge and/or experience. Much like a child who learns to communicate over the telephone using words alone, this same child moves from illustrated storybooks to text-laden books in order to absorb the meaning of written language. Several studies (Cochran-Smith, 1985; Heath, 1982; Holdaway, 1979; Snow, 1983; Sulzby, 1985; Watson & Shapiro, 1988; Wells, 1985, 1986) identify the acquisition of decontextualization skills learned at home with later school success which will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.3.1.2.

The use of storybook reading in the home enhances the child's cognitive skills and prepares him/her for later schooling.

2.2.1.3 Linguistic development

The third area of a child's life that benefits from shared book reading is linguistic development. Several aspects of first language acquisition are supported through parental reading with children in the home. For example, vocabulary acquisition and syntactic structures are strengthened through this process (Heath, 1982; Ninio, 1983; Snow & Goldfield, 1983; Sulzby & Teale, 1991; Valdez-Menchaca & Whitehurst, 1992). Eller et al. (1988) found that five- and six-year-old children learned new vocabulary in stages through written contexts. Wells (1985) wrote of the efficacy of parental book reading for facilitating syntactic and semantic development and the relationships between these and achievement at school in later years; his study also noted that the age of onset of reading influenced a child's later success in school.

Specific home-based interventions have been studied by several researchers. One program (Whitehurst et al., 1988) instructed parents of two-year-olds to optimize discussion during book reading using open-ended questions, function/attribute questions, and expansions. These features were called "dialogic reading" in later publications. They resulted in significantly higher posttest scores on expressive language for the experimental group of children; the improvements in scores -- measured by mean length of utterance, a higher frequency of phrases, and a lower frequency of single words -- were still evident on a retest nine months later. The study was replicated in a Mexican daycare center with two-year-old Spanish-speaking children from low-income backgrounds (Valdez-Menchaca & Whitehurst, 1992). The experimental group used dialogic reading and the control group received individual arts and crafts instruction. Both were taught by the same teacher. The experimental group scored higher on standardized language tests. The study demonstrated that picture book activities could be one of the key contributors to language gains for young children.

Chomsky's (1972) study showed a strong correlation between the exposure to more complex language available from reading and an increased knowledge of language. Another study (DeBaryshe, 1993) determined that children whose mothers read to them before age two had earlier receptive language skills.

Repetition by adults and rehearsal by children seem to play a big role in a child's language acquisition. The research by Ninio (1983), referred to earlier in this section, has shown that production, comprehension, and imitation all represent alternative forms of rehearsal. According to Ninio, parents intuitively provide labels for the pictures only when they feel that the children do not know the word. Morrow (1988) found that repeated reading of books supported the child's familiarity with the story, the vocabulary, and the illustrations. This valuable strategy aided in both language and literacy development, as noted earlier in this section. As many parents will attest, re-reading favorite stories is a common request by young children.

2.2.1.4 Literacy development

Literacy at an early age is often referred to as emergent literacy, or "the reading and writing behaviors that precede and develop into conventional literacy" (Sulzby & Teale, 1991:728). Many behaviors are incorporated into literacy, among them holding a book properly, following the text from left to right, knowing how/which way to turn the pages, recognizing some letters or words which allows for early decoding skills, and sometimes adding dialogue to accompany illustrations. The need to devote attention to a story for short periods of time is also a valuable literacy skill, as noted in many studies (Bus & van IJzendoorn, 1995; Heath, 1982; Whitehurst et al., 1992). Cochran-Smith (1985) observed pre-school teachers telling the children how to "look like readers", i.e. no talking, sitting still, and where and how to attend to the book. Through attention to books, young children's ability to focus on specific activities can expand as they mature into school-age.

Literacy development also requires the child to extrapolate from his or her own perspective. As Throne (1988:11) noted, hearing and discussing stories can move the children beyond

their personal experiences and are important to language and literacy development. These book-reading experiences are similar to the world experiences discussed in cognitive development (refer to Section 2.2.1.2).

Another aspect of a child's literacy development encompasses the understanding and production of stories. At this early age, children are becoming story-makers. Over the last 20 years, the study of story schemata, or the students' knowledge of story structure, has been investigated. As children become familiar with the language of literature, they develop a familiarity with stories that have a "beginning, middle, and an end" (Stein & Glenn, 1979). Pre-school children are generally unable to "sustain a unified story line across their narratives" (Berman, 1988:487) but some children who are read to frequently begin to offer a bare-bones story structure as early as five-years-old (Leondar, 1977). Fox (1993) noted even more elaborate storytelling skills with four- and five-year-old children when those subjects were allowed to tell their stories at their leisure and without specific guidelines.

Another feature of literacy growth is written language registers. Written and literary language are rarely employed in day-to-day spoken communication, but can be found in some young children who have been read to often. Features of adult speech that are closer to written language, such as lectures and newscasts, have been noted by Fox (1993), when she recorded the oral storytelling of five pre-schoolers. These children demonstrated the more complex rules of narrative production before they could read or write. All of the children had experienced extensive storybook reading from a very early age. Another study (Dart, 1992) analyzed the language development of a bilingual French/English two-year-old child who enjoyed extensive storybook reading with her parents. The study found that certain features of language could be learned by even very young children from written sources, and that the child's ability to discriminate between oral and literate discourse strategies was already language- and culture-specific by the early age of two.

Vygotsky (1978) believed that children needed to move from interaction with their surroundings toward the non-interactive forms of written language. Sulzby (1985:462) suggests that this Vygotskyian scheme of abstraction which moves from:

real-life activity, to gestures, to drawing, to written language is expanded to include oral language in the environment of children's experiences in being read to from storybooks.

Familiarity with books and their language can contribute to a child's preparedness for school.

2.2.2 Mothers' reading styles in the home and the effect on their child

Several studies have focussed on the reading styles of the child's caregiver, most often the mother. Wells (1985) noted that, during reading, some mothers asked few questions and expected only simple recall responses. Other mothers encouraged discussion and prediction. DeBaryshe (1993:459) expressed a belief that "only those parents who frequently question their child and encourage their child to assist in storytelling help their child master more complex expressive skills". Through her ten-year ethnographic study, Heath (1982) did the most thorough job of investigating the role of the adult's style, especially highlighting the role of the bedtime story in some households. She found that three different styles were used: "Maintown", where books were used for information-gathering and tied to personal experiences, with "what" explanations and "why" and "what if" discussions utilized; "Roadville", where books were used for information-gathering but did not extend to daily life, with "what" explanations utilized; and "Trackton", where books were very limited and personal involvement with oral stories was encouraged. Language development for pre-school children was very similar between the three groups but differences began to surface when school began at age six. More detail about this study is included in Section 2.3.1.2.

Two studies have investigated variations in mothers' styles in relation to the acquisition of early literacy (Haden et al., 1996; Snow, 1983). Both studies found that different maternal book-reading styles contributed to different aspects of literacy development, e.g. some styles are more beneficial to high level/high-demand comments of predictions, inferences, and decontextualized information; other styles are more sensitive to children's changing knowledge base and capabilities.

2.2.3 Reading versus other activities: comparing the effects

Some researchers have contrasted the influence of books on language development with children's other play activities. Sorsby and Martlew (1991:390) compared mother-child conversations while the children were playing with modelling clay and while they were looking at picture-books. They found a higher level of abstraction during reading activities. The reading task required the child "to go beyond what was perceptually available". One study (Fox, 1983) measured the source of content of two pre-school storytellers. Of the 105 monologues recorded by "Jack and Jill", books were identified as the source of content for 60% of their stories. The other three sources -- autobiographical, media, and immediate surroundings -- had minimal effect on the storytelling themes of the children.

Snow and Goldfield (1983:554) also identified storybook reading as more valuable to language learning than other activities. They commented:

Because the adult's potential utterances are greatly constrained by the content of the book, even if the adult is not reading the text but is commenting on the pictures, the adult utterances will be predictable and recurrent. Although many activities in a child's life other than book-reading may be routinized, few provide such ideal examples of well-defined, frequently repeated, and highly structured routines.

The repetition often found in children's stories and the routines established by parents offers the structure necessary for language and literacy development.

2.3 Reading in school

The transition from home to school occurs at age five or six. Some children attend school at an earlier age but the pre-school format usually involves play activities. Serious attempts to teach reading and writing are generally delayed until the first full year of school when the child is more prepared neurophysiologically. Some educators, including Piaget (1962), claim that teachers can only arrange for learning but cannot teach. Smith (1982:5) theorized that "children cannot be taught to read" but that a teacher's task is to make it possible for the

for the students to learn to read. Vygotsky's theory (1978:86) of the "zone of proximal development" attempts to support scaffolding, previously discussed in Section 2.2, by focussing on:

the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

Therefore, adult guidance builds on the already existing framework of known information and the child can be directed to a higher level of attainment by a caring adult or capable peer.

Many studies have pointed to the influence of reading at home as a key to later academic success (Cochran-Smith, 1985; Heath, 1982,1983; Sulzby, 1985; Valdez-Menchaca & Whitehurst, 1992; Waterland, 1988; Wells, 1985, 1986). They note that children who receive "lapreading" before their entry in school often have a headstart over the children who have not experienced book-reading in the home.

2.3.1 Reading effects on school-age children

This section is arranged in the same format as Section 2.2, whereby the effects of reading within the school environment on children's affective, cognitive, language and literacy development are investigated.

2.3.1.1 Affective development

The environment of the classroom is often very different from the environment found in the home, because of the surroundings and the number of students. For some children, the home is a warm and nurturing environment with individual attention provided. For others, the informal and sometimes neglectful environment of home is now transformed into a regulated school environment. Some teachers attempt to recreate the intimate reading environment of home (Waterland, 1988) and establish a non-threatening classroom to

provide all students with small group "lapreading" time and a reading partnership with the teacher referred to as the "apprenticeship approach". The individual attention provides a strong grounding for the new students and gives them added self-confidence in their early schooling years.

One of the earliest reading experiments studying the influences of reading at school attempted to recreate lapreading in the larger classroom setting. It began in New Zealand (Holdaway, 1979) with students from poor and migrant families. These children were not succeeding with reading and writing skills and the author set out to change the process. A reading program was established where the teacher read several large storybooks using prediction tasks, explanation of vocabulary, and discussion questions. The same books were read often, with follow-up activities that included role-playing, art work, and writing activities. This "shared book method" was similar to lapreading but done within a large group and the students blossomed. The success of this program led to a grass-roots effort in many Western countries to introduce the joys of reading and the curiosity of learning to all students.

A recent study purported to have discovered a "magic secret" in the affective development with six- and seven-year-olds. While investigating interactive reading aloud with Israeli first graders, Rosenhouse et al. (1997:180) divided them into three experimental groups -- listening to stories by different authors, listening to stories by one author, and listening to installments of series stories written by one author. All the experimental groups found increases in decoding, reading comprehension, and picture storytelling over the control group. Among the three various treatments, reading by teachers from a series of stories in installments was shown to have the greatest effect on reading for pleasure and on the number of books purchased later by the students for leisure reading. It appears that these first graders were initiated into a process which stimulated the young readers to reread these books. This process enabled the readers to internalize the language patterns common in written language and enjoy the activity of reading when and where they chose.

2.3.1.2 Cognitive development

Reading helps to build up background knowledge which is needed for success in the formal learning context of school. A general knowledge of the world and its surroundings is even more important to young students than it is to young children. Klesius and Griffith (1996) suggest that interactive reading in early education classrooms can be used to build language and literacy understanding and the basic world knowledge that is necessary for successful acquisition of reading and writing. Waterland (1988:28) describes the need for "experience of the world to make sense of what the children read". Snow et al. (1991) call for more reading and writing in the classroom integrated with field trips to advance general knowledge and vocabulary growth of lower socioeconomic status (SES) students.

Other studies have also pointed to the need for school-age children to be exposed to decontextualized language (refer to Section 2.2.1.2). As Holdaway (1979:17) noted, the special language of school was identified as the "dialect of books". Heath (1982, 1983) found that the three different home experiences with books affected the students' success in school (refer to Section 2.2.2). Initially, "Maintown" and "Roadville" children succeeded in school with their knowledge of early literacy and book language. After a few years, the use of "why" questions and prediction skills, employed by "Maintown" adults, resulted in a higher level of cognitive skills for their children. By the time these children enter school, "they have had years of practice in interaction situations that are the heart of reading -- both learning to read and reading to learn in school" (Heath, 1982:56). "Roadville" children, while familiar with books, did not employ the higher order thinking skills attributed to their counterparts and did not succeed in their later schooling years. "Trackton" children, unfamiliar with book language, were not rewarded for their highly-developed narrative skills until later grades in school and displayed neither a knowledge of book language nor the higher level cognitive skills. Cochran-Smith (1985:25) cited "language strategies needed by the children in order to interpret decontextualized print" so that these young students could "talk like readers". Watson and Shapiro (1988:407) noted that "there is a relation between parent-child use of decontextualized language and the child's subsequent school-related skills".

In an interesting study with kindergarten children in a diglossic situation, Feitelson et al. (1993) worked with Arab students who spoke colloquial Arabic dialects but had little or no knowledge of classical or literary Arabic (FusHa), the language of schooling. By getting teachers to read translations of familiar stories in FusHa, the early storybook reading program introduced the students to the language of books and helped them make the transition to the diglossic school environment more readily. Students in this program outperformed their peers in listening comprehension tests and were able to perceive causal connections between story events more easily. Due to the children's new-found enthusiasm for books, parents began to buy books as presents for their children.

Wolf and Heath (1992:84) point out that children's literature establishes a foundation for what children will learn:

But preparing to know what to do in all possible situations that may arise seems an impossibility if we think only of direct practice; therefore, we must learn to draw from our experiences a store of categories, skills, behaviors, and attitudes that enables us to predict how these might apply in future scenarios. The essence of children's literature is its enabling of prediction.

As the above studies substantiate, children who arrive at school with a knowledge of the written language are more prepared to understand the "language of school".

2.3.1.3 Linguistic development

The effects of storybook reading on linguistic development has been mentioned throughout this and the previous chapter. In this section, additional studies will be discussed that advocate reading as a developer of language in the school setting, through vocabulary development, syntactic growth, and the development of discourse features.

Numerous studies support the theory that reading serves as a means of acquiring vocabulary and semantic development. In the United States, Eller et al. (1988) documented five- and six-year-old children acquiring lexical knowledge from incidental exposure through written contexts. On the basis of their findings, the authors suggested that children should have

exposure to a wide variety of written language experiences for vocabulary development. In Israel, Feitelson et al. (1986) studied lower-SES Hebrew first graders who had little exposure to reading at home. The students received an additional 20 minutes a day of reading at school over a six-month period. They enjoyed significantly better results on comprehension and active use of language over their counterparts who participated in other learning activities during the same class time. In New Zealand, two studies (Elley, 1989) were established to measure the effect of oral storybook reading and re-reading on vocabulary acquisition. Elley found that the additional explanations by teachers of unknown words more than doubled vocabulary gains. This result was as pronounced with students who began with less vocabulary knowledge as with the students with greater vocabulary knowledge. Both studies suggested several additional identifiable features that accounted for the ease with which children learned specific words, including: the frequency of occurrence of the word in the story; the helpfulness of the context; and the frequency of occurrence of the word in pictorial representation.

The Matthew Effect in reading, identified by Stanovich (1986), focuses on the gap between good and poor readers in school. As the students progress through school, the gap expands. This phenomenon is named thus because of the Bible passage in the New Testament, Matthew 25:29, which states "for unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance: but from him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath". Stanovich argued that if reading is a major vocabulary-building tool (as noted in Section 2.2.1.3) and that if vocabulary knowledge facilitates reading comprehension, the two patterns work reciprocally. Therefore, he explained, the "very children who are reading well and who have good vocabularies will read more, learn more word meanings and hence read even better" (1986:381). He noted that "the rich get richer" while children with inadequate vocabularies read less which further inhibits educational achievement, thus beginning a self-perpetuating downward spiral.

Another study (Juel, 1988) found that first graders who performed at the bottom of the class in reading skills remained in that position throughout the first four years of school. The good

readers in Juel's study read considerably more than the poor readers both in and out of school, supporting the Matthew Effect.

The effects of reading on syntactic growth, the second area of language development, may be more difficult to measure but are equally as influential. Fox (1993) analyzed the oral storytelling of five children, ages four to six, who had a similar background of extensive storybook experience. She discovered that the grammatical structure of the children's language was more complex and advanced, noting that early interaction with literature can have enormous linguistic consequences. Often the repetitive reading of storybooks provides the tools necessary to influence linguistic development. Clay (1991:264) found that hearing a book read aloud for a second time "introduced new language forms to the ear making them a little easier to listen to next time".

The third area of linguistic development deals with discourse factors, such as speech acts of description, question, interpretation, and text structure. Trachtenburg and Ferruggia (1989) successfully used repeated readings of storybooks in their first grade class to teach lower ability beginning readers. The use of repetition aided prediction and anticipation of the storyline and the vocabulary. As Morrow (1988) noted, repeated reading is a technique that is used infrequently or never in most schools. In her study with pre-school children, she compared the verbal reactions of students who listened to varying stories with students who heard repeated readings of three stories. The author found that the repeated-story group scored higher in interpretive responses and focussed more on print and story structure. This method was most effective with lower ability children.

Repetition contributed in other areas as well. Two studies in the mid-1980's found that after subsequent readings of the same text, children's comments and questions increased (Martinez & Roser, 1985) and they discussed more aspects of the text and in greater depth (Snow & Goldfield, 1983).

Familiarity with storybooks and texts offer many opportunities for linguistic development. They also offer a chance for simple memorization. Just as the young child learns formulaic

speech (refer to Section 2.2), they also memorize favorite books. Holdaway (1979) commented that the reading-like behavior of children results from memorization of familiar texts. He referred to that technique as "memory for text". Sulzby (1985:459) found the same "reading" skill with a kindergartner who claimed she could "read most of the pages without even having the book with me". The use of repetition contributed to the "reading" ability and confidence of the child. The practice of repetitive reading of favorite books also supports the child's knowledge of written language (Smith, 1982).

In conjunction with repetition, the selection of "predictable" books was suggested by several researchers (Hough et al., 1986; Routman, 1988). Predictable books are those which have a pattern, refrain, or predictable sequence in their text; this assists students with acquiring patterns of language and assists in memorization. This method supports findings in the "whole language" movement in many countries. A new reader is encouraged to acquire literacy naturally without specific instruction in linguistic features. Several educationalists (Dahl & Freepon, 1995; Elley, 1991; Goodman, 1982; Raines & Canady, 1990; Smith, 1982) recommend a content-rich environment whereby "language is naturally and functionally learned...when students are engaged with each other in compelling and intellectually stimulating content areas" (Lim & Watson, 1993:384).

2.3.1.4 Literacy development

Learning to read and write are the primary missions of early schooling. Holdaway (1979) described a methodical approach to literacy through the discovery of a text, the exploration through re-reading and enactment, and the movement to independent experience and expression. The familiarity of a book is required to attain this level of understanding.

Heath's (1982,1983) ethnographic study of three United States communities has been outlined in previous sections of this dissertation. Another ethnographic study, one which was undertaken in the United Kingdom, highlights the need for reading in the transition from home to school language and literacy attainment. Wells (1986) launched a ten-year investigation into the relationship between home and school uses of language for 32 British

children. The children began in the study at 15 months of age and were fitted with timed audio tape-recorders to record their daily home activities. The children were tested for language development at ages two and three, knowledge of literacy at age five, oral language at age five and ten, and reading skill at age seven and ten. After the final results were analyzed, Wells determined that the differences in the children's abilities were due to the quantity and quality of their conversational experiences at home and the amount of time spent listening to storybooks. One child, Rosie, suffered a complete absence of stories in her pre-school years; of the 32 children, she began the study at age two with slightly above average oral skills and completed the testing at age ten in remedial classes for reading and writing. Wells (1986:145) noted that "children who come to school knowing little about literacy frequently have difficulty in learning to read and write", and that this problem "leads them to lose confidence in their ability to learn". Wells prescribed "the experience of books and the pleasure that comes from being read to" as the solution for children entering school with limited lapreading experiences.

Dahl and Freepon (1995) have noted that the critical event in the early years of schooling may be acquiring the disposition for learning. Children who are introduced and "hooked on" reading and writing early in school appear to strengthen these skills as they progress through their school years.

The understanding and use of story schemata (discussed in Section 2.2.1.4) is also important in the classroom. Based on their exposure to and discussion of stories and books, school-age children show steady development toward a familiarity with story schemata and written language. Rosenhouse et al.(1997) found that interactive reading aloud to first graders increased decoding, reading comprehension, and storytelling skills with conventional story beginnings (e.g. "once upon a time" or "one day...") and story codas (e.g. "finally" or "and that's the end of the story").

Students who are comfortable with "book language" and understand that stories have a beginning, a middle, and an end can participate fully with what schools have to offer in the early years of schooling.

2.3.2 Teachers' reading styles and their effect on students

Just as a mother's style of reading has an effect on her child, so can a teacher's style influence the students' language and literacy development. Dickinson and Smith (1994) investigated the effects of identifiable patterns of teacher-child interaction during book reading in school and their impact on children's language and literacy development one year later. The researchers analyzed 25 teachers reading books to classes of 15 four-year-olds. Each session was coded for both teacher's and children's utterances to determine type and timing of utterance. The analysis found three styles of book-reading in the classes. These three styles are identified below, together with a list of the features that characterize each style.

Co-Constructive Approach:

- high amount of talk by both children and teachers during the book reading;
- talk of an analytic nature prompted by teachers;
- extensive clarification which extended and amplified comments;
- little talk before and after the reading;

Didactic-Interactional Approach:

- limited talk before, during and after book reading;
- teacher-child interaction used immediate recall or talk organization (chiming a repeated phrase or answering simple recall questions);
- often used by teachers concerned with discipline concerns;

Performance-Oriented Approach:

- more talk before and after book reading, while talk during reading was analytical in nature;
- extended introductions of books were used to include discussion of characters, predictions, personal connections, and vocabulary to help child analyze;
- some teachers concluded with follow-up discussion to elicit children's reactions and experiences;

- teachers using this style showed no skill for reading in an expressive fashion but treated story-time as a special event.

The final results showed that the use of child-involved analytical talk, found in the Co-Constructive and Performance-Oriented classrooms, supported vocabulary development. Additionally, the study suggests that talk before and after reading may be beneficial, with the follow-up discussion being most helpful. A similar study by Martinez and Teale (1993) identified the three approaches listed above as well as other slightly varied styles. They surmised that teachers with different storybook reading styles may move their students along different paths in literacy development, such as how children respond to books and how the teacher affects the children's literacy development.

2.4 Interaction and interactive reading

While the reading of storybooks has long been considered influential both at home and school, the success of the programs has often been based on the verbal interaction between the adult and the child. Vygotsky (1978) proposed that the single most significant influence on the nature of the storybook reading event was adult participation. He suggested that the acquired cognitive and linguistic skills employed in comprehension are obtained through social interaction that demands understanding and use of additional discourse.

2.4.1 Defining interactive storybook reading

The term "interactive storybook reading" was first utilized in a study by Morrow and Smith (1990) that investigated the effect of group size on children's comprehension of stories. The term "interaction" has several meanings including: turn-taking while initiating and responding to others (Ninio & Bruner, 1978); "the highly interactive participative role in bookreading" (Heath, 1982); or the reading of storybooks aloud as a "socially created activity" (Sulzby & Teale, 1991). Often interactive storybook reading has involved discussion of the book cover, description and discussion of the characters, prediction, sharing of comments and personal experiences, and the definition of vocabulary (Butler &

Clay, 1987; Elley, 1989; Trachtenburg & Ferruggia, 1989; Waterland, 1988). A few studies have used additional props such as puppets and realia (Carger, 1993), choral reading (McCauley & McCauley, 1992; Trachtenburg & Ferruggia, 1989), flannel boards (Carger, 1993), and dramatic presentations (Holdaway, 1979; Tinajero, 1994). Barrentine (1996:36) offers the interactive read-aloud approach as a method "to verbally interact with text, peers, and teacher" so that students can construct meaning and explore the process of reading.

2.4.2 Interaction between the child and adult

Peters (1992:8) found that there was "scant documentation" with regard to teacher-child interaction during story reading events, which she described as a "cooperative construction of meaning". However, this research found numerous studies that support interaction between adult and child. Holdaway (1979) found that through "independent re-enactment" or role-playing, young children could understand the structure of language and move on to the understanding of the written word. Morrow (1985, 1988) contributed studies that suggested the primary purpose of the story reading event was construction of meaning from the interactive process and its "social aspect". Morrow and Smith (1990) suggested that the social aspect increased the pleasure of interactive reading. Another study (Cochran-Smith, 1985) documented how contextualized story reading events helped children learn unique language strategies necessary to interpret stories through teacher/student interaction.

Wells (1985:253) described how stories required interaction to be effective. He noted:

If stories are simply read as part of a daily routine, without being further discussed, they are likely to remain inert and without much impact on the rest of the child's experience...However where, 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.

As cited, many studies supported interaction as the defining factor in the success of their early reading programs.

2.4.3 Interaction between children

Morrow and Smith (1990) studied children's comprehension of stories and their verbal interactions during storybook readings in three different groups of varying sizes: one-to-one, small-group of three children per group, and a whole class of 15 children. Reading to children in small groups offered as much interaction as one-to-one reading and led to greater comprehension than whole-class or even one-to-one reading. This finding supported a previous study by Yager et al. (1985) where results indicated that both achievement and retention could be increased by structuring the oral interaction of students who were learning collaboratively. Their study demonstrated that passive learners benefitted from small group dialogue and interaction due to the joint negotiation among the peers. Piaget (1962), as well, referred to childhood peers as a resource for cooperative learning.

Group size was also a concern for the Klesius and Griffith study (1996) which investigated interactive story reading with children who begin school with limited lapreading experiences at home. The researchers determined that the optimal group size should not exceed five children but two major concerns -- absenteeism and student relocation -- must be factored into any study. Practical considerations, such as limited teaching staff, must also be taken into account.

Variety in learner type also has an effect on learning style. Wong-Fillmore (1991) noted that some learners from her study picked up language by observing teachers and peers, despite having little direct interaction with them. In the Klesius and Griffith study (1996), some children who were very attentive were not active participants in the conversation.

Flanigan (1991) experimented with peer tutoring as well. Her study differed from the others because she worked with peers who were non-native speakers of English. These English as a Second Language (ESL) students assisted each other with repetitions, expansions, explanations, and comprehension checks just as mothers and teachers did, cited in previous writings in this chapter. Flanigan (1991:152) noted:

... they apparently enjoy teaching one another content- and activity-based material and they may teach and learn language incidentally, almost in spite of themselves.

While the literature on interaction was plentiful, fewer studies were undertaken with ESL learners.

2.5 The role of reading in second language learning

Thus far, this chapter has focussed on the benefits of reading as they apply to children in a first language environment at home or at school. As Grabe (1991) notes, the role of reading in ESL studies has been influenced greatly by research on first language learners. The research and findings in first language acquisition can be a springboard for research with ESL students.

In this section, the role of reading in an L2 environment will be investigated. Many of the issues that have surfaced throughout this chapter -- such as labelling, scaffolding, repetition, and interaction -- play an even more important role in the teaching of ESL students. There are numerous other strategies utilized in learning a second language.

Several key theories help to explain the L2 learning process. Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982:21) highlights certain factors which are believed to play a crucial role. In defining this theory of language acquisition, Krashen states:

We acquire by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond our current competence ($i + 1$). This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information.

Krashen noted that current competence (represented by "i") serves as the basis for the next acquisition step (" $+1$ "), similar to the theory of scaffolding (refer to Section 2.2). To expand one's knowledge of the language, comprehensible and meaning-based input has to be incorporated into the learning process to move the learner beyond the present level of

acquisition. Attention is focussed on meaning, rather than form or function. Certainly storybook reading focuses the attention in this key area.

Similar to newborns and toddlers, early second language learners spend time listening to the sounds of the new language. Krashen (1982:27) cites the "silent period", where language learners listen but do not speak the language, as evidence of the input hypothesis. He remarks:

The child is building up competence in the second language via listening, by understanding the language around him. In accordance with the input hypothesis, speaking ability emerges on its own after enough competence has been developed by listening and understanding.

While many researchers agree with parts of Krashen's theories, some fear that his theories are too simplistic or insufficient for explaining full language acquisition (Brown, 1987; Ellis, 1991).

Larsen-Freeman (1991) notes some general characteristics of the language learning/acquisition process, i.e. it is complex, gradual, nonlinear, dynamic, and socially motivated. She states that learners rely on the knowledge and experience they have with their first language and what they know of the target language being studied. Wong-Fillmore (1991:54) has also found a need for social interaction and personal involvement stating that students learning a second language require input to be "anchored situationally for its meaning to be completely recoverable from the context". For the second language learner, Hester (1981) noted that stories in English introduce the children to the rhythms, sounds, vocabulary, and grammatical structures of their new language in addition to introducing them to the "common core of stories that children who are speakers of English will often be familiar with" (1981:6). Hester's experience as a teacher changed as her class in Britain incorporated newly-arrived immigrants and she began to introduce new teaching concepts. She summarized the value of stories -- listening, telling, reading, and writing -- in the following ways:

Personal and Emotional Gains

- stories give children enjoyment;
- stories develop feelings and imagination;
- through stories, children make sense of their own experiences;

Learning Gains

- stories add to understanding of new concepts;
- stories help children to consider hidden meanings;
- stories give access to new ideas and knowledge;

Language Gains

- stories allow children to feel the power that control over language can give;
- stories help to develop understanding of meanings of words;
- stories support new ways of using language;
- stories assist children in understanding the shapes of stories;
- stories help children become aware of audience.

In analyzing the role of reading in second language acquisition, the four key aspects of development used in Sections 2.2 and 2.3 can also be employed in reviewing reading studies with second language learners.

2.5.1 Affective development

Second language learners vary in age from the very young to the very old and in the types of learning environments, depending on their use and need for the language. The input hypothesis claims that acquisition will occur best in environments where anxiety is low. This is referred to as a "low affective filter" (Krashen, 1982). Savignon (1983:122) concurs by noting that good language teaching offers "an environment of trust and mutual confidence wherein learners may interact without fear or threat of failure". Wong-Fillmore (1991:62) makes an interesting observation with regard to age and the ability to communicate, stating that beginning ESL learners:

... need ways to interact and talk without much actual communication at an informational level. There are many more opportunities for young children to interact than for adults. Children can play together without much real talk, but there are few ways for older learners to interact with one another without it. I have observed kindergarten-age language learners working and playing with classmates hour after hour, unhampered by the fact that they do not understand one another. By the third and fourth grade, children at eight or nine years of age not only have fewer opportunities for this kind of interaction, but they are much more hamstrung by the inability to communicate easily with one another.

Through the experience of storybook reading, beginner second language learners can share colorful, highly illustrated books with peers or attentive adults. Elley (1991:403) noted that several studies showed teachers, principals, and parents who "expressed concern that children were merely enjoying themselves, rather than learning" during shared storybook reading. In these same studies, the children's attitude toward books showed strong positive feelings. Providing new language learners with informal, stress-reduced, and enjoyable book reading experiences can expedite language acquisition and give the students self-confidence and a new knowledge of their world.

2.5.2 Cognitive development

As discussed in Sections 2.2.1.2 and 2.3.1.2, the ability to use language in a decontextualized way is an important factor in a child's learning process. This advanced skill applies as well to second language learning. One of the most important theories in language acquisition deals with two kinds of language proficiencies -- one that is essential to academic success and the other that deals with oral fluency. Cummins (1979) distinguished between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). CALP is strongly aligned with decontextualization skills necessary for success in school. BICS is required for interpersonal conversations and informal dialogues. To move from conversational English to academic English, different language skills are required. As discussed in Section 2.2.1.2, one of the benefits of reading includes the assimilation of literary language, which would be required by CALP. Collier

(1987) noted that many limited English-speaking students may take five to seven years to gain the command of English needed for them to perform successfully in academic areas.

O'Malley (1988) asserts that most ESL and bilingual programs fail to meet the needs of students attempting the transition from context-embedded language to context-reduced, or decontextualized, language. In the South African context, Macdonald (1990) agrees. She feels that there is a void in the junior primary ESL training and that an "approach based on metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective strategies might be modulated to meet the need of younger children and less sophisticated teachers" (1990:175). Macdonald states that Cummins' theory "enables us to distinguish between the information processing demands of engaging in a casual conversation with a friend (BICS) and reading or writing a complex expository text (CALP)" (1990:171).

In the U.S. setting, Sutton (1989) supports these findings as well. Sutton suggests that ESL students who study through the medium of English are increasingly challenged by the cognitive and linguistic demands they face in reading as the students reach upper elementary grades. The second language learners are handicapped by both academic vocabulary and their limited experiences and knowledge of a different culture. Mace-Matluck et al. (1989:205) noted that most ESL five-year-olds have mastered the complexities of conversational interaction in their first language but are confronted with a new speech environment with different requirements, such as informational and social goals, as they enter school. She noted:

They must, therefore, acquire dimensions of language which many children at school entry have not developed in their native language. These dimensions, typical of 'formal' or 'school-related' language, involve a whole new set of rules both for interacting with an authority figure (the teacher) and as a member of a peer group in an academic setting. Also involved is learning to process and produce those varieties of spoken and written language in which meaning is autonomously represented. This requires learning to view and to use language in a new and expanded way.

The school success of these ESL children is very important early in their school careers because, as Mace-Matluck et al. (1989:209) found, students tend to be "locked in place"

academically as they continue through their school years. These findings support the Matthew Effect, noted in Section 2.3.1.3, where the "rich get richer" and the poor readers begin a downward spiral.

2.5.3 Linguistic and literacy development

Linguistic and literacy development are closely tied together in second language acquisition. All second language learners come with varying levels of literacy skills from the first language and preconceived ideas of the target language.

Several ESL studies have incorporated reading into the language learning environment. The "Book Flood Hypothesis" is a term coined by Elley and Mangubhai (1983) to connote ESL student exposure to large numbers of high-interest, illustrated books. It originated from their study in rural Fijian schools with students moving from the vernacular (Fijian or Hindi) to English. The study focussed on three groups of nine- to 11-year-olds: the Shared Book Group, where teachers read the books interactively with students (refer to Section 2.3.1.1 for further details on this method); the Silent Reading Group, where students read the books to themselves; and the Control Group, which continued to study English using a more traditional, structured, grammar-based audio-lingual method. With the nine- to 10-year-olds, the two reading groups showed significant advances on reading and listening comprehension over the control group but no measured difference between the two experimental methods. With the 10- to 11-year-olds, the Shared Book group showed significantly greater language benefits with the interactive Shared Book method. The gains increased further for both groups in one-year follow-up testing and spread to related language skills. While both experimental groups benefited from their exposure to high-interest storybooks, results were mixed for the benefit of interactive class reading versus silent reading.

Elley (1991) continued his research in the south Pacific and compiled a report that contained references to several other studies from this section of the world. On the South Pacific island of Niue, a one-year study investigated the language achievement of eight-year-olds who

studied English using either a traditional grammar-based program (entitled "Tate") or an interactive Shared Book Approach (entitled "fun"). On all the language tests, the Shared Book group outscored significantly the grammar-based program, although this writer believes that the names of the programs might have indirectly contributed to the results. Another South Pacific study occurred in Singapore, where students were in transition from their first language to English as the medium of instruction within the first three years of school. The three-year study, with six- to nine-year-olds, divided over 500 students into two groups -- one using a traditional grammar-based English syllabus and the other using a modified Shared Book Approach/Book Flood. While Elley (1991:394) notes concern for "contamination" of the control groups due to the number of teachers involved, results did show significant superiority in reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and written composition by the modified experimental group.

In the United States, one kindergarten study (Carger, 1993) of eight ESL children used storybooks to develop English skills. By using storybook readings, retellings, and "pretend" readings (where the children pretend to read a familiar book), L2 children had the opportunity to construct language creatively within a casual meaning-centered activity. Carger supplemented the class reading with puppet shows, felt-board activities, and the reading of the story in the students' first language. A detailed statistical analysis was not done but informal results showed substantial increases in target vocabulary, "meaning units", word count, and two-syllable or more words.

In another kindergarten experiment, Klesius and Griffith (1996) implemented an interactive storybook reading experiment with at-risk students. They defined "at-risk" as those children who received limited lapreading prior to school entry. A few of the 10 children were ESL students. Quantitative measures were not instituted in this study. Qualitatively, the researchers noted that interactive storybook reading helped students "build language and literacy understandings and the basic world knowledge that are essential for the successful acquisition of reading and writing ability" (1996:552).

Two other journal articles have addressed the topic of story reading with elementary-age ESL students (Hough et al., 1986; Tinajero, 1994). Both studies proposed the use of dramatic readings in the classroom, re-reading stories to improve student familiarization, employing predictable books (refer to Section 2.3.1.3), using hands-on activities, and asking the children thought-provoking questions. However, neither study provided research data or statistical analyses to support their proposals.

Cho and Krashen (1994) worked with four ESL adults using an informal, free reading program with adolescent books. While specific parameters were not set in this study, the results showed increased competence in listening and speaking English and a gain in vocabulary acquisition after several months.

Repetition played a key role in many of these second language studies. Formulaic speech, or ready-made chunks of speech, allowed for rehearsal and memorization. Short common phrases, such as "I don't know" and "what's this?", along with predictable stories, with their repetitive or cumulative structure, become memorized patterns of speech for both speakers and readers. Ellis (1991:155) noted that formulaic speech "contributes indirectly to the route of second language acquisition by providing raw materials for the learner's internal mechanisms to work on". In a study of 14 ESL first grade children, Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) found that the earliest language strategies to be employed were repetition and memorization. They concluded that the children utilized echo/imitation repetition, memorization by rote recall, and formulaic expressions which functioned as automatic speech units for the speaker. Dickinson and Smith (1994:117) warned against a "steady diet" of repetitive and predictable books with lower SES students because, for some students, this might limit their vocabulary acquisition. For an ESL learner, this warning need not be heeded when the student requires repetition for formulaic learning to acquire the necessary vocabulary and reading skills and when the learner has limited exposure to fluent speakers of the L2 outside the classroom.

2.6 Summary of literature review

The literature reviewed above offers several insights into storybook reading with children, both at home and in the school. These include:

- young children who read with adults benefit in all aspects of development – affectively, cognitively, linguistically and with emergent literacy skills;
- labelling, scaffolding, and repetition play important roles in linguistic and literacy development;
- familiarity with a given text can expand language development and contribute to the child's self-confidence;
- reading is more important to language development than other play activities;
- in the transition from home to school, children who experience lapreading at home enter school with a greater knowledge of language and literacy;
- children who are asked higher level cognitive questions from their interactive home reading are better prepared for the decontextualized reading that occurs in school; and
- a student's performance in their early schooling years tends to become academically "locked in" in subsequent instructional years.

Through my literature review, I found the majority of studies on storybook reading dealt with monolingual children. Recently, increasing studies have been done on reading and ESL learners. Over the last ten years, additional studies have also been generated that deal with lower SES communities, often providing a window into the problems of children who are less equipped for school, either because of language difficulties or unpreparedness for school or both. In some countries, these children are immigrants to a society that speaks a different language, such as the United States or the United Kingdom. In other countries, these children are natives of the land but are introduced to a new language as they enter school and must learn the language of instruction, such as in New Zealand and South Africa.

2.6.1 Gaps in the current research

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the role of reading in the development of the child has been well-documented. The study of reading with regard to second language development has been limited, however. While studies have increased over the past few years, most studies have not employed both pre- and posttests and experimental and control groups. As Chaudron (1986:710) noted:

What has been needed in the past 25 years of L2 classroom research is a conceptually coherent and descriptively adequate set of categories of processes that can serve as the basis for observational, correlational, and causally-focussed experimental research.

For varying reasons, many ESL studies do not utilize the formal experimental criteria. In referring to the New Zealand Book Flood Experiment (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983), Nunan (1992:40) notes that the internal validity of the study would have been improved with carefully selected pre- and posttreatment tests.

Several other studies attempted to measure the contribution of reading to second language development but none were established as a quantitative study with detailed pre- and posttest measures. Carger (1993) used measures such as two-syllable words and target vocabulary, as well as "meaning units," which were subjectively established by the researcher. No control group or pretest was employed. Cho & Krashen (1994) studied reading with four adult ESL students but did not use pretest results or control group either. Feitelson et al. (1993) utilized detailed pre- and posttest measures but the children were diglossic, not second language learners.

In several studies (Elley, 1991; Elley and Mangubhai, 1983), the researchers contrasted shared reading with either grammar-based teaching methods or independent reading. These experiments were done with upper primary classes. Some of the students continued with already familiar grammar-based methods, as opposed to the use of highly-illustrated storybooks, and there was no use of a control group.

In southern Africa, local research with regard to language learning through reading is limited. The READ Educational Trust (1996) published results showing that South African primary school children who attended schools where the READ program had been followed (with its emphasis on reading and whole language teaching) outperformed the non-READ children in reading and writing tasks by almost two years. In the new democratic South Africa where two million new students are expected to enroll at the primary school level, more local research is necessary to meet this educational challenge.

2.6.2 How the current study fills the gap

This study is of a quasi-experimental design which is unusual with ESL students, as noted in Section 2.6.1. As the objectives in Section 1.5 state, this research will investigate the discourse development of young ESL students in order to determine:

- whether the amount of exposure to stories has an effect on second language development; and
- whether certain interactional features of storybook reading have an effect on second language development.

In order to measure this, the current study used pre- and posttest measurements, two experimental groups and a control group, and the matched/random placement of participants from an existing Grade 0 class.

In order to determine if the amount and style of storybook reading have an effect on L2 development, the two variables were isolated. Pre- and posttests were conducted with students who enjoyed an additional amount of reading versus the control group which did not receive additional stories. Then the variable of style of reading was contrasted between two experimental groups who both received additional reading, one with an interactive style and the other without interactive reading.

Since South Africa must face the challenge of educating all its citizens, the need for local research is of utmost importance. One key to this research would be its applicability in both

urban and rural South Africa utilizing easily accessible materials and existing resources. The new government cannot afford to postpone immediate action. The current study, then, sets out to determine the influence of storybook reading on language learning in the South African setting.

2.7 Conclusion

In the South African context, the majority of the ESL school population arrives at English-medium schools with limited or no English skills. In addition, the children begin school with limited literacy skills. In a study (Kvalsig et al., 1991) of 57 Zulu and Sotho five-year-olds, the mean level of education for caregivers (predominately female) was 3.8 years, indicating that these women were not functionally literate and could pass on few literacy skills to their charges. These children are faced with the task of learning a new language and mastering the skills of reading and writing in that language in order to succeed in the school environment.

As South Africa enters an era of democracy, the government is attempting to equalize the educational opportunities of all its citizens. The South African schools must be prepared to meet the challenge and this study examines the role that interactive reading can play in that challenge.

In the next chapter, the research design and analytical framework of this study will be discussed.

Chapter Three

Research Design and Analytical Framework

3.1 Introduction

Over the past few decades, reading to pre-school children has been recognized by many parents and educators as important to first language acquisition and to emergent literacy skills. Chapter Two highlighted the extensive background literature on reading to children. The use and benefits of interactive reading by teachers were also reviewed in Chapter Two. In both of these areas, the predominance of the research focussed on first language acquisition. The benefits of interactive reading for second language acquisition have not been as thoroughly explored thus far. As noted earlier (refer to Section 1.2), this study extends the present research by investigating the effects of reading storybooks on pre-primary ESL children whose exposure to interactive reading was varied.

In order to test the effects of interactive reading on these young ESL students, an intervention program of 36 sessions was instituted with 16 Grade 0 children. In this chapter, the research study will be outlined in detail. This will include the setting, subjects, procedures, materials and the analytical framework used to categorize and analyze the subjects' protocols.

3.2 Research design

The aims of this study were twofold. As stated in Section 1.5, the first aim was to test the effects of storybook reading on the second language development of Grade 0 children. The second aim focussed on the effect of interactive reading of those storybooks.

In this research, the quasi-experimental method was employed. This entails both pre- and posttests and experimental and control groups. The subjects were selected by choosing a pre-assigned Grade 0 class and each student was placed into one of three groups, using matched subject placement procedures.

In this section, details on the setting, subjects, procedures, and materials will be discussed.

3.2.1 The setting

The study was undertaken at Thuthuka Primary School. "Thuthuka" means "to grow" in Zulu and the school was established in 1992 to strengthen numeracy and language skills of students who wished to transfer from the traditionally black schools in South Africa to the multi-cultural schools of northern Johannesburg which required entrance exams. The two main objectives of the school are "bridging the gap from DET (black) Education to TED (white) Education" and providing "immediate acceptance without the humiliation of admission tests" (Thuthuka Handbook, 1994). It is a private school where parents pay a monthly fee and receive benefits for their children such as better educated teachers, smaller class sizes, books, some meals, and student field trips to museums, theaters, the zoo, the local public swimming pool and a formal restaurant.

At Thuthuka, Grades 0 to Standard 3 classes share facilities with the Witwatersrand Technikon's restaurant school in Braamfontein, located near the Central Business District of Johannesburg. Each of the six grades (Grade 0, Grade 1, Grade 2, Standard 1, Standard 2, Standard 3) averaged 25 students per class, which is in stark contrast to the national student/teacher ratio of 60:1 in the traditionally black schools of South Africa. The normal school day began at 8:30 a.m. with a school-provided breakfast, and ended at 1:30 p.m. five days a week. There were four school terms that spanned January through November; the research project was conducted during the 1994 school year. A detailed explanation of the timeframe can be found in Section 3.2.2. Thuthuka had no library facilities and no library books were available within the Grade 0 classroom for the students.

Because reading in the classroom formed part of the focus of this study, observations of the teacher's existing reading schedule were important. The teacher, who had earned a two-year pre-primary school aide certificate from a South African college, read one book to the students each day during a regularly scheduled storytime. Each day she read a different story and did not repeat stories. Occasionally, she also read to them during religious studies at noon-time. Her reading style could be defined as the "didactic-interactional" approach according to the three styles outlined by Dickinson and Smith (1994) (refer to Section 2.3.2). With a class of 24 children, she often spent administrative time trying to control the class. There was limited talk before, during, and after the story reading, and comprehension questions centered on immediate recall of explicit story information.

The normal Grade 0 classroom schedule was as follows:

8:30 a.m.	Breakfast
9:00 a.m.	Ring time. All students sat in a circle around the teacher who led class in an informal discussion of days of the week, weather, news from children, songs. Ring time concluded with a group story by the teacher.
9:45 a.m.	Craft activities
10:30 a.m.	Individual free play
11:15 a.m.	Recess
11:45 a.m.	Lunch
12:15 p.m.	Ring time which included religious studies, songs.
1:00 p.m.	Final clean-up, announcements
1:30 p.m.	Dismissal

The pre- and posttests and intervention were timed to coincide with the conclusion of 9:00 a.m. ring time in order to limit the disruption of the class. Following the group story, the

class broke into various individual activities for the intervention groups and craft activities. An attic-type room, normally used for fantasy play, was employed for the intervention and testing.

3.2.2 Timeframes for work with Thuthuka School

In January 1994, initial research work began at Thuthuka School. In addition to becoming familiar with individual students and the teacher, several protocols were unfamiliar to the class and needed to be introduced. In order to collect the data, the subjects needed to be accustomed to tape-recorded protocols. Most of these students had never seen a tape-recorder before so, as an introduction to the device, student's play-time activities were captured on tape in January through March, 1994. As time passed, the students began to feel comfortable with the recorder and with the researcher. Gradually the students took over the microphone to interview each other and listen to the results and the novelty of the device wore off.

While work with Thuthuka continued through April, very little was accomplished, aside from establishing credibility and trust. The 1994 national elections created a constant state of upheaval with stayaways, strikes, and violence. On one particularly violent day, one of Thuthuka's taxis, en route from Soweto, was stopped, and six children were dragged off and beaten by rioters. School continued, though, and attendance remained fairly steady.

In May, another new protocol was introduced to the students. One method of measuring students' language performance was the re-telling of a story and the students seemed to be unfamiliar with this skill when using a book as the source of storytelling. As Underhill (1987) notes, this technique can be used with all levels of learners. In order to acquaint students with story re-tell protocols, each student was asked to listen to and then re-tell *The Very Hungry Caterpillar* (Carle, 1987) in May, 1994. Students were allowed to page through the book which served as a prompt. Transcripts were completed and preliminary pre- and posttests were investigated using two-syllable words and meaning units (Carger,

1993). This preparatory step contributed to the design of the final tests used for language measurement.

In June, just prior to mid-year break, a two-page questionnaire was distributed to the families of the 16 participating children to determine language patterns in the home, reading patterns by the parents and with the child, and the educational attainment of the parents. The results are explained in Section 3.2.4.1.

In August, a series of four pretests were given to the students and are outlined in detail in Section 3.2.4.3. From these tests, the 16 students were matched and distributed among the three groups -- the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group -- based on the results of the questionnaires and a preliminary evaluation of linguistic competence using two-syllable words and meaning units. Specific information on the groups is given in Section 3.2.5.

Intervention took place during August through November with the same four tests used as posttests being given in November 1994. Table 3.1 below provides the timeframes of the experimental design.

TABLE 3.1 Timeframe for intervention program for the three groups

	Interactive Reading Group	Reading Only Group	Control Group
January-March 1994	Familiarization with tape-recorders	Familiarization with tape-recorders	Familiarization with tape-recorders
May 1994	Re-tell of <i>The Very Hungry Caterpillar</i>	Re-tell of <i>The Very Hungry Caterpillar</i>	Re-tell of <i>The Very Hungry Caterpillar</i>
June 1994	Evaluation of Re-tell	Evaluation of Re-tell	Evaluation of Re-tell
June 1994	Questionnaires	Questionnaires	Questionnaires
August 1994	Pretests and evaluation for placement into groups	Pretests and evaluation for placement into groups	Pretests and evaluation for placement into groups
Aug.-Nov. 1994 Group Stories	36 Interactive Stories	36 Interactive Stories	36 Interactive Stories
Aug.-Nov. 1994 Intervention	108 Interactive Stories	108 Reading Only Stories	0 Stories
November 1994	Posttests	Posttests	Posttests

As school closed in November 1994, each child in Thuthuka's Grade 0 class took home a letter to his/her parents explaining the importance of reading and listing the eight public libraries available in their residential areas of Soweto and Hillbrow. In February 1995, a follow-up visit was completed with the classroom teacher and she wrote up an evaluation report of the project and its influence on her classroom (which will be discussed in Section 4.3).

3.2.3 The subjects

A class of 24 Grade 0 students at Thuthuka Primary School in Johannesburg was initially interviewed as the subjects of the study. Two students were not included in the testing due to

speech impediments. Of the remaining 22 students, 14 were girls and eight were boys. Three students dropped out of school during the intervention and had to be disqualified from the study. A total of 19 students were finally evaluated with pre- and posttests: of that, 16 were ESL students and three were first language English-speaking students. Only the 16 ESL students are analyzed in this study due to the small number of English first-language students.

In the Thuthuka Handbook (1994), it is stated that the school "has absorbed many students whose emotional and educational well-being have been devastated by the chalk down" (referring to the frequent school stoppages by students and/or teachers in the black township schools). Due to the political unrest in South Africa and the discrepancy between township black schools and those of the northern suburb predominantly white schools, parents looked for alternatives to their neighborhood schools. The majority of Thuthuka's children lived in Soweto, a Johannesburg township, and traveled thirty minutes to school by taxi. A few of the children lived in flats in the nearby housing area of Hillbrow.

The students' ages ranged from four years to seven years; the average age for one experimental group and the control group was 5.7 years and for the other experimental group, 5.8 years.

In the class of 19, English was the first language for three of the students. Six other languages (Northern Sotho, Setswana, Southern Sotho, Venda, Xhosa, and Zulu) served as first languages for the other students. Zulu was the predominant (55%) first language. Five additional languages were spoken by the students as second or third languages (two students also spoke Afrikaans, two students also spoke Shangani, one student also spoke Tsonga, one student also spoke Swahili, and 12 students had some familiarity with English). One young boy lived in a home where four languages were spoken on a daily basis.

English was the only language spoken by the teacher to the children. The teacher's first language was English and she also spoke Afrikaans fluently and had some familiarity with

Zulu. The teacher discouraged students from speaking any language except English; during unsupervised play, several languages flowed freely in the class.

3.2.4 Subject placement

The study used a matched subjects' experimental design. As indicated in Section 3.2.3, all of Thuthuka's Grade 0 students were considered to be participants. Two criteria were used to assign these participants to the three groups, as follows:

- Questionnaire results concerning parents' educational levels, reading patterns in the home, and first language.
- A preliminary evaluation of linguistic competence using two-syllable words and meaning units as the measurement.

Initially, the questionnaire results and linguistic competence were used to match the students with two other like students. Then each of the three students was placed randomly in one of the three groups so that there was a placement of matched subjects to groups. Each of the three groups had one first language English speaker. This procedure was similar to two other studies using children with varying abilities (Valdez-Menchaca & Whitehurst, 1992; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983).

3.2.4.1 Questionnaire Results

Questionnaires completed by the parents were used to determine at-home reading behaviors, the educational attainment of the parents, and the languages spoken by the parents and others living in the home. Completed sample questionnaires can be found in Appendix A. The pupils were placed into three groups, based on the results noted in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2 Mean Value of Demographic Characteristics of Children in the Experimental and Control Groups

Variable	Interactive Reading Group	Reading Only Group	Control Group
Number of Children	6	5	5
Average Age	5.7 years	5.8 years	5.7 years
Average Years of Maternal Education	11 years	12 years	13 years*
Average Years of Paternal Education	11.5 years**	11.5 years**	12.5 years**
First Language	Zulu-3 Venda-1 Xhosa-1 N. Sotho-1	Zulu-2 Venda-1 Setswana-1 S. Sotho-1	Zulu-4 S. Sotho-1
Reading at home with the child	1-3 books per week-5 4-10 books-1	1-3 books per week-5	1-3 books per week-3 4-10 books-2

* Maternal Control Group represents only four mothers.

**Paternal Group represents two fewer fathers than children.

3.2.4.2 Pretests for language ability

The second criterion used pretest results to determine linguistic ability in order to match subjects more closely. Each pupil was given a series of four pretests (detailed in Section 3.2.4.3). These tests were analyzed using two measures recommended by Carger (1993):

- two or more syllable words
- meaning units.

According to Carger (1993), the sophistication of the vocabulary and the verb tenses could be determined by counting syllables, which in turn could assist in defining the student's level of competence in English. She considered words of two syllables or greater in length to be "an indication of growth in language construction" (Carger, 1993:545).

"Meaning units" were defined as "clusters or chunks of language that convey generally comprehensible information on the storybook" (Carger, 1993:546). The meaning unit count enabled the researcher to include phrases which might not be grammatically complete but that communicated an idea that related to the story. For example, to describe a storybook character's eating habits, one student stated "and so much he eat". This was counted as a meaning unit.

Although these two measures were used initially to evaluate the students' stories and to assign the students to different groups, neither measure was employed in the final data analysis. Two or more syllable words did not necessarily show growth in language development. Some students used progressive tense verbs (go/ing, stand/ing) to describe the story in their pretest and were credited with a two-syllable word; during the posttest, those same students used past tense verbs (went, stood) which did not count as a two-syllable word but showed a higher attainment of language proficiency. Because many of the students were in the early stages of language development, "meaning units" did not give enough structure to the analysis procedure either. More stringent analysis tools were used and will be discussed in Section 3.3. The use of these preliminary measurement tools did not negatively affect the results of the data; the three groups pretest results were determined to have no significant differences (to be discussed in Section 4.2).

3.2.4.3 Pre- and posttests

Four pretests were administered to the 16 subjects. These tests were designed to elicit the spoken language of students with the large differences in their English language proficiency. Recommended test ideas from *Testing Spoken Language* (Underhill, 1987) were used. Three types of tests were employed.

3.2.4.3.1 Use of story re-tell

Test One utilized story re-tell skills in order to test each student's knowledge of spoken English. Because the students could not read yet, a combination of re-tell techniques from aural and written stimulus were applied. A children's book set in familiar surroundings served as the text. Because this story [*Not So Fast, Songololo* (Daly, 1985)] deals with the urban life of a Johannesburg boy, it was selected as the first pretest which involved story re-tell. This richly-illustrated story of a young boy and his grandmother was nominated by several South African academics as a "potential classic" in children's literature (Heale, 1992).

The story was read to a group of three students; then each student was asked separately to re-tell the story using the book as a prompt. This allowed the recall to be immediate; the student's response was tape-recorded for transcription at a later time and the additional three pretests were then administered.

3.2.4.3.2 Use of a picture story

Tests Two and Three were wordless picture stories taken from Heinemann's *Let's Use English* (1992). These tests are an effective method of providing a general subject area for discussion without giving the learner specific words and phrases. Picture stories also test emergent literacy skills, such as the student's understanding of temporal and cause-effect sequence and ability to perceive a continuous story from separate, but interrelated, pictures. These stories were about black children in an African setting. As Underhill (1987:67) states, one advantage of picture stories is that "speech samples from different learners are directly comparable because they are based on the same pictures".

Test Two: The Boy

Test Two was a group of five pictures that dealt with a young boy's daily activities (see Appendix B). The pictures were laid out in sequential order for the student's story and the students were instructed to tell the story beginning with the first picture.

Test Three: The Bicycle

Test Three was comprised of eight pictures that showed a young boy's ingenious method of obtaining a bicycle for himself (Appendix C). The pictures were laid out in sequential order for the students to look at and talk about.

3.2.4.3.3 Use of personal story-telling

The fourth test involved the telling of an original story or happening in the subjects' lives. This test was selected for two reasons: because it challenges a student's individual creativity and because findings indicate that original stories produce more varied vocabulary and more fluent, mature language structures (Nurss & Hough, 1985).

This final pretest was a child's response to the comment "tell me a story, any story". If the student did not initially respond to the request, a suggestion of "tell me about your birthday or tell me about shopping with your mommy" would be employed.

The sum of all pretests produced a total of 8000 words for analysis. The 12-week intervention followed, after which the same four tests were then given as posttests. Transcriptions were also made of the posttests (15,350 total words) and then analyzed. The data analysis will be reviewed in detail in Section 3.3.

3.2.5 Research procedures

In order to measure the effects of storybook reading on pre-school second language development, an intervention procedure was set up with two experimental groups and a

control group: one experimental group was read three stories per day with interactive reading using puppets, role-play and explanations and discussions of the books; one experimental group was read three additional stories each day with no activities or discussion; the control group did not receive any intervention beyond what is described in Section 3.2.5.3, but spent additional time in scheduled craft or free-play activities organized by the teacher. The two experimental groups met for 36 reading sessions over a three-month period.

As the researcher, I was a visitor in the classroom and the entire class wanted to participate in storytime with me. Therefore, the class of 24 (all three groups together) participated in the reading of one storybook using interactive strategies presented by me during the regularly scheduled storytime (Section 3.2.1 details the class schedule) on those same three days a week for 12 weeks. By reading with the entire class, an attempt was made to minimize possible Hawthorne effects. This storytime also provided the opportunity to demonstrate interactive reading to the teacher and share the children's literature with her.

The three groups were:

3.2.5.1 Interactive Reading Group

This group consisted of six second language speakers and one first language English speaker. They were exposed to interactive storybook reading during the whole group storytime and during their intervention (for a complete definition of interactive reading, refer to Section 2.4). The interaction included:

- a discussion of characters before and/or after the reading;
- prediction of story events;
- explanation of unfamiliar vocabulary;
- comparison of personal experiences in relation to the story;
- use of puppets and other realia; and
- re-enactment of stories.

Three books were read during each 30-minute session: one new storybook, one familiar storybook, and one storybook that the group considered a "favorite" or frequently requested storybook.

3.2.5.2 Reading Only Group

This group consisted of five second language speakers and one first language English speaker. They were exposed to the same books and the same amounts of reading as the Interactive Reading Group but without the interactive method. During the 15-20 minute session, pupils were not allowed to ask questions or discuss the story, either before or after the reading of each story.

The two experimental groups alternated as the first group to depart after the whole group storytime and, therefore, took turns in selecting the day's favorite stories for re-reading.

3.2.5.3 Control Group

This group consisted of five second language speakers and one first language English speaker. This group served as the Control Group. They received no additional stories other than the whole group story, and so they were allowed to make full use of craft and individual free time.

3.2.6 Materials

The intervention involved 63 different storybooks from this researcher's library or the local public library. An effort was made to choose a variety of fairy tales, African stories and other storybooks that would be applicable to the children's lives. In Appendix D, a listing of the 20 most popular storybooks, as selected by the children for repeated readings, can be found.

For specific book selection during the 36 sessions, the "three-book approach" was used. During each session, three books were read -- one new book, one book that had been heard

before, and one old favorite. This book selection practice is common in United Kingdom pre-primary classes (ILEA, 1988). It is designed to introduce new literature to children while allowing them to re-read favorites. It combines qualities of Holdaway's "shared reading" and Waterland's "apprenticeship approach to reading" (refer to Section 2.3.1.1 for a discussion of both approaches). As Chapter Two pointed out in Section 2.3.1.3, the practice of re-reading stories allows the ESL learners to hear and practice vocabulary that is unknown to them. For the Thuthuka students, one new book was introduced during each session. Individual students were allowed to select two other books from a specific group of six or eight -- one group of books that was less familiar and one group that offered old favorites. The number of "favorites" grew as the sessions continued and the students became more familiar with the storybooks. Each student was given a turn to choose at least two of the stories during the 36-session research.

Because Thuthuka did not have a library, 25 books were donated to the class for individual reading; a few of these books were part of the intervention reading selections. A corner library was established in August so that the children had daily access to books.

For the interactive reading, puppets and realia, as indicated below, were provided:

<i>The Three Little Pigs</i>	straw, sticks, bricks
<i>The Very Hungry Caterpillar</i>	apples, oranges, plums, pears, strawberries, cupcakes, lollipops, and pickles
<i>Nellie's Knot</i>	elephant puppet
<i>The Greedy Zebra</i>	zebra puppet
<i>The Little Gingerbread Man</i>	gingerbread cookies
<i>Corduroy</i>	teddy bear, button, overalls
<i>Hot Hippo</i>	flannel board story

The interactive reading also included a discussion of the book and its cover, the introduction of vocabulary used, and definitions and conversations that incorporated students' personal experiences with the story.

3.3 Data analysis

With a total of over 23,000 transcribed words from pre- and posttests, data analyses were needed to determine any changes in students' stories facilitated by the intervention.

After reviewing various measurement options, it was decided that the following three measures of analysis would be employed:

- Total number of different nouns uttered
- Total number of correct verbs used
- Total number of F-Units uttered

The three measures were counted in both pre- and posttest results and the differences were calculated to determine the effects of the independent variable using one-tailed Mann-Whitney tests and the Kruskal-Wallis test.

These measures have been defined in the following sections.

3.3.1 Total number of different nouns uttered

The acquisition of vocabulary is a key factor in learning a language, whether the learner is acquiring a first or second language. In first language acquisition, studies have shown that pre-school children learn, on average, five new words per day over their first six years of life (Read, 1980, as cited in Senechal & Cornel, 1993). For those acquiring a second language, vocabulary acquisition is a serious linguistic challenge and requires special attention. Whether it is first or second language acquisition, vocabulary is essential for comprehension and expression of language skills.

As Feitelson et al. (1986) noted, books intended for kindergarten-aged children often included themes and vocabulary outside the young children's everyday experiences and, thus, extended vocabulary acquisition. In another study with pre-school children, Elley (1989) found that oral story reading constituted a significant source of vocabulary

acquisition and widened their knowledge of the world. This finding supports the labelling practice (refer to Section 2.2) whereby mothers and other caregivers support vocabulary acquisition as they provide names and labels for items identified together through daily activities which include book reading. A more in-depth discussion of vocabulary acquisition and its connection to reading can be found in Sections 2.2.1.3 and 2.3.1.3.

In order to measure vocabulary acquisition, a noun diversity count was employed. This measured the number of different nouns produced in each story of the four story protocols used in pre- and posttest results. Each noun was counted only once per story with no benefit for repetition of a noun. Days of the week, months of the year, and kinship nouns such as Mom, Dad, and Granny, were included. This vocabulary required a knowledge of English lexicon for their use. Proper nouns were not included in the count, such as Songololo, Chicken Lickin', Pick N Pay, and children's names. Many of these proper nouns were not English words and were memorized to identify places or people that even non-English speakers used in identification. Pronouns were also not included.

3.3.2 Total number of correct verbs used

Verbs are a key component in English acquisition as "the bridge from semantics to grammar" and "the carriers of English morphology" (Bates et al., 1988:161). In young children's early language, verbs provide the link between one-word speech and phrases. Very little research has been directed at how young children acquire verb use (Tomasello, 1992). In the Bates et al. study as well as the Valdez-Menchaca and Whitehurst (1992) study on shared reading, verb usage was considered a "booster rocket", or a method of catching up in early lexical development, for children who were behind linguistically with their peers.

In a study with first language children's narratives, Berman (1988) found that 60% of younger children (ages 4-5) used past tense in story recall while 90% of ages 7-9 used past tense. The use of past tense in story recall protocols then dips back to 60% with adults and children older than 11. Mixed narratives, or using two or more tenses, were more common with younger children because they "have not settled on a fixed mode of predicating but

shift tense as they move from one picture to another and from one predicate to another" (Berman, 1988:484).

In the acquisition of verbs, Bates et al. (1988:161) suggest that "they play a role in the productive analysis of the grammar; but they are also implicated heavily in rote processes". It seems probable that both repetition and scaffolding play a part in the acquisition and that the rote processes can be affected by increased book exposure and discussion.

In this research, five verb tenses were counted: simple present, simple progressive, simple past, past progressive, and future (using "will" or "going to"). Correct uses of the five tenses in both form and function were tabulated. Incorrect uses were counted only as tense errors and not distributed into various tenses due to the mixed narratives. For example, one student in the Interactive Reading Group said "I'm choose the book"; she could be using the progressive tense incorrectly ("I'm choosing") or the present tense incorrectly ("I choose"). The number of correctly used verbs was then compared with the number of incorrectly used verbs in the pre- and posttest protocols. This analysis provided an indication of the improvement in correct verb usage by the experimental groups.

3.3.3 Total number of F-units uttered

The third measure of analysis dealt with text length. Several measurement tools were reviewed before selecting the F-unit (Lieber, 1980). Before discussing the F-unit in detail, the other possible options for measurement will be reviewed.

The orthographic sentence, which is sometimes used in text and discourse analyses, was one option for measuring the basic unit of text length. The sentence was problematic for several reasons. First, because this study employed oral story-telling in the pre- and posttests, sentences were both difficult to define and informal in their narrative style. The student's oral stories had writing-like features but could not be transcribed into narrowly defined written narrative. Especially with early ESL learners, the sentence unit was not suitable where the connector "and" was employed to link multiple sentences, such as:

He lived with his mother and they were poor and they don't have no food to eat and Jack's mother said, 'Go and sell this cow' . . .

Siphosethu, Posttest

Run-on sentences using the connector "and" were a frequent occurrence in the students' recall protocols. Another problem was the wide variance of sentence lengths. Some students used short, concise sentences to tell their stories while others incorporated subordinate clauses, such as:

This one is sleeping. This one is a eat a food. This one a eating. This one a eating. This one a sleeping.

Sehlukile, Pretest

And they stop and they fix it and when they finished, they just stop and talk and they smile and they say. . .

Lebohang, Posttest

Both problems made it difficult to use the orthographic sentence as the measurement of text length.

As the investigation of measurement tools continued, the clause seemed to be the most likely candidate for analysis of linguistic data below the sentence level. Two methods of clause analysis were identified. The first method involves the use of T-units (Hunt, 1965, as cited in Fox, 1993; Morrow, 1985). The T-unit, or "minimal terminal unit", is defined as an independent clause with subordinate clauses integrated into the independent clause.

Another clausal analysis measure is the F-unit or "functional" unit. Lieber (1980:58) states that "the clause, together with a variety of phrasal structures equivalent to clauses, emerges as a suitable unit for the segmentation of discourse". While the T-unit and F-unit measures are very similar by definition, the F-unit is preferred for two reasons. It is the only measure which has been previously used for ESL analysis (Lieber, 1980; Pretorius, 1993). As Lieber (1980:57) notes this measure is "flexible enough to account for the variations from standard

English sentence structure commonly found in ESL students' compositions". Secondly, it allows simple sentences to be counted as a single F-unit while conjoined sentences (see Siphosethu's text above) can be counted as more than one F-unit. The F-unit was selected for the unit measure in this data analysis.

Shown below are some clauses that demonstrate F-unit analysis. Slashes (//) indicate F-unit boundaries.

And the tackies is four rand //and in the bus go // and he see the cars // . . .

Lebohang, Posttest

And he bought me a bag // and he bought me a cap // and we claimed a taxi //
and we went home // and at home after that we went to the butcher // . . .

Tony, Pretest

Some F-unit contents were problematic, though. Because of the narrative nature of the data, all F-units were reviewed to ensure that they were contributing to the story-line. Raban (1988:15) noted that certain language constructions occur only in speech and not in writing because "writers can take more time to plan than speakers who may lose their turn if they take too long over what they have to say". This was true for the students in this study and, therefore, two additional sub-categories were established. These two categories were not included in the meaningful F-unit count:

redundant: when the same exact wording was used to repeat an F-unit and it did not contribute to the story, this was counted as a redundancy, such as:

And then my mommy is say // and then my mommy say he say my he he say
// my happy birthday is gonna come

Sharol, Pretest

The underlined section was counted as non-informative and was not included in the F-unit count. Often, students were thinking over their words and repeated phrases in order to stall for "thinking time".

repair: because these stories were oral, students would sometimes make a false start and then re-think the story and rephrase or correct their thought, such as:

And he said "let's go"// they go home // then they went home // . . .

Vinolia, Posttest

The underlined section was counted as non-informative and was not included in the F-unit count. Due to the oral nature of the story recall, students had to formulate "aloud" their stories and corrected their grammar as they spoke.

The total number of F-units were calculated for pre- and posttests in order to identify differences in the length of the subjects' contributions.

Samples of transcripts can be found in Appendix E. A sample analyzed transcript can be found in Appendix F.

3.4 Conclusion

In Chapter Three, the research design, procedures, and analysis were discussed in detail. The design of the project was defined and the setting, subjects, and materials were explained. Using the data analysis protocols set out in Section 3.3, the analysis of the research will be presented and discussed in Chapter Four.

Chapter Four

Findings: Results and Interpretations

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the analyses of data for this study. As discussed in Section 1.7, the first hypothesis is non-directional and was formulated to determine whether there were any significant differences between the three groups on gain scores of three language development measures: noun diversity, correct verb usage, and number of F-units.

Further exploratory testing then followed to contrast two groups at a time. The second and third hypotheses are two-way hypotheses which are used to determine which experimental group is most successful in its treatment using gain score comparisons. In order to compare the groups, two variables were manipulated -- the amount of exposure to reading and the influence of interactive reading. The relevant hypotheses and assumptions were formulated and each hypothesis was tested. The results and a discussion for each hypothesis are provided. Other qualitative benefits and observations are discussed at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Quantitative Analysis

Because this was a small, quasi-experimental study and a normal distribution could not be assumed, non-parametric tests were selected to provide the most accurate assessment of the data and maintain a homogeneous analysis with all the variables. These tests are suited for small numbers of subjects and do not assume any distribution.

Initial tests were run to determine any significant differences between the two experimental groups and the control group. For this three-way comparison, Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric analog one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to compare the

groups' gain scores for the three measures: noun diversity, correct verb use, and number of F-units. The univariate Kruskal-Wallis test compares the average rank of each group in the three-group comparison. If significance is not found with Kruskal-Wallis testing, it does not necessarily mean that the variables being contrasted are not different. It is possible for results on a three-way test to conceal significances between pairs of groups. This first step was taken to explore areas of interest and determine the subsequent steps in examining the variables.

As a result of the findings on the Kruskal-Wallis tests, it was decided that Mann-Whitney U-tests should be utilized to investigate any patterns exposed or areas of specific interest. This authoritative non-parametric two-sample test is often used to detect shift alternatives and utilizes the rank sum of two groups in contrast. It works on the mean rank sums, based on gain scores, of two groups at a time. The first set of Mann-Whitney U-tests were applied to the gain scores on the average rank sums between the pre- and posttest results of the Reading Only Group as compared to the Control Group, in order to manipulate the amount-of-exposure variable and determine the effect of additional reading on the experimental group. The second set of Mann-Whitney U-tests were applied to the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in order to isolate interaction as a variable and determine whether the style of reading makes a difference to the discourse development of the subjects.

The statistical data were all analyzed by computer, using the Minitab, Release 12, program.

Differences found to be significant at the 1 percent ($p \leq .01$) level of significance are termed *highly significant* and shown with two asterisks (**). Those found significant at the 5 percent ($p \leq .05$) level of significance are termed *significant* and shown with one asterisk (*). Differences at more than 5 percent but not greater than 10 percent are considered *marginal* and are also discussed.

Initially, to ensure the comparability of the three groups, a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to compare the three groups (Interactive Reading, Reading Only, and the Control Group) on pretest data. The findings proved that the groups did not differ on any of the dependent pretest values at the $p \leq .05$ range and, therefore, the group placements were fair.

In the following section, the three-group comparisons using the Kruskal-Wallis tests are discussed.

4.2.1 Hypothesis 1

H1 There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of discourse development skills.

There are two assumptions underlying this hypothesis. One is that ESL children at this age who receive increased exposure to reading through an interactive style will improve their English discourse skills and that this would be demonstrated through the intervention given to the Interactive Reading Group. The second assumption is that children who receive increased exposure to reading, without interaction, will also improve their English discourse skills (as demonstrated by the Reading Only Group) but not to the same extent due to the missing element of interactive participation.

It was anticipated that the Interactive Reading Group would make the most significant gains in discourse development skills, followed by the Reading Only Group, and that the Control Group would improve only marginally.

The Kruskal-Wallis tests will show differences between the three groups, but cannot demonstrate which group performs best. This general hypothesis will be tested only via its three subhypotheses in order to measure the three areas of discourse development.

4.2.1.1 Subhypothesis 1a

In order to complete a non-parametric three-group comparison, the Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized with each subhypothesis. This measured the rank sum scores between pre- and posttest data on discourse development skills, as defined by the three measures determined in Section 3.3. The first subhypothesis focuses on noun diversity and is written as:

H1a There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of noun diversity.

It is anticipated that the Kruskal-Wallis would show a difference between the three groups in terms of noun diversity. For aspiring language learners, vocabulary acquisition is essential to learning the new language. As Mace-Matluck (1989:199) noted in their study of reading with bilingual children, "a well-developed system of oral language assumes a functional vocabulary, the ability to discover the structure and meaning underlying spoken utterances", and an awareness of the relationship between individual words and a higher syntactic form. This hypothesis seeks to measure the vocabulary acquisition, using noun diversity results.

4.2.1.1.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H01a There will be no difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of noun diversity.

The results were:

TABLE 4.1 Noun Diversity: Three-Group Comparison

Kruskall-Wallis Test		Interactive Reading	Reading Only	Control Group
	Sample Size	6	5	5
Noun Diversity	Mean Ranks	12.2	6.9	5.7
	KW=5.88 df=2 p value=.053			

* $p \leq .05$

The null hypothesis is rejected at the $p \leq .10$ level and is very close to the $p \leq .05$ level. While the Kruskal-Wallis test does not show which group is better in the noun diversity category, it does demonstrate a marginal difference between the groups.

4.2.1.1.2 Discussion

While the results did not meet the *significant* level, the three-group comparison demonstrated a marginally significant difference in noun diversity. Several similar studies that spanned a longer intervention period (Feitelson et al., 1986; Heath, 1982; Rosenhouse et al., 1997; Snow & Goldfield, 1983; Wells, 1986) found ties between additional reading and the growth of vocabulary. While the Kruskal-Wallis test highlights differences between the three groups, it does not indicate which group is best. Further testing, using a comparison between two groups, is necessary to determine the most successful group in terms of noun diversity.

4.2.1.2 Subhypothesis 1b

The second subhypothesis addresses the second discourse development measure -- correct verb usage -- and is written as follows:

H1b There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of correct verb usage.

It was anticipated that the Kruskal-Wallis test would show a difference between the three groups in terms of correct verb usage. While the Kruskal-Wallis cannot demonstrate which group is superior, it can point to differences between the groups. With increased exposure to storybook reading (and additional explanations and discussions for the Interactive Reading Group), the experimental groups were expected to demonstrate a higher level of attainment on correct verb use.

4.2.1.2.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H01b There will be no difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of correct verb usage.

The results were:

TABLE 4.2 Correct Verb Usage: Three-Group Comparison

Kruskall-Wallis Test		Interactive Reading	Reading Only	Control Group
	Sample Size	6	5	5
Correct Verb Use	Mean Ranks	11.4	6.2	7.3
	KW=3.74 df=2 p value=.154			

It is not possible to reject the null hypothesis at the $p \leq .05$ for the mean ranks between the three groups in terms of correct verb usage. Therefore, it cannot be said that any of the three groups differ significantly based on the 12-week intervention.

4.2.1.2.2 Discussion

While the results were disappointing on the Kruskal-Wallis test for correct verb usage, there were other reasons to consider this area of study. As noted in the previous discussion, a lack of significance with this non-parametric test does not necessarily mean that the variables being contrasted are not different because it is possible for results on a three-way test to conceal significances between pairs of groups. As well, verb usage has recently emerged as a field of interest in discourse development (Tomasello & Merrifield, 1995) and requires a more detailed study in order to determine progressive changes in this discourse development area. In two previous studies (Valdez-Menchaca & Whitehurst, 1992; Bates et al., 1988), verbs played a key role in language development. For these reasons, it was decided that further analysis would be done with the correct verb usage findings by comparing two groups through Hypotheses 2 and 3.

4.2.1.3 Subhypothesis 1c

The third subhypothesis investigates the third discourse development measure -- number of F-units -- and is written as follows:

H1c There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of number of F-units.

It was anticipated that the Kruskal-Wallis test would show a difference between the three groups in terms of number of F-units used in gain scores between pre- and posttest results.

4.2.1.3.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H01c There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group, the Reading Only Group, and the Control Group in terms of number of F-units.

The results were:

TABLE 4.3 Number of F-Units: Three-Group Comparison

Kruskall-Wallis Test		Interactive Reading	Reading Only	Control Group
	Sample Size	6	5	5
Number of F-units	Mean Ranks	11.1	7.1	6.8
	KW=2.84 df=2 p value=.242			

It is not possible to reject the null hypothesis at the $p \leq .05$ level for the mean ranks of the three groups on number of F-units. Thus it cannot be said that any group is better than another in terms of number of F-units.

4.2.1.3.2 Discussion

Once again, the results were not as promising as expected. The number of clauses had been used in previous studies to determine syntax development (Berman, 1988; Whitehurst et al., 1988) and it was hoped that similar findings would support this syntax growth. As noted in the previous section, though, Kruskal-Wallis testing can conceal significances between pairs of groups. For these reasons and because this research started with a limited number of

hypotheses, it was decided to pursue this area of interest through two-group comparisons using Mann-Whitney tests.

4.2.2 Hypothesis 2

As discussed earlier in this section, the second hypothesis utilizes the rank sum of two groups in contrast. The Mann-Whitney test was completed on the gain scores of the Reading Only Group as compared to the Control Group, in order to manipulate the amount-of-exposure variable and determine the effect of additional reading on the experimental group. The general hypothesis is:

H2 There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the discourse development measures.

The hypothesis predicts that students who receive increased exposure to stories will increase their discourse skills following intervention. This hypothesis does not involve interactive reading but looks only at the amount of reading completed with the Reading Only Group versus the lack of reading with the Control Group.

This hypothesis will only be tested via its three subhypotheses.

4.2.2.1 Subhypothesis 2a

Similar to Hypothesis 1, these subhypotheses are broken into the three discourse measures: noun diversity, correct verb usage, and number of F-units. Only two groups are compared, though, using the Mann-Whitney test. The first subhypothesis is:

H2a There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the occurrence of noun diversity.

It is anticipated that additional storybook reading will contribute to increased noun diversity in the gain scores of the Reading Only Group.

4.2.2.1.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H02a There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the occurrence of noun diversity.

In order to test this hypothesis, a one-tailed Mann-Whitney test was applied to the average rank sums between the pre- and posttest results for noun diversity of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group. The results were:

TABLE 4.4 Noun Diversity: Reading Only Group vs. Control Group

Mann-Whitney Test	Reading Only Group	Control Group
Mean Ranks of Gain Scores	6.3	4.7
p-value	.2324	

It is not possible to reject at the $p \leq .05$ level for the mean ranks between the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of noun diversity. Thus it cannot be said that the Reading Only Group is better than the Control Group in terms of noun diversity.

4.2.2.1.2 Discussion

With this finding, it appears that an increase in the amount of stories read to five- and six-year-old ESL children is not necessarily an effective tool in teaching vocabulary as defined by noun diversity. While this result was disappointing initially, a more thorough investigation of similar studies gives some clues to the possible reasons behind the results.

Several reading studies which featured first language learners found that reading alone could support vocabulary acquisition. Elley (1989) found that additional reading without explanation supported a 15% increase in vocabulary gain; with teacher explanations, these figures more than doubled. Eller et al. (1988) discovered that re-reading storybooks could increase key word recall through a gradual process, contributed to by the re-reading of the story and the imitation of language by the subjects.

Reading studies using interactive styles supported greater vocabulary acquisition. Feitelson et al. (1986) ran a six-month study with Israeli first graders where the experimental group received whole-class reading for the last 20 minutes of each school day. The students who received the additional reading outscored the control group on measures of decoding, reading comprehension, and active use of language. Vivas (1996) worked with Venezuelan kindergarten and first grade children who received additional reading at either home or school in a naturalistic environment, with discussions and explanations of the books. Results showed significant improvements in their comprehension and verbal expression. Both of these studies noted improvements with first language learners and interactive reading. Although her study dealt with only first language subjects, Heath (1982) surmised that the presence or absence of storybook reading was not as important to literacy attainment as how the process was mediated by an involved adult.

This mediation by an adult is a necessary ingredient with ESL students. In the nine ESL studies reported on by Elley (1991:380), the "shared book approach" (refer to Section

2.3.1.1) using "a great deal of free-ranging discussion about the events in the story, the characters, and any unfamiliar language" was employed in eight. Only one of the nine showed that children learned the meanings of unfamiliar words from context alone and that study combined both first and second language learners. Zimmerman (1997) studied ESL college students and found that moderate amounts of reading must be accompanied by interactive vocabulary instruction in order for students to gain in vocabulary knowledge. These results were corroborated by the students' perceptions of how best to learn words. In a study of college-age Japanese language learners, Loschky (1994) found that there was no significant difference between two non-interaction groups in terms of comprehension of input or vocabulary acquisition while better results were found for the group with the chance for negotiated interaction.

In this 12-week ESL study, the intervention did not allow for any interaction and students' questions were not answered nor the books discussed. This was an unnatural situation with young children, especially for these young students who had witnessed interactive storytelling previously within the whole group story-time. The only English speaker in the Reading Only Group was very authoritative and served as the "leader" of the group, reminding others that they were not allowed to talk or ask questions. Because of her personality and English expertise, the group did not question her position of authority.

One particular event points to the unnaturalness of restricting the free flow of children's curiosity and enthusiasm. On September 2, South Africa celebrated a much-publicized Literacy Day and each student in the Grade 0 class was presented with a gift-wrapped book to take home. All the students were very excited and took their books home that evening, only to bring them back the next day and beg the teacher and researcher to read them non-stop. Because this would have invalidated the Control Group results, this request was declined but not without great regret on the part of the students and the readers. Books were becoming an important part of the classroom environment and to the children's everyday learning experience at school.

In answer to Elley's question (Section 1.7) which suggested a need for more research to determine which characteristics in stories contribute to learning, it was found that additional reading did not contribute to vocabulary acquisition for young ESL children in this study.

4.2.2.2 Subhypothesis 2b

H2b There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the correct use of verbs.

This hypothesis predicts that an increase in the amount of reading with pre-school ESL students will contribute to correct verb usage. The number of correctly used verbs in both form and function were counted and categorized into five tenses (simple present, simple progressive, simple past, past progressive, and future). The pretest results were tabulated by comparing the number of correctly used verbs against the number of total verbs used. Posttest results were measured in the same fashion and the average rank sums for each group were compared.

4.2.2.2.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H02b There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the correct use of verbs.

In order to test this hypothesis, a one-tailed Mann-Whitney test was applied to the average rank sums of the pre- and posttest results for correct use of verbs, comparing the number of correct verbs used against the number of total verbs.

TABLE 4.5 Correct Verb Usage: Reading Only Group vs. Control Group

Mann-Whitney Test	Reading Only Group	Control Group
Mean Ranks of Gain Scores	5.2	5.8
p-value	>0.05	

It is not possible to reject the null hypothesis at the $p \leq .05$ level for the rank mean between the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of correct verbs used. Thus, it cannot be said that the Reading Only Group is better than the Control Group in terms of correct verb usage.

4.2.2.2.2 Discussion

In this study, it appears that additional reading did not contribute to an increased number of correctly used verbs by the Reading Only Group. Some of the same points discussed in the previous subhypothesis apply here. The inter-group dynamics, along with the planned intervention, controlled any discussion. While the students heard the correct verb tense used in the stories, there was no rehearsal or imitation. As Ninio (1983) noted, imitation is employed with less well-learned but already comprehended words. These students, however, were not allowed to practice or imitate new phrases or words.

While some educators point to the simplistic language used to address young children orally, written texts offer more complex and sophisticated grammatical forms in written texts (Perera, 1984). It was incorrectly anticipated that an increased exposure to stories would contribute to the Grade 0 ESL students' ability to acquire correct verb tenses.

For many students, some changes in verbs were observable. An example of this was Tony, a Reading Only Group member. In his pretest of *Not So Fast, Songololo* (Daly, 1985), Tony noted, "he saw his grandpa what he *was look at*". In the posttest, Tony described in the

same story, "Songololo *was look at-ing* in the toys" and "and putting his leg on top and *look at-ing* the beautiful socks". Tony may have been using incorrect segmentation by thinking that the verb was "look at" and, therefore, using the past continuous form of "his" verb correctly. While no form of "to look at" was used correctly, Tony had demonstrated progress in his interlanguage development.

4.2.2.3 Subhypothesis 2c

H2c There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the number of F-units used.

The assumptions underlying this hypothesis are that students who receive more storybook reading will increase their language acquisition and demonstrate this ability through more numerous F-units in posttest results.

4.2.2.3.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H02c There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the number of F-units.

In order to test this hypothesis, once again a one-tailed Mann-Whitney test was applied to the average rank sums between the pre- and posttest results for the number of F-units used between the Reading Only Group and the Control Group.

TABLE 4.6 Number of F-units: Reading Only Group vs. Control Group

Mann-Whitney Test	Reading Only Group	Control Group
Mean Ranks of Gain Scores	5.8	5.2
p-value	.4175	

It is not possible to reject at the $p \leq .05$ level for the rank sum difference between the Reading Only Group and the Control Group in terms of the number of F-units. Therefore, it cannot be said that the Reading Only Group is better than the Control Group in this measure.

4.2.2.3.2 Discussion

Additional reading does not appear to contribute to a greater number of clauses, as measured by the number of F-units produced. Similar to the findings of the two previous hypotheses, the intergroup dynamics of the Reading Only Group and the need for reinforcement may have played a role in the outcome.

The finding is similar to the Control Group results of the Whitehurst et al. (1988) study where Control Group parents were instructed to continue their customary reading in the home and were not trained in an interactive reading style, referred to as "dialogic reading". Minimal progress was made in language development, as measured by number of clauses, by the Control Group.

4.2.2.4 General discussion of additional reading variable

By comparing the Reading Only Group with the Control Group, the effect of additional reading exposure with ESL students can be measured in this study. This method allowed an investigation of whether simply increasing exposure to stories with six-year-old ESL children had an effect on discourse development. The Reading Only Group had 108

additional stories in a non-interactive style while the Control Group received additional time with crafts or free-play time.

The additional storybook reading may have had an effect on the Reading Only Group subjects but it was not significant in this 12-week study. Several studies using first language speakers found significant results with reading only programs but the findings were more significant with an interactive style. With ESL students, additional explanations, discussions, use of realia were required to gain comprehensible input and build a platform for the students' language gain.

4.2.3 Hypothesis 3

In order to determine the contribution of the style of reading on children's discourse development at this age, the Interactive Reading Group was contrasted with the Reading Only Group on the same three measures. This allowed for the amount of exposure to stories to remain a constant while manipulating the reading style variable. The general hypothesis is:

H3 There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of the discourse development measures.

This hypothesis predicts that students who receive the interactive style of reading will increase their English language discourse skills; both groups received additional reading but with different styles.

In the following section, three similar hypotheses are posed to determine the effect of interactive reading on the three language measures: noun diversity, correct verb use, and the number of F-units. The hypothesis will only be tested via its three subhypotheses.

4.2.3.1 Subhypothesis 3a

H3a There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of the occurrence of noun diversity.

The assumption underlying of this hypothesis is that the noun diversity used by students in recalling pre- and posttest stories will change significantly due to the interactive reading intervention. While this hypothesis is very similar to Hypothesis 2a, the two groups being compared both received equal amounts of reading but a different style of reading. The Interactive Reading Group, with its discussion of vocabulary and story comprehension along with the use of realia, was expected to show the greatest improvement over pretest results.

4.2.3.1.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H03a There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of the occurrence of noun diversity.

The one-tailed Mann-Whitney test was applied to the rank sum scores of the pre- and posttest results for the two groups receiving equal amounts of reading but different styles.

The results showed:

TABLE 4.7 Noun Diversity: Interactive Reading vs. Reading Only Groups

Mann-Whitney Test	Interactive Reading Group	Reading Only Group
Mean Ranks of Gain Scores	8.0	3.6
p-value	.0179*	

* $p \leq .05$

The null hypothesis is rejected at the $p \leq .05$ level for the Interactive Reading Group using the Mann-Whitney test. Thus it is possible to say that the Interactive Reading Group is better than the Reading Only Group in terms of noun diversity.

4.2.3.1.2 Discussion

By measuring noun diversity in the children's storytelling protocols, a significant contribution to vocabulary acquisition can be determined. Vocabulary acquisition is a key factor in language learning and, as noted in Section 2.2, labelling, scaffolding, and repetition contribute to this process. While Hypothesis 2a also investigated noun diversity, the findings showed that an increase in the amount of storybook reading did not contribute to increased vocabulary acquisition. With subhypothesis 3a, the independent variable was style of reading and it appears that the interactive method of using explanations, realia, and discussions enhanced the learning opportunities and offered the subjects the chance to imitate and rehearse their newly-acquired vocabulary. As Fox (1993:38) noted in her study of children's narratives, words show us that children are prepared to "take risks with language which is in the process of being acquired".

In this study, the results showed a significant increase in noun diversity for the Interactive Reading Group. The use of scaffolding -- providing a series of gradual stepping stones for

the new language learner -- appears to have made a distinct contribution to the results of this group. As Sulzby & Teale (1991:732) note:

Viewing storybook reading as social interaction has revealed that reading books aloud to children is fundamentally an act of construction. The language and social interaction that surround the text are critical to the nature of this construction; in fact, they appear to be good candidates for what makes storybook reading so powerful an influence in young children's literacy development.

As Mace-Matluck et al. (1989:199) pointed out in a detailed study of reading with bilingual children, ESL children "must bring their knowledge of the spoken language to bear upon the written language". In order to expand their oral language, new language learners must comprehend and imitate new vocabulary so that they can make progress in their L2. This requires an interactive style of reading for comprehensive input. As noted in Section 4.2.2.1.2, ESL students required the support of interactive learning. As Elley (1991), Zimmerman (1997), and Loschky (1994) found, interaction provided the support necessary for language learners. Carger (1993) also discovered that through repeated readings and interactive participation, kindergarten ESL students expanded vocabulary knowledge and increased syntactic development.

Of the four tests used, the data obtained from two wordless picture tests (refer to Section 3.2.4.2 and 3.2.4.3) provided the best reflection of the subjects' vocabulary diversity because the students used their own vocabulary to describe the action in the pictures and did not rely on the pre-read story (e.g. *Not So Fast*, *Songololo*) or their own personal imaginative story. In analyzing "The Boy", the five wordless pictures were set out in an established order with the request of "please tell me the story" to each child individually. In Table 4.8 below, the different nouns used to retell the story are presented. Three children from each group were selected. The most and least successful child in each group (based on percentage increase) are not shown so that outliers did not contribute to the chart.

TABLE 4.8 Noun Diversity by three students from each group

Group	Name	Pretest Nouns (in order used)	Posttest Nouns (in order used)
Interactive	Pabello	night, book, mommy, food, baby	boy, morning, breakfast, school, mealie, bread, night, book, food, bedroom
Interactive	Sharol	boy, eyes, mealie, book, cap, chairs	boy, night, day, sun, home, mommy, story, day, one, circle, cap
Interactive	Funanani	schoolbag, school, house, tree, book, food, bed	time, night, school, morning, story, book, mother, food, one, eyes, dark
Reading Only	Laggie	baby, night, breakfast, school, book	sun, morning, breakfast, supper, book, night
Reading Only	Sehlukile	one, food	book, mommy, sun
Reading Only	Vinolia	night, day, book	boy, morning, book, sun, breakfast, school, town, bread, night, mother
Control	Lawrence	boy, sun, bread, juice, mommy, food night	night, sun, breakfast, school, things, mommy, food
Control	Mbali	girl, school, breakfast, home, everything, mommy, food, baby, sun, candle	day, girl, something, porridge, garden, mommy, mealie, break, book, lunchtime, night, window, curtains
Control	Siphosihle	boy, night, morning, breakfast, girl, book	boy, morning, breakfast, supertime, night, book, toys

While all of the students chose a wide range of vocabulary to tell a story using the same pictures, the greatest increase was with the Interactive Reading Group. The comparison showed significant results in noun diversity.

The use of the three-book approach (refer to Section 3.2.6) seems to have played a role in vocabulary acquisition. The repeated readings of favorite storybooks provided recurrent and predictable language which supported language acquisition. Reading a new book each day provided the scaffolding to introduce new vocabulary to the students but needed continued reinforcement through repeated readings. Similar to the results found by Senechal (1997), multiple readings of the same book using an interactive style were more helpful to the acquisition of expressive vocabulary than single readings of multiple texts. With the learning opportunities provided in interactive reading, the students in this study could rehearse and receive reinforcement for their expressive language.

4.2.3.2 Subhypothesis 3b

H3b There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of correct verb usage.

The assumption underlying this hypothesis is that the verbs used in recalling the stories would be more likely to be correctly used where the students were exposed to storybook reading with interactive participation. The interactive reading style would allow the children to experience both increased exposure and rehearsal with verbs due to the discussions and role-plays involved.

The number of correctly used verbs in both form and function were counted and categorized into five tenses (simple present, simple progressive, simple past, past progressive, and future). The pretest results were tabulated by comparing the number of correctly used verbs against the number of total verbs used. Posttest results were measured in the same fashion and the average rank sums for each group were compared.

4.2.3.2.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H03b There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of correct verb usage.

The one-tailed Mann-Whitney test was applied, as in previous tests, with the following results:

TABLE 4.9 Correct Verb Usage: Interactive Reading vs. Reading Only Groups

Mann-Whitney Test	Interactive Reading Group	Reading Only Group
Mean Ranks of Gain Scores	7.7	4.0
p-value	.0414*	

* $p \leq .05$

The null hypothesis is rejected at the $p \leq .05$ level for the rank sum difference between the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of correct verb usage during story recall protocols. It is possible to say that the Interactive Reading Group is better than the Reading Only Group in terms of correct verb usage.

4.2.3.2.2 Discussion

In first language acquisition, young children shift from single words, usually nouns or labels, to more developed multi-word speech which incorporates verbs. This switch is evident with second language learners as well. As Section 3.3.2 pointed out, verbs can serve as a "booster rocket" for some children's language learning.

For an increased knowledge and use of verbs, both repetition and scaffolding play a part. The Interactive Reading Group gained from the increased book exposure, re-reading of books, and most importantly, the interactive style. The interaction provided by the teacher seemed to reinforce the verb use and allow for individual scaffolding to encourage competence. Valdez-Menchaca and Whitehurst (1992) found that interactive reading contributed to the diversity of nouns and verbs as well as a child's efforts to initiate and continue conversations.

The diversity and correct use of verbs was evident with Interactive Reading Group subjects, such as Pabello. In his pretest telling the wordless story, *The Boy*, he described it as follows:

Eating at night. Is sleeping at night. You eating at night. Wake up at the morning. Is reading a book. The mommy is busy doing a food. The baby is sleeping at night. The baby. . .

While he used a variety of verbs, the tenses were sometimes incorrect and the story was more a description of each picture in isolation rather than a chain of events. His posttest story recall, following intervention, was:

There was an old boy. He's sleeping and when and when he start morning, is wake up. And is eating his breakfast. And when he's coming to school, he's eating a mealie. And he's eating some bread and he's reading at night and mother said, "read that book" and they gave him some food and he's in his own bedroom.

Pabello's second telling of the story incorporated a higher percentage of correctly used verbs and included story schemata features and coordinating and subordinating clauses. While he used a mixed narrative, moving between tenses, as described by Berman (1988) and in Section 3.3.2, this is expected in early language development. Pabello's progress in interlanguage development is evident.

4.2.3.3 Subhypothesis 3c

H3c There will be a significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of the occurrence of the number of F-units used.

In this last hypothesis, the underlying assumption is that the number of F-units would increase for the children who were exposed to an interactive style of reading. Because their expressive language would be enhanced through comprehension and verbal expression, it was assumed that the ESL students would show an increased number of F-units.

4.2.3.3.1 Results

The null version of this hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H03c There will be no significant difference between the gain scores of the Interactive Reading Group and the Reading Only Group in terms of the occurrence of the number of F-units used.

On this last hypothesis, a Mann-Whitney test was applied in similar fashion. The results are as follows:

TABLE 4.10 Number of F-units: Interactive Reading vs. Reading Only Groups

Mann-Whitney Test	Interactive Reading Group	Reading Only Group
Mean Ranks of Gain Scores	7.4	4.3
p-value	.0721	

The null hypothesis is rejected at the $p \leq .10$ level using the Mann-Whitney test. Thus, the Interactive Reading Group was marginally better than the Reading Only Group in producing increased F-units during the posttest results.

4.2.3.3.2 Discussion

The increase in the number of F-units used in pre- and posttests for this experimental group may reflect the effect of increased reading and interaction on syntactic growth during the 12-week intervention. The Interactive Reading Group produced more clauses, as measured in F-units. Similar to the study of maternal speech referred to in Section 2.2, a "linguistically competent conversational partner" can contribute to the child's development of syntax (Hoff-Ginsburg, 1986:162) and target the discussion level to the individual attainment of each student in a small group.

This finding complemented another similar study. As Whitehurst et al. (1988) found, young children whose parents increased their interactive reading (through open-ended questions, expansions, and answering questions) had a higher frequency of phrases and a lower frequency of single words.

Because the results do not show a significant difference at the $p \leq .05$, further research is needed to ensure that interactive reading can contribute to the length of the narratives. As Berman (1988:476) discovered in a similar study, the findings "show that sheer overall length of narratives is not necessarily a valid criterion for evaluating their quality". Subjects in that study ranged from a short and concise narrative to a very detailed version and required a more qualitative analysis for definite results.

4.2.3.4 General discussion of interactive reading

By manipulating the reading style variable while maintaining the constant amount-of-exposure-to-stories variable, a true picture of the influence of interaction emerges. While the interactive style is not necessary for first language speakers, as evidenced by the numerous studies cited, it appears to be crucial to ESL students.

There have been a small number of reading studies dealing with ESL students referred to throughout the previous discussions and each of them has found a need for interactive participation in order for students to expand their language growth. As Elley (1989) noted, there are certain features of stories that are critical in determining the effectiveness of language learning and an interactive style appears to be one of the most important.

4.3 Qualitative findings

In Section 1.7.1, two other goals were established for this study:

- to note any change in the teacher's and students' attitude toward books;
- to observe any changes in the teacher's use of books in the classroom.

In the following sections, informal observations of the students and their teacher will be noted.

4.3.1 Changes in the teacher's and students' attitudes toward books

Like 72% of schools in South Africa, Thuthuka School did not have a library and the classrooms did not have reading books, other than textbooks, for the students to use. The Grade 0 teacher had, on two separate occasions, tried to escort the students to the local public library. With the size of the group and the traffic, this practice was discontinued. The researcher established a reading corner for the class in August, prior to the intervention. A

routine started that as a child finished his/her breakfast, he/she could wash his/her hands and move to the reading corner for quiet time. Various changes occurred in the classroom as a result of the addition of a reading corner and the intervention program. The teacher's own words, written a few months after the completion of the study, may best describe those differences:

At the beginning, the children could not hold the books correctly. They had to be told about the proper care and handling of the books. Barbara came in and started reading with my children. After a couple of weeks, I could notice a change in my children. Storytime became one of their favourite routines because they enjoyed reading and hearing the same stories repeated. A few of the stories became a favourite of the class. My children by then were able to tell a complete story by looking at the pictures. Their sentence structures were improving and most of all they were enjoying books and reading. After breakfast, the children would go and read a book. It was amazing to see them read and memorise some stories word by word. Apart from the storytime, they also enjoyed dramatising the stories they read. My children became confident and their English improved tremendously. Some of them enjoyed reading quietly by themselves while others enjoyed reading to a friend. Without a doubt, I must say that Barbara's reading programme had a great effect on my children's language. I am happy to say that the Grade One teacher is impressed with the pupils that I had, which are now in her class. They are the same children who are now quicker at learning their sounds. Today if you walk into my classroom, you will notice library books. My children read at any opportunity they have. My children will sometimes select a few favourite books. A few of them can read a complete book and recite the story word by word. Reading library books has contributed tremendously to my children's attitude and their language.

The teacher's comments highlighted the need for repetition which seemed to contribute to familiarity with the text and with the students' readiness to learn sounds.

Because the books were available to all students, changes were also noted with the Control Group students. Nelson, a less-fluent member of the Control Group, repeated his favorite library book when asked to tell a creative story during the posttest. The book, *It Didn't*

Frighten Me, (Goss & Harste, 1984) is a repetitive, predictable book where a different "scary" character appears on each page. The repetitive sentence in the book is:

One pitch black really dark night, right after mother turned off the light, I looked out my window, only to see, a _____ up in my tree, but that _____ didn't frighten me.

Nelson told the story like this:

One pink really dark night, right mother turn off the light, I look out my window, only to see, an orange alligator but this orange alligator didn't frighten me.

One fact was startling -- Nelson had very little command of English yet he could recite the negative form of the past tense. In general, while all students in this class gained from the reading corner, only the Interactive Reading Group, with their additional participatory style, showed significant differences in their overall pre- and posttest results.

4.3.2 Changes in the teacher's use of books in the classroom

By reading an interactive story to the entire class each intervention day, it was hoped that the teacher would note the children's response and incorporate changes to her teaching practice. This change did occur and the teacher's approach to reading evolved during and following the intervention. As noted previously in Section 3.2.1, the teacher's initial practice was to read one book each day to the children, with no repetition or interaction. As the intervention progressed and she observed the whole class interactive story, her style changed and she added vocabulary explanations and asked "why" and "what if" questions. She encouraged the participation of the students and allowed them to re-enact *The Three Little Pigs* and other class favorites.

As the teacher noted in the above comments, she added library books to her classroom in the next school year. In her follow-up comments, she also notes:

Barbara's reading programme has also had a great effect on my teaching because reading is a must in my classroom. Children recite or repeat the story they have been told. Some of them have the responsibility of telling the story to the class children while I am busy.

This teacher clearly decided to incorporate interactive reading into her classroom practices because she saw the benefits through the students' linguistic and literacy development.

4.4 Other observations

A wide variety of stories was introduced to the students. They quickly developed favorites and would request repeat readings of the same books often. As shown in Appendix D, several different types of books were requested: traditional folk tales, African stories, current children's literature. *The Three Little Pigs* and *Jack and the Beanstalk* were the boys' favorites; *Cinderella* and *Sleeping Beauty* were often requested by the girls. In Canada, Preece (1987) also found that the majority of her children's book retellings were traditional folk tales. Elley & Mangubhai (1983:66) worked with Fijian elementary students and found that the "popular stories of the western tradition", such as *The Three Little Pigs* and *Cinderella*, were consistent favorites and were "still effective in hooking children on to the reading habit".

Holdaway (1979:158) suggests that "the power of structures larger than the sentence", such as the repetitive, cumulative and hierarchical structure of *The Three Little Pigs*, aids in decoding for students. For the majority of the stories listed on Appendix D, these three factors are key elements in the books. Nelson's familiarity with *It Didn't Frighten Me* (refer to Section 4.3.1) shows the influence of repetitive and rhythmic sequences on language development.

The differences between spoken language and literary language could also be observed in the students' stories. While some students used conventional story markers (written language such as "once upon a time", "happily ever after"), others learned to use these terms after the intervention period. Although the twin brothers, Siphosethu (Interactive Reading Group) and Siphosihle (Control Group), both used phrases like "one day" and "there was a boy" in their pre- and posttest results, many children did not. These Interactive Reading Group students showed no conventional story markers in pretest results but added them in their posttest results:

Zandile In the pretest, Zandile described the wordless story, The Boy, as follows:

The baby is sleeping. . .and his brother is eating. . .and this one is reading a book. . . and the mommy doing the porridge, the food. . . and the baby is sleeping.

In her posttest, Zandile was much more descriptive in her picture story:

A boy was sleeping and he wake up and the sun was bright and she wake and she read and he wash hisself and he wear his old things and she eat and he read a book and she sleep again.

Cora In three of her four pretests, Cora used "one day" to begin her story. In her posttests, Cora utilized setting descriptions to enhance her story, such as "the sun came up" and "in the morning, the sun came out". She concluded one posttest with "that is the end of the story".

Sharol In her pretest of the picture story, The Boy, Sharol used the following description:

The boy is sleeping and then is eating and then is close his eyes and then is eating and then is eating a mealie and then is do is read a book and then is sleeping and then is sleeping and then the cap to do the chairs.

In the posttest of the same story, Sharol was more expressive in her setting description, as follows:

This boy was sleeping and it was the night and he was eating and the day is the sun's not shining and he eat the supper and him say that it was finished, the supper and is was drinking the water and the sun was shining and he eat and he eat and he finish all and him was working at home and tell his mommy and his mommy make him the food and he look and he read the story and he eat all the supper and was sleeping and was sleeping all the day and was the night and this one has got the round circle and see what's got a cap.

While story grammar familiarity was not incorporated into the data analysis of this study, it is evident that the participating students gained in this area of story structure. As Rosenhouse et al. (1997:179) noted:

It seems that both exposure to and discussion of numerous stories in class teach children story schemata and enable them to internalise the necessary elements of the story's structure. These elements are later used in children's own story productions.

Both Fox (1993) and Preece (1987) also found that children's story recall employed speech patterns found normally in written language. Storybook reading had a big effect on the language of these Thuthuka students -- both English language learning and literary language learning. As Holdaway (1979) noted, the "language of books" is the language of school and these students had gained in both areas.

4.5 Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the results of this study have been analyzed and discussed. Interactive reading has been shown to be an effective means of increasing noun diversity,

correct verb usage, and the number of F-units. Reading without the benefit of interactive participation did not contribute to young ESL learners' discourse development in this study.

In Chapter Five, the implications of these findings will be discussed.

Chapter Five

Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter has two primary aims:

- (i) to review the contribution of this research
- (ii) to outline the implications of this study, particularly for teachers in the new South Africa.

5.2 Review

In this section, the aims of this study are reviewed. Then the research problem is outlined with an overview of each chapter, showing how each relates to the overall aims and pointing up the contributions of the study.

5.2.1 Aims of this study

This study was undertaken to investigate the influence of storybook reading on young ESL learners. In order to determine the effect of interactive storybook reading on second language development, two aims were established in this study:

- (i) to perform a comparative linguistic analysis in order to determine whether the amount of exposure to stories has an effect on second language development.

- (ii) to perform a comparative linguistic analysis in order to determine whether interactive features of storybook reading have an effect on second language development.

These aims arose in response to specific gaps that were identified in the literature study. In Section 2.6.1, this paper noted that some ESL studies had investigated the contributions of reading to discourse development. For a variety of reasons, a formal experimental design was not used in most of them. Several other studies (Elley, 1989; Martinez & Teale, 1993) identified the need to examine particular storybook reading styles and their contributions to children's language and literacy development.

5.2.2 Research problems addressed in this study

Specific research problems were addressed in Section 1.2. Many of the two million new South African students who are expected to enroll in primary schools in 1997 do not speak the primary language of instruction -- English. This requires that special emphasis be put on second language learning. Because reading has been recognized as an important contributing factor in first language development and recent studies have demonstrated its contribution to second language learning, the use of storybook reading in the classroom could ease the transition of young school-bound South African students. This research investigated the discourse development of young ESL students in order to determine whether:

- the amount of exposure to stories had an effect on second language development, and
- whether certain interactional features of storybook reading had an effect on second language development.

Another important reason for introducing additional reading into the L2 classroom is that it provides black South African students with more exposure to meaningful input in an environment where they do not typically have much contact with fluent English speakers. In

rural South Africa, the students' exposure to English is limited and, as noted in Section 1.3.4, teachers often offer less than fluent models of English.

In order to answer these concerns, a non-directional three-group hypothesis was posed to compare the gain score results for three discourse development measures. Subsequent hypotheses then followed to contrast two groups at a time in order to isolate the effect of the amount of exposure to stories and the interactive style used. Results from these comparisons would pinpoint the most effective methods of utilizing storybook reading in the classroom as a means of influencing second language development.

5.2.3 Overview of chapters

In this section, the primary focus of Chapters Two through Four is discussed and their relevance to the research problems is noted.

Chapter Two provided a review of the literature on adult reading with children -- sometimes referred to as "lapreading" or "shared reading" -- and how it affects first language development. The chapter points out that labelling, scaffolding, and repetition, which are often found in lapreading sessions, play an important role in the child's early development. The four aspects of a child's life that benefit from this reading -- affective, cognitive, linguistic and literacy development -- were discussed and several insights were noted.

For some children, their exposure to books begins in the home and continues as they proceed through school. For others, this exposure to books and the written language does not occur until entry into school. In either case, books and reading can contribute significantly to the student's development and success in school. In affective development, reading with children generates warmth and positive feelings about story-time and introduces the child to the joys of reading and the curiosity of learning. Reading together can contribute to a life-long enthusiasm for books.

Regarding cognitive development, reading offers an exposure to the language of books and to a world of knowledge that is often beyond the experiences of the child. The differences between the context-embedded talk of everyday life and the more decontextualized form of written language becomes familiar to children who are exposed to books. Studies show that parents who incorporate "why" and "what if" questions in their discussions of books with their children cultivate a higher level of cognitive skills and these children are more likely to succeed in school.

Reading has been shown to contribute to linguistic development through vocabulary and semantic knowledge, syntactic growth, and the development of discourse abilities. As several studies have shown, reading is more important to linguistic development than other play activities where mother and child are together. Repetition by adults and rehearsal by children contribute most to language gains.

In literacy development, children with extensive storybook reading at home have established the groundwork for independent reading and writing development. This contributes to a child's attention to books and the early understanding of written language registers. Exposure to stories can help a child develop an understanding of story schemata and extend the child's ability to produce a story in a verbal format.

Parents and teachers use a variety of styles in storybook reading with children. An interactive style using explanations, discussions, and realia appears to contribute most to the language and literacy development of the child. The child is able to imitate, rehearse, and repeat newly-acquired skills through the interactive style of storybook reading.

In second language learning, there are also four areas of development. For affective development, an informal, "stress-reduced" environment is preferred where storybooks can be enjoyed and where students can develop an enthusiasm for reading and the written language.

The cognitive development of an ESL student is more complex. As O'Malley (1988) points out, most ESL programs fail to meet the need of students who are moving from a context-embedded language environment found in early childhood to the context-reduced environment of written language, especially as students advance in school. The ESL students require additional support in order to gain necessary skills for school success.

Linguistic and literacy development for ESL students requires interactive participation and support. Few reading studies have been completed with young ESL learners; for those which were completed, success in language development areas relied on interactive reading methods.

One factor contributing to any child's ultimate school success, whether they are first or second language learners, is success in his/her early schooling years. As several studies point out, a student's performance in school tends to "lock them in" academically in subsequent instructional years.

In **Chapter Three**, the research design and analytical framework were discussed. The study was undertaken at an urban school in Johannesburg with 16 black Grade 0 children, the majority residing in the township of Soweto. While the language of instruction was English, all of the children were second or third language learners of English. The school had no library or books available in the classroom when the study commenced.

In order to measure the effects of storybook reading, a 36-session intervention program was set up with two experimental groups and one control group. In an effort to minimize a possible Hawthorne Effect and to provide an example for the teacher, one interactive story was read with the whole class each session. The Control Group received no further reading input. The Reading Only experimental group was read three additional stories with no interaction during each session. The Interactive Reading experimental group participated in the interactive reading of the same three stories. Placement in groups was based on a

matched subject design. Questionnaires were completed by parents to determine reading habits in the home, educational attainment of parents, and languages spoken in the home. Four pre- and posttests were administered using story re-tell, picture story, and personal storytelling protocols. Over 23,000 transcribed words were analyzed into three gain score measures:

- different nouns uttered
- correct tense verbs used
- number of F-units uttered

These measures were discussed in relation to their contribution to language learning.

In **Chapter Four**, the findings of the study were analyzed, noting results and interpretations. Because this was a small quasi-experimental study, non-parametric testing was used. Initially, a non-directional hypothesis was employed to investigate the discourse development of the ESL pre-school students and the Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized to test the hypothesis. The results showed that the three groups differed on noun diversity. Given the nature of the test, the Kruskal-Wallis does not show which group is better and it can conceal differences between two groups. The comparisons for correct verb use and number of F-units did not show significant differences but, due to the aforementioned concern and because similar studies demonstrated differences, it was decided to pursue the three discourse measures.

In order to analyze the data more closely and investigate the patterns exposed, Mann-Whitney tests were employed to contrast two groups at a time. First, the Reading Only Group was compared to the Control Group in order to manipulate the amount-of-exposure variable and determine the effect of additional reading on the experimental group. These tests did not show significant differences for any of the three measures. In discussing the interpretations, it was noted that the lack of explanations and discussions for the Reading

Only Group seemed to affect the ESL students' lack of understanding and comprehension. The unnaturalness of specifically not answering the student's questions, especially students who had participated in interactive storybook reading just prior to the intervention, was awkward and frustrating for the researcher and the students. The findings in this study are supported by previous studies (Elley, 1989; Feitelson et al., 1986; Vivas, 1996) that showed that first language children had gained in discourse measures through additional amounts of reading. None of the findings in the ESL studies showed discourse development without explanations and discussions. The ESL learners' need for **comprehensible input** required more than increased exposure to reading.

The second set of Mann-Whitney tests investigated the reading style variable while holding constant the amount of reading. These tests compared the Interactive Reading Group with the Reading Only Group so that the style of interactive reading was the only contrast. This intervention enhanced the discourse development of the subjects in the Interactive Reading Group. The noun diversity and correct verb usage tests both showed significant improvements by the Interactive Reading Group over the Reading Only Group. In the number of F-units measured, the results were only marginally significant for the Interactive Reading Group. From these findings, it appears that the interactive style of explanations, realia, and discussions enhanced the discourse development. The ESL learners benefitted from the features of an interactive style which allowed the students to comprehend, imitate and rehearse newly-acquired skills.

As for qualitative findings, both the students and the teacher changed their attitude towards books in the classroom. The students began to look forward to and participate more actively in storytime and could utilize story schemata and re-enactments. The teacher began to incorporate more book-reading into class activities and used repeat readings with discussions, explanations, and realia. In the teacher's own words, "reading library books has contributed tremendously to my children's attitude and their language".

5.2.4 Limitations of the present study

Although every effort was made to follow a quasi-experimental design, the restrictions on the Reading Only experimental group were difficult for both the students and the researcher. The students had, by now, come to expect an open discussion around storybook reading which had occurred during the all-class story. During the intervention, this discussion could not occur within the Reading Only Group, since the group was to be excluded from interactive participation. With an authoritative English speaker controlling the intervention time, questions and comments were stifled and strict rules of conduct were enforced. The children's natural curiosity was suppressed and they may have "switched off" to some extent. This might explain why the results of the Reading Only Group and the Control Group were so similar in many respects.

While several studies (Klesius & Griffith, 1996; Morrow & Smith, 1990) suggest that small group size is preferable in storybook reading, the small numbers of subjects reduced the statistical assumptions and may have restricted the outcomes. Larger sample sizes would be preferable in future studies.

The intervention period was 36 sessions over a 12-week period. This amount of time may have been too brief for significant effects to emerge in all the dependent variables. Nonetheless, despite the short intervention period, encouraging results still emerged in several measures. An extended amount of time for an intervention reading program would be advisable.

5.3 Implications of the study

In this section, the implications for literacy programs in South Africa will be discussed. Both quantitative and qualitative results were highlighted in this study, and this section will

investigate how the students gained confidence and knowledge through reading and interaction.

5.3.1 Learning through enjoyment

While the findings of the study noted only significant results in discourse measures, other chances were noted in qualitative ways. As noted in Section 4.3, the attitudes and motivation of the teacher and entire class were affected. All students urged the teacher and researcher to read often. Many of them rushed through breakfast to begin their morning class-time with a book. Some children memorized favorite books; others worked with friends to re-enact stories. Motivation and positive attitude are key contributions to promoting learning through enjoyment and this was evident with the Thuthuka class.

Much like Cochran-Smith (1985) found, the Thuthuka students began to "look like readers" and "talk like readers". Listening to stories helped students learn to listen. Storybooks exposed these children to written language and they began to understand and use story schemata. Their storytelling skills started to incorporate settings and character descriptions.

5.3.2 Learning through interaction

Throughout this study, the influence of storybook reading on second language development has been investigated. While it was anticipated that additional reading with Grade 0 ESL students would increase their language development, the Interactive Reading Group with its interactive intervention was expected to reveal the greatest change. In fact, only those students who received interactive reading showed significant improvement in the quantitative discourse measures. Reading without the support of a mediating adult to provide explanations and discussions did not contribute to discourse development. Even though some first language studies found that students could improve discourse development using reading without explanation, several first language studies point to the

importance of interaction and its contribution to language development. When Wells (1985:253) described how stories required interaction to be effective, he noted:

If stories are simply read as part of a daily routine, without being further discussed, they are likely to remain inert and without much impact on the rest of the child's experience...However where, 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.

Just as Wells postulates, ESL students require discussion and explanation in order to expand discourse development. Holdaway (1979) found that children benefit most when they are asked to respond to a teacher using extensions, clarification, discussions, and structured dialogue to facilitate comprehension.

These results have led to the conclusion that variations in reading styles can contribute to second language development, even within a 12-week period with limited financial expenses.

While this study was implemented in a private school, the same procedures could be duplicated in public primary schools or local public libraries within the communities. Especially in South Africa, where many child caregivers are not functionally literate (Kvalsvig et al., 1988) and where more than half of the adult population is in need of literacy and English language skills (NEPI, 1992), the public libraries could provide a location, the books, and the educated staff to offer such a service. Volunteers from neighboring communities could also be recruited to read and initiate follow-up activities in the libraries. It is possible that corporate sponsors could be recruited for funding and/or volunteer support.

5.3.3 Teaching implications

As a newly-democratic South Africa begins its task of educating all its citizens equally, economic resources will be strained to the limit. Teachers, too, will be challenged in new areas. In 1990, 28% of the primary school teachers in the former "independent homelands" lacked formal teaching qualifications (Hartshorne, 1992). Most of these instructors are teaching in their second or third language. Class sizes are large while facilities, materials, and staff are limited. For all of these reasons, interactive reading could be the answer to improved language development and higher cognitive learning by the students.

With a small investment in books and a few days of teacher training, interactive reading could be introduced into the majority of South African classrooms. Teachers could rely on the vocabulary and syntax provided by reading and re-reading the books, and would not be required to rely on their possibly limited knowledge of English (as noted in Section 1.3.4). Explanations, discussions, and suggested realia could be outlined in training materials. Because, as Bell (1993) points out, teachers teach the way that they were taught, it will be important for the training to be interactive and involving. With the support of non-governmental organizations, follow-up activities may be incorporated, such as book clubs, theatre groups, and involvement with the local libraries.

5.4 Conclusion

Interactive reading can offer students many rewards. Throughout this dissertation, the benefits of reading with interactive participation have been shown to offer unlimited opportunities to students in L2 situations such as those found in South Africa. As Mace-Matluck et al. (1989:211) state, "acquisition of 'school-related' skills in a second language takes time". In our quest to help these students realize successful school experiences, interactive reading can and will contribute to this learning through enjoyment and enriched literacy opportunities.

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Appendix A

Completed Questionnaire

Pabelo
Sipho

#2

A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR

Sharol

This questionnaire will give us an insight into your language and reading habits at home. Thank you for helping.

Mother's Name: Shirley sekokane Occupation: Assistant Chemistry

What Standard did you complete at school? 7

Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? NO

If so, at which institute? _____

Languages:

Home Language Zulu/north sotho Other lgs spoken English.

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. You magazine

sowetan

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? YES

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 books per week
XX

Father's Name: Enoch Nxumalo Occupation: operations manager

What Standard did you complete at school? 8

Did you go to university/technikon/do (part-time study? _____

If so, at which institute? Demelin institute of business studies

Languages:

Home Language: Zulu/sotho Other lgs spoken: English.

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. Scope, You, news papers and

Pant hose magazine

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? Yes sometimes

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 per week
XX

Others in the home:

Brothers:
____ Age: _____
____ Age: _____
____ Age: _____

Sisters:
____ Age: _____
____ Age: _____
____ Age: _____

FOR MOTHER ONLY

FOR FATHER/GUARDIAN ONLY

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR Zandile

This questionnaire will give us an insight into your language and reading habits at home. Thank you for helping.

Mother's Name: CALIFORNIA Occupation: CASHIER

What Standard did you complete at school? STANDARDS 10
Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? -
If so, at which institute? -

Languages:
Home Language XHOSA Other lgs spoken ENGLISH

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. CITIZEN, SOWETAN, YOU
MAGAZINE

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week
 weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? YES

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none
 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 books per week
XX

Father's Name: SIMON Occupation: MACHINE MINDER

What Standard did you complete at school? 10
Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? -
If so, at which institute? -

Languages:
Home Language: ZULU Other lgs spoken: ENGLISH

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. SOWETAN, STAR, CITY PRESS,
SUNDAY TIMES

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week
 weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? YES

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none
 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 per week
XX

Others in the home:
Brothers: _____ Age: _____
N/A Age: _____
_____ Age: _____

Sisters: _____ Age: _____
N/A Age: _____
_____ Age: _____

FOR MOTHER ONLY
FOR FATHER/GUARDIAN ONLY

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR

Lebohlang

This questionnaire will give us an insight into your language and reading habits at home. Thank you for helping.

FOR MOTHER ONLY

Mother's Name: MEISIE MOYA Occupation: HAIRDRESSER

What Standard did you complete at school? 10

Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? NO

If so, at which institute? _____

Languages:

Home Language TSWANA Other lgs spoken ENGLISH, S.SOTHO

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. SOHWETAN, CITY PRESS, YOU, FAIR LADY

TRUE LOVE AND NOVELS

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week weekly seldom thrice a week

Do you read to your child? YES

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none

1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 books per week
XX

Father's Name: _____ Occupation: _____

What Standard did you complete at school? _____

Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? _____

If so, at which institute? _____

Languages:

Home Language: _____ Other lgs spoken: _____

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. _____

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? _____

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none

1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 per week
XX

Others in the home:

Brothers: _____ Age: _____

_____ Age: _____

_____ Age: _____

Sisters: ANNA MOYA Age: 15 YRS

PINKY MOYA Age: 13 YRS

CATHRINE MOYA Age: 6 YRS

FOR FATHER/GUARDIAN ONLY
she does not stay with father.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR Tony

This questionnaire will give us an insight into your language and reading habits at home. Thank you for helping.

Aunt
Mother's Name: ISAKANI Occupation: TEACHER

What Standard did you complete at school? STD 10
Did you go to university/technikon/~~do part-time study~~? YES
If so, at which institute? UNIVERSITY OF THE NORTH

Languages:
Home Language TSONGA Other lgs spoken ENGLISH and SWAHILI

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. SOWETAN, SUNDAY TIMES
JOU MAGAZINE and CITY PRESS

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week
 weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? YES

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none
 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 books per week
XX

Father's Name: N/A Occupation: _____

What Standard did you complete at school? _____
Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? _____
If so, at which institute? _____

Languages:
Home Language: _____ Other lgs spoken: _____

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. _____

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week
 weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? _____

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none
 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 per week
XX

Others in the home:
Brothers: DENNIS Age: 14
Sisters: PERTONIA Age: 14
LEAH Age: 9
Age: _____ Age: _____

Aunt ONLY
FOR MOTHER
Uncle N/A
FOR FATHER/GUARDIAN ONLY

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR Mbali

This questionnaire will give us an insight into your language and reading habits at home. Thank you for helping.

Mother's Name: JOSEPHINE Occupation: HOUSEWIFE

What Standard did you complete at school? STD 8

Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? -

If so, at which institute? _____

Languages:

Home Language ZULU Other lgs spoken ENGLISH / SOTHO

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. NEWSPAPERS / ITHANZI MAGAZINE

PACE MAGAZINE / TRIBUTE MAG.

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? YES

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 books per week
XX

Father's Name: SYDNEY Occupation: DRIVER SALESMAN

What Standard did you complete at school? STD. 8

Did you go to university/technikon/do part-time study? -

If so, at which institute? _____

Languages:

Home Language: ZULU Other lgs spoken: ENGLISH / SOTHO

What do you read at home?(e.g. which, if any books, magazines, newspapers) Please list. NEWSPAPERS

How often do you read? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you tell stories to your child? daily twice a week weekly seldom

Do you read to your child? _____

How many books per week do you read to him/her? none 1-3 per week 4-10 per week more than 10 per week
XX

Others in the home:

Brothers: ITHUMBA Age: 17

Sisters: PHUMZILE Age: 19

Age: _____

Age: _____

Age: _____

Age: _____

FOR MOTHER ONLY

FOR FATHER/GUARDIAN ONLY

Appendix B

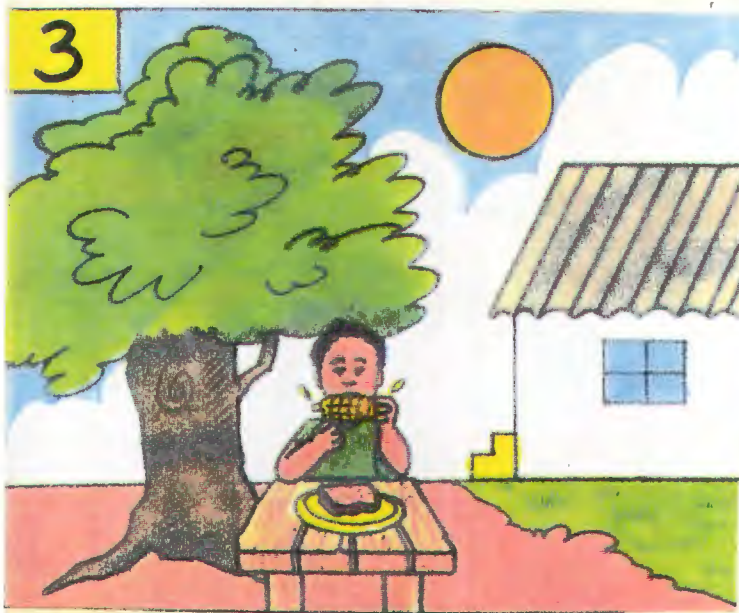
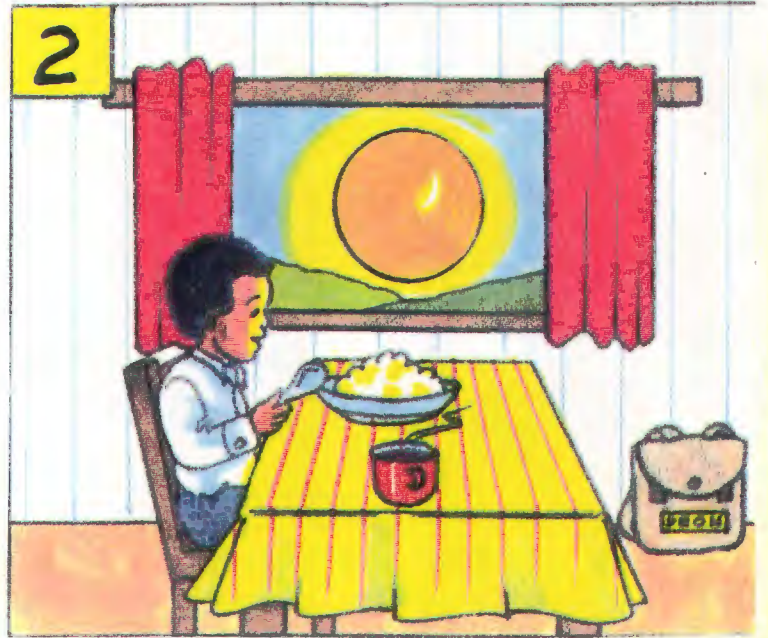
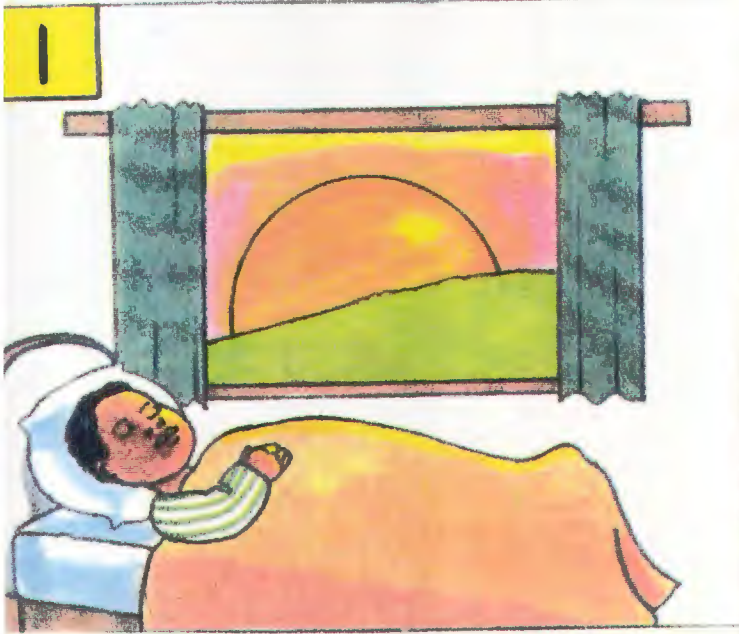
Wordless Story:

The Boy

Appendix C

Wordless Story:

The Bike





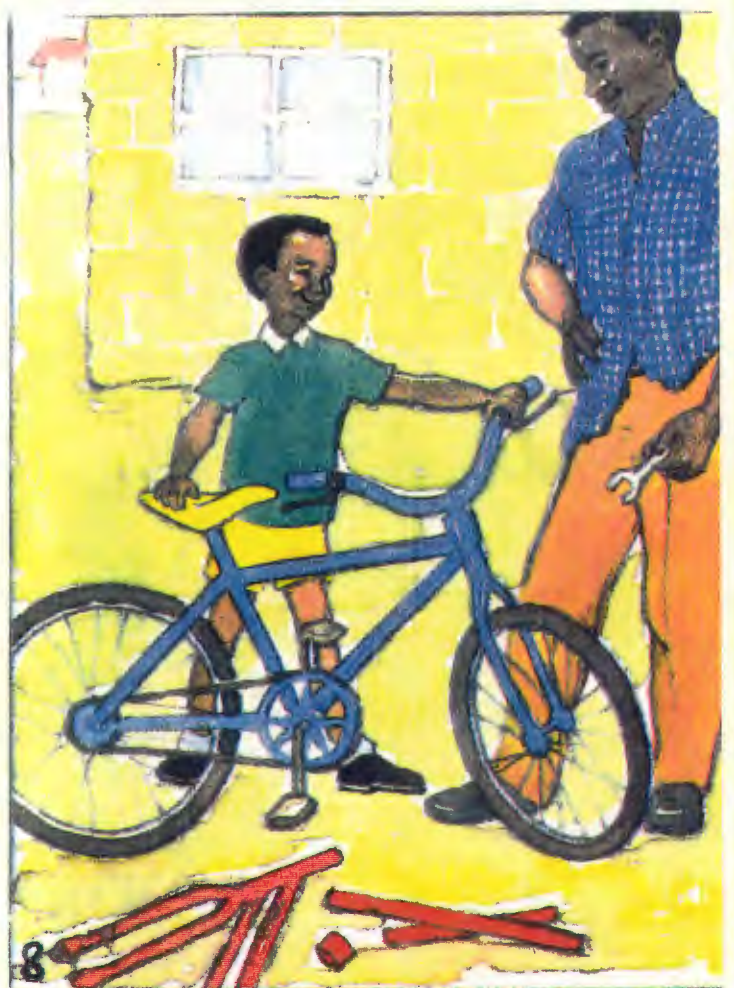
Appendix D

Popular Storybook Titles

Storybooks requested more than twice by Thuthuka Grade 0 students

Listed by number of requests:

- The Three Little Pigs*, 1987, NY: Macmillan Education.
- Are You My Mother?*, 1960, P.D. Eastman, NY: Random House.
- The Very Hungry Caterpillar*, 1987, E. Carle, NY: Philomel Books.
- Galimoto*, 1990, K. Williams, NY: William Morrow and Co.
- Where the Wild Things Are*, 1985, M. Sendak, NY: Scholastic, Inc.
- Cinderella*, Ladybird Books.
- Corduroy*, 1976, D. Freeman, NY: Puffin Books.
- A Fly Went By*, 1986, M. McClintock, NY: Random House.
- It Didn't Frighten Me*, 1984, J. Goss & J. Harste, St. Petersburg, FL: Willowisp Press.
- Bringing the Rain to Kapiti Plain*, 1981, V. Aardema, NY: Dial Books.
- Green Eggs and Ham*, 1988, Dr. Seuss, NY: Random House.
- Sleeping Beauty*, Ladybird Books.
- Happy Birthday Thomas*, 1990, based on stories by W. Awdry, NY: Random House.
- Hot Hippo*, 1992, M. Hadithi & A. Kennaway, Kent: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Goodnight Moon*, 1975, M. Wise Brown, NY: Harper & Row.
- Rhinoceros Mother*, 1991, T. Yoshida, NY: Philomel Books.
- The Enormous Turnip*, Ladybird Books.
- Jack and the Beanstalk*, Ladybird Books.
- Here Comes the Cat*, 1989, F. Asch & V. Vagin, NY: Scholastic Inc.
- Nellie's Knot*, 1993, K. Brown, N.Y: Macmillan.



Appendix E

Sample Transcripts

Pabello – Interactive Reading

Not So Fast, Songololo

Pretest

T: Tell me the story. . What's he doing?

P: He, he playing with the car.

T: Yeah.

P: And S. Mommy S he said he must go and fetch his bag

T: Hmhm.

P: And he. . um. .

T: Who's this? What about this?

P: Dog.

T: Yeah. What's the dog doing?

P: Barked.

T: Yeah. The dog is barking.

P: He goes and he stop.

T: Hmhm.

P: He goes up again and he stop.

T: Hmhm.

P: And he found S. . .

T: Who is this? Do you remember? It's Gogo.

P: Yes. S he pushed his m . .he pushed his Granny by the bus. He he he said "no, don't push me, I can climb myself" and a, a "hold this stick, I climb by the bus".

T: Yes.

T = Teacher

P = Pabello

S = Songololo

. . . = pause

Posttest

T: Tell me the story.

P:

T: Who is this?

P: Songololo.

T: And what is he doing?

P: He squeezes his shoes.

T: Hmhm.

P: Dog say Gogo, stop, Gogo, she walk and stop. Gogo said "let's go to town, Songololo. Come, let's go to town".

T: Hmhm.

P: "When we come back, I'm gonna come and gonna buy for you some shoes."

T: Mmmmm.

P: Kicks up a tin.

T: Hmhm.

P: The tin bangs in the street. "Songololo, hold my stick, here they coming again"

T: Ok.

P: "Who can help me to shopping? I'm going I'm gonna do work hard"

T: Hmhm.

P: "Who's gonna go with me at town?"

P: And he said "Gogo, he must go and climb up here".

T: Hmhm.

P: "to the work" and then they go and then the peoples all they walking fast. S Gogo he find S and S is busy looking at toys. He saw a beautiful shoes, he said his Granny he must buy for him the shoes.

T: Yes.

P: And the peoples they and S he come with his mommy here but he said buy for me a shoes. He couldn't buy for him but he buy for him. He found a he found a big boy. S and he did go to the school but they they going to the bus. They busy sleeping. Another sister he came he said to S "your shoes is nice".

T: Thank you. That was very nice.

"Come", said S. "let's go to town".

T: Hmhm.

P: And gonna help me to pick up some some some clothes.

T: Hmmm.

P: S. look out the window. He saw a car. Here's the shadow here.

T: Here's the shadow here? Hmhm.

P: "Come" said S. "I can walk faster than you".

T: Hmhm.

P: S. came to shopping toys.

T: S. came to shopping toys, hmhm.

P: And then Gogo go and fetch him.

T: Hmhm.

P: He see he saw the nice shoes, the tackies. He said "Gogo, buy for me the red shoes". And then and then he helped him to cross the street and S. . .said "hold here in my stick, hold it" and "you're gonna help me when I'm going to shopping, you must you must go with me, you're gonna help me to pick up some some clothes for yours and my clothes.

T: Hmhm.

P: ??

T: Pardon?

P: And the food that he eat.

T: And the food that we eat? Hm.

P: Then they Gogo buy for me that shoe but Gogo still keeping his money, then Gogo buy for him.

T: Hmhm.

P: "Let me see if they fit you" said "yes" "S. Don't walk faster, not faster, slowly, look that boy is walking so nice". "Next come and we going to town again. I can walk faster than you and you never walk faster than me."

The Boy

Pretest

T: Ok, look at these pictures and tell me a story. Hmmm? What is happening?

P: Eating at night.

T: Ok, let's start here.

P: Is sleeping at night. You you eating at night.

T: Hmhm.

P: Wake up at the morning.

T: Hmhm.

P: Is reading a book. The mommy is busy . . . doing a food. The baby is sleeping at night. The baby. .

Posttest

T: Can you tell me the story?

P: I don't know this story.

T: Just make up a story, look at the pictures and then you can make up a story.

P: There was an old boy.

T: Hmhm.

P: He's sleeping and when and when he start morning, is wake up.

T: And when he's at morning, it's wake up. Hmhm.

P: And is eating his breakfast.

T: Hmhm.

P: And when he's coming to school, he's eating a . . . um

T: What's he eating?

P: ??

T: Just look, what is that?

P: Mealie. And he's eating some bread and he's reading at night and mother said "read that book" and they gave him some food and he's in his own bedroom.

T: Hmhm. Ok.

The Bicycle

Pretest

- T: Ok, can you tell me this story?
- P: I saw another man, he give buys for me -- a bicycle.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And I give this that man he buys he take my bicycle.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And I give, he gave me a money this
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And I go to buy a bicycle.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And then I go an. . I take out this tire and . .
- T: Ok.
- P: I saw Granny at home and when I come, I saw my brother. And my brother and me I said "look, brother, my bicycle" ?? Um. . I said to that man "give me that bicycle" and he gave me and I I I fix it this.
- T: Good. Ok.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

- T: Now, can you tell me a story just in your head? Tell me about your birthday. What did you do on your birthday?

Posttest

- P: "Brother give me R10, I want to buy a bicycle"
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And she come to the shopping shopping bicycle.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: He said "I'm coming to buy that bicycle" and she said, she said, she she she gets another bicycle and he take all that and she put it here to the another bicycle here and she found ? and brother and brother gave him and and and he's and and his brother put it by the wall.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: Because they not steal it, is lock it.
- T: Is what? Is lock it?
- P: Yes.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And then they they they broke this bicycle, they do that one.
- T: Hmhm.
- P: And then they they they they make for him that new boy a new bicycle.
- T: Hmhm. Nice.

Posttest

- T: Think about a story, tell me any story.
- P: . . . There was an old brother who steal the people's money.

P: I ate. I get a present

T: Hmhm.

P: And I I have so many childrens . .

T: At your party?

P: Yes.

T: Hmhm.

P: And and my mommy he he buys for me a present and I open it and I get a a gun, plastic gun, and a trouser. And I and my my mommy said that when they come by my birthday, they must bring a ??

T: Bring what?

P: Hmm?

T: Bring what? Bring a what?

P: ??

T: Bring a taxi? No? Hmm?

P: ?? They must bring it and and I gave it my mommy and my mommy said thank you.

T: Very nice. Ok.

P: And I eat the cakes.

T: Good.

T: Hmhm.

P: And he stoled a R10

T: Hmhm.

P: And she saw a snake and she said "yes, I'm full there" and she eat and she and she and she take the snake and the snake put him with the poison and she die.

T: Ohhhh.

P: And she and when when the ambulance coming she she he he she go at home.

T: Hmhm.

P: And she saw lots of snakes and his house there's no window, is broke they broke it.

T: Hmhm.

P: And his name and he was a Zulu boy.

T: Hmhm.

P: And she came to be die, they killed him, the snakes with the poison on the ?.

T: On what?

P: With the poison on eyes.

T: On their eyes, hmhm.

P: And she go at the hospital. Mandela kill him.

T: What? Hmhm?. .ok, finished?

Sharol – Interactive Reading

Not So Fast, Songololo

Pretest

T: Sharol, tell me the story, loudly, I need to hear you, nice and loud, nice and loud.

S: Songololo is crying and then S is . .

T: What is S doing?

S: S is tackies, is shoes and then he put and then and then the dog the dog and the and the Gogo and then the dog and then the dog is is . .and then the Gogo is is hold S to the shoulders and then and then Gogo is going and then and then tackies is is is going in the bus and then and then S is and then Gogo is do . .and then they Gogo is go and then is go in the bus and then and then S is doing a is look at Gogo and then S and then S is look a car and then S is look in the baby and then S is saying "mommy, look these tackies" and then S and then S is go to the town and then S is and then S and the Gogo is take these things and then he say "look these tackies" and then "these tackies is nice" and then and then S and Granny, the Gogo is is go to the town and then he take the tackies and then he turn his self is . .and then the Gogo is looks S and S is crying and then he stay to the he sit to the chair.

T: Good, very nice, thank you.

T = Teacher
S = Sharol
S = Songololo
. . . = pause

Posttest

T: Ok, tell me the story.

S: Songololo was crying and he wear his tackies and he was at home and and there was one Gogo and he saw Gogo to the ? . .

T: Shall we turn the page?

S: And Gogo he saw the dog, is?

T: Is what?

S: And his dog was clever.

T: Was clever, hmm.

S: Yes, and he him wants to go slow and and that day the sun's shining

T: Hmhm, the sun's shining.

S: And S. go at home and saw Gogo and touch it to his shoulders and S. was smiling and Gogo was got brown bag and S. he wasn went to the bus and Gogo went to the bus and the bus was stop and Gogo said "hold my stick" and and him was going and Gogo and then he going to that bus and it got white and yellow and red.

T: Hmhm.

S: And S. was looking for body and Gogo is got pink and orange and black and yellow and purple and blue and green and white.

T: Hmhm.

S: And S. was looking at her and to the car is got many many boys and girls and to the bus is was got Smarties and this man was going to at

home.

T: Was going to at home. Hmhm.

S: And the city has got many many boys and girls and S. look there after the toys and the shoes and the baby toys and Gogo he said "look these brown shoes" and he buy the red shoes and and go at home and him take the shoes and smiling Gogo and then is ?

T: They're doing what?

S: And then there is night and there was so late and he come the man and they they meet him.

T: They're what?

S: And Gogo take the shoes and go and then S. wear the shoes by himself and they go home and S. was in the front and Gogo was in the back and he tie his shoes and Gogo was sleeping and Gogo and S. they were smiling.

T: Very nice. Thank you.

The Boy

Pretest

T: Tell me this story, please.

S: The boy is sleeping and then is eating and then and then is close his eyes and then is eating and then. . and then is eating a mealie and then and then is do a is is read a book and then is sleeping and then is sleeping and then the cap to the chairs.

Posttest

T: Tell me a story from the pictures.

S: This boy was sleeping and it was the night and he was eating and the day is the sun's not shining and he eat the supper and him say it was finished the supper and is was drinking the water and the sun was shining and he eat and he eat and he finish all and him was working at home and tell his mommy and his mommy make him the food and he say and he look and he read the story and he eat all the supper and was sleeping and was sleeping all the day and was the night and this one has got the round circle and see what's got a cap.

The Bicycle

Pretest

S: And then the bicycle and with the bicycle is wait here and then those children is want to take a bicycle and then and then this one. .

T: Here, just hold it. Just hold it. Ok.(referring to microphone)

S: And then this child is take a bicycle and then is go is go.

T: You take it.

S: And and then a bicycle and then and then is going to the house and then is is give a mommy and then is going to the town and then the bicycle is coming and then this is coming and then this is to the to pay and then the daddy is talking to this child.

Posttest

T: Tell the story.

S: One day the little man saw the bicycle and he hold it and his brother take all the space and he, this brother, this man. This man was crying and him, this brother was saw the bicycle and he give him the money and he go by himself and he buy the bicycle was that the bicycle and him he saw the flower and he put his bicycle here and he saw his mommy and his mommy was sit down and he give him and him was always to give him and they make him the bicycle and he ride his bicycle and was very happy. And he this man was sit down and this boy was always going there and talk and the man and showed him his bicycle. And him open and saw the bicycle and him he open by himself and he ? by himself and him was riding his bicycle and was very happy and him was riding and go to there with his mommy.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

T: Ok. Now one more thing. Can you tell me a story? . . about your birthday or about when you went to town with your mommy or daddy? Tell me the story.

S: I go with my mommy to the shop and then I'm buy a happy birthday and then the happy birthday is pink and then my mommy is say and then my mommy say he say my he he say my happy birthday is gonna come at 22-6* and then my mommy is go and me to the shop and then to the shop is buy me a chocolate and then and Simba chips and the and the strawberry.

Posttest

T: Tell me a story.

S: One day my happy birthday is Friday and is 26th of . .August and me at home at home I was staying and only one and I was not having any friends and my daddy came and me and my daddy buyed me the donkey and and him monkey was sleeping and the sun shining and my donkey didn't wake up and they asked them for my mommy, is late, and is . .and the friends for my mommy, her name is . .and my daddy buy me the dog and the cat and my daddy bring my friend and I play and my friend and my mommy's got the baby and and

T: Very nice. Thank you.

*Her birthday is June 26th. "22-6" refers to the date.

his name was the donkey and the baby donkey was crying and me I run away and my mommy and my mommy hold the donkey and the donkey was jumping and my daddy buyed me the monkey and the monkey was sit down in the chair and the monkey was going to his house and my donkey was always goed slowly and my mommy went to the shop, buy anything for me and I eat it all.

Tony – Reading Only

Not So Fast, Songololo

Pretest

T: Ok, you tell us the story. You hold the book. Can you tell us the story? . . . Who's this?

Tony: Songololo.

T: Yeah.

Tony: And S.'s mother was here and the dog barking.

T: Yes. Ok.

Tony: This, S is saw the Gogo and the dog stop barking.

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And S's grandpa, grandma was S. was putting grandpa's hands to rest by his shoulders.

T: Yes.

Tony: And S his grandpa said "I don't know how to kick the can, tin" and S, he said "I must push" and he said S was ?? the tin dancing. And the people did get off and then S. . S did sit, S's grandma he can sit next to the door.

T: Ok.

Tony: And they went in town and S was look at his red stripe tackies. And his, S said he can tell his grandpa how many colors. He saw a Smartie bus and then he pick it OK bus and there's two cars.

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And the one there's so many people and

T = Teacher

S = Songololo

. . . = pause

Posttest

T: Ok, can you tell us the story? What? Who's this?

Tony: Songololo.

T: Yeah.

Tony: What? Must I start, Teacher?

T: Yeah, you can start. Please tell us the story.

Tony: I don't know how to read this story.

T: I know but you can tell it to me, you don't have to read it. You can just tell me the story.

Tony: I must start by these two?

T: Sure, it's fine. Or you want to turn the page, it's ok.

Tony: The dog is biting, barking.

T: Hmmm.

Tony: And the dog stop barking.

T: Hmmm.

Tony: And then the dog stop barking. Next page?

T: Ok.

Tony: And is only Granny. Granny put his hand on S.'s shoulders

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And and S. stamped on the tin and then he said "come help me go in the bus". Next?

T: Hmmm. Yes.

S's grandpa was standing by the thing to stop the car to stop the car and S went in by a shop with, they sell toys and shoes. And S's grandpa look at S what see and he saw S's grandma. And they went in a shop and S's grandpa cars was coming.

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And S tried to run his grandpa tell him he must hold his stick. And he saw his grandpa and he saw someone and he saw his grandpa what he was look at him at . . he stayed by that place and he was walking with his tackies

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And he was putting his old, new shoes on and his grandpa grandma said "Nice is put on his new shoes"

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And then he put in in put his old shoes in . . Grandpa said "I couldn't be I couldn't have those tackies I couldn't run faster than you". And his grandpa laughed.

Tony: So the people want out the bus and S. stand and count Granny's colors -- green, yellow, pink, orange, red. And S said "Granny, I will tell you all the different color of the cars". What is this car, Teacher?

T: It looks like a Ford.

Tony: Ford. What is this here?

T: It looks like a Volkswagen.

Tony: Volkswagen and a bus. And S said "so many people and they are walking fast" and Granny was walking at the back of S. When Granny was look at buying, S. was look at-ing in the toys. Can I go to toilet? PAUSE

Tony: And then S stopped and he kept on the white and stripes and red tackies.

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And he look at his old tackies.

T: Hmm.

Tony: And when Granny said "I want to go to the Pick N Pay help me" so S. hold his hand and go with him. So S. said "I want to buy. ." What is this? A new tablecloth?

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And some . . what those?

T: I don't know. Look at the pictures.

Tony: And S. look at again by this here and S. says "here the tackies of the shop" so he went in with Granny. He said "how" S. said they went in the shop and S. tried the shoes and then Granny asked "how much is this tackies?" The man said "four rand" and Granny said "one rand, two rand, three rand, four rand" and then S. paid/Granny paid and S's Granny said "Not so fast" and then S. sit on the bench, putting his leg on top and and look at-ing the

beautiful socks. And S. said "these are beautiful socks"

T: S. said what?

Tony: These are beautiful tackies.

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And then he gave Granny a hug.

The Boy

Pretest

Tony: Is sleeping

T: Hmhm.

Tony: He didn't close his window. Is eating, is eating outside

T: Mmm.

Tony: It is reading a book

T: Mmm.

Tony: And is sleeping.

The Bicycle

Pretest

T: Ok, now I have some more pictures. Start here and you go across. Can you tell me the story?

Tony: Is showing over the bicycle

T: Hmhm.

Tony: Is going by the shop bicycle, is passing and is giving this lady something

T: Mmmm.

Tony: And this old man sitting

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And this old man shaking hands and

Posttest

Tony: In the night he was sleeping and the moon came out. In the morning his mother told him to wake up and he said "the sun is out" and he ate his breakfast and he went to play and he came back for lunch. He ate lunch and then he went home to his mother and his mother gave him some food and he went back again.

Posttest

Tony: The boy said "how much is this bicycle?" He said, the boy said "is fifteen rand" so the boy paid for the bicycle and and go pay by the man and he told his father "I want a new bicycle" so he bought a bicycle and then he went home. He show his mommy and he give the change to his mommy and then he walk, he want, he look at the red bicycle, and then he went home and then he ask the old man "how much is that bicycle over there?" and the man said "50 rand" so he paid for the bicycle and then he went to his father and they went home and then his father fix the bicycle, I

this boy riding a bicycle and this boy holding a bicycle. finish.

T: Ok.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

T: Can you tell me a story? Any story? Tell me a story.

Tony: About what?

T: Anything.

Tony: One day I went with my father and he bought me books

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And he bought me a bag and he bought me a cap and we claimed a taxi and we went home and at home after that we went to the butcher and my father bought me a juice and after that we found my sister and my brother and my small sister, they were waiting

T: Hmhm.

Tony: And .

T: And what?

Tony: And not anymore.

Posttest

T: Ok, Tony, tell me a story, any story.

T: Me and my sister went to Ellis Park and late.

T: Ok.

T: And then we went back home and it was my sister's birthday. And we ate cake and juice and sweets and then my brother bought me chips and fruit and then we went to my auntie and then we swimmied.

T: Hmhm.

T: And then my brother came back and fetch me and then we drink ate chips and cold drink and my auntie said "are you full?", I said "no" and gave me some bread and juice. I finish.

Vinolia – Reading Only

Not So Fast, Songololo

Pretest

Vinolia: Once upon a time, the granny, the mommy said "help me something, click, click". Then the dog he bark "oh, oh, oh". It was the granny. Then he say "do you help me?" He said "yes". Said "please", they go to the sweet. Then the baby kick the dirt for the Coke book. Then he push the Granny and then they get into the bus. Then the bus was had Smarties and it starting with "sm" "apple" "rr" "tt" "one" "ee" "ss" And they get out and then said "look at those tackies and those cars" and said and and there was the little robot cop, then they go with Songololo and then that Daddy get him and come and then he said "Granny look at those two tackies". Then said he going to buy them. "How many tackies?" " Four rand" and then he put, he was happy, then he go with the Granny, then he said put his shoes in the in the in the bus and and he was happy and laughing.

T = Teacher
V = Vinolia
S = Songololo
... = pause

Posttest

T: Ok, Vinolia, tell me the story. Just talk, it's ok.

V: I can tell any story?

T: Can you tell this story please?

V: Who's barking now? " Woof, woof". Who's barking? It's only Gogo, it's only Gogo is coming. I can turn this?

T: Hmhm.

V: Woo, woo. Gogo was coming to fetch Songololo. And he holded to his clothes that they went into town and and Gogo came and S. saw a tin and he wants to kick it and they went into the bus. There was many people in the bus and the little man laughed, they went in the bus and the Smartie bus and the monkey and car went in the town and Gogo said to S. "S. wait" S. wait for his Granny and he saw a baby and Superman and airplanes and crocodiles and clown face. And saw the red tackies, he said "Gogo, please can you buy me those red tackies?"

T: Hmmm.

V: And and he said "Ok, I'm gonna buy you" and he said then he was going to buy her he saw the blanket and Gogo said he was gonna buy and then they went and he put right to the glass, then they said "let's go to see the the man who who who was always buying the shoes". He was he said "Gogo look" and she said " Gogo he always help me, I love these shoes" They went home, at his Granny and

said "Not fast, S." And he she put his legs to the chair and Gogo is rest. Then they then then he laughed with her.

The Boy

Pretest

T: Let's look at these pictures first. Tell me about this boy.

V: He was sleeping at the night

T: Hmhm.

V: And he eat faster and there was cloudy day and he eat, then he read the book, then he sleep.

Posttest

T: Start here.

V: Who is this one? Songololo?

T: Any little boy.

V: The little boy, he was sleeping and he ate one morning and he ate and he read his book, his mother. One sunny morning the cloudy came, there was starting to rain and the sun start to go down and down and one sunny morning he ate his breakfast and he went to school, then he came back at town and he ate he ate he ate again and his bread and he slept he sleep and he slept at night and his mother said "good night" and he said, and also mother sleep, he slept.

The Bicycle

Pretest

T: Look at these pictures. Tell me about this story.

V: The baby said to the daddy, "Daddy, look at the bicycle". Then he go to the Grandfather, said "look at the ticket", then he go back the bicycle and said he give the granny, then he look there in the house, then he see the grandfather, he was he was knitting the cloth, then he see the Daddy and he go to the Grandfather, he said "look at there", then he, then the Daddy follow the baby and then he come with the, with the stool for ? and the baby he was going and said, and the Daddy he

Posttest

V: One sunny morning the little boy he wanted his daddy at the town to buy some bicycle. And the little boy he buy the bicycle, he say "please can I have that bicycle?" He said "yes". He say "please can I have money?" and he said "yes" he gave her and he went to town he saw his Granny and he gave her his change then then then his Grandfather was smoking and and the little boy said and he said "now I want the the the drying thing in the tree" then he go to buy it and he make by hisself and he broke the orange bicycle. And he went at home and he said he said "let's go" they go home, then they went home and his

she hold this thing that is blue

T: I'm sorry, he ?

V: He he hold this thing that is blue, the bicycle.

T: Hmm.

V: Was to the bicycle, say he must go with him, then they talk together and they said to the Grandfather, "look there", then he looked at the baby and he said "look at the children are growing bigger and bigger" and I look at, I see the bicycle broken, he do another bicycle and another one fixed.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

T: Now can you tell me a story, just in your head.

V: I go to the to to the in the in the town and I go to the to my friend's one day and I said to my mommy "mommy, please can I go to my friend?" and I go and my mommy give me some juice and bread, then I eat, I finished and I go to my friend's then I say Palesa that is staying to my house, he say, I say he must come. Then I then my mommy there in the street and I tell mommy Palesa he say he's going to come and they were scared of the dog that is staying in the in the my house and my dog is Daisy and when I go to school, when I go to the doctor at, same that did put me a injection and two hands then and also the small tablet staying in my mommy, then I go to Marymount, then I see my mommy and the baby, then they come at home and yesterday my mommy said said I must get daddy daddy at the doctor. Daddy daddy say 50-55 then us we did come, then then me I go

blue bicycle was was was umm was at home and his gran. . they they laugh at his granny and his grandfather.

T: Ok.

Posttest

T: Now I want to tell me a story, any story.

V: I I went up that my mother at town, then I saw my mother's brother at Sandton then at his friend's, and then then we go home, then the doctor said said to me when I fetch my glasses next week Saturday, then we went at Southgate then my mother buy me a cold drink and then he said "let's go to Southgate to to say again and you can get into to airplane". Then we went at home, I play with my friend and then then on Saturday my sister blow my my swimming then he push me, then I get cold and then then I swim and swim for the whole weekend, then we finished, then I put my balls, the little balls, that we always and also apple, we ate apples, then my mother said, then we have a picnic at my home, then we ate chips, lot of chips and Chicken Lickin and I wash myself and then the little girl that stay to to to the, my friend stay to to to my the friend that is a boy, Mandela, I I I play with her then ? for the whole day then then then we always saw I

at the town and I said "mommy" at the night, I
I, my sister said "I want a ? for the fish" and I
said "no", then my sister leave, then now, and
then I sent the story, then I sleep for a few
minutes, and then start the story, I go at the
TV, from the shiny den, one day when is
playing I see that it go and see ? and my
mommy go and then my mommy we come
with the baby, then I, my friends come and
when my mommy was coming with my daddy.

spy things then then we always play, my friend
play the girl he he he wash his hair, I wash my
hair, then you see my friend laughed.

Lawrence – Control Group

Not So Fast, Songololo

T = Teacher
L = Lawrence
S = Songololo
... = pause

Pretest

T: Ok, Lawrence is going to tell me the story.
L: And the noise and Songololo was playing with his car.
T: Hmhm.
L: And another shoes on and another shoe off.
T: Hmhm.
L: And Gogo was saw the the the dog
T: Hmhm.
L: And Gogo said "I'm scared".
T: Mmmm.
L: And Songololo said he was good boy.
T: Mmmm.
L: And Gogo was holding him.
T: Hmhm.
L: And Gogo said "you clever boy".
T: Yes.
L: And Gogo was going to the bus and said "hold my stick" and and kick the tin.
T: Hmhm.
L: And Gogo was going slow.
T: Hmhm. Ok..
L: And Gogo said he said "you a good boy cause you helping me" and and and to the bus was talking. And he said "??"

Posttest

L: There was a noisy, everybody was making a noise and this is my new shoes and was be to . . . to my friend.
T: Hmmm. Ok..
L: And Gogo is he saw a dog.
T: Hmmm.
L: The dog was barking and S said "I'm not scared for the dog" and S kicks the tin and Gogo was too slow and said Gogo "hold my stick, I know to climb up in the bus". I will tell everything the cars, umm, . . . and everybody was running and be fast and Gogo was be slow.
T: Hmmm.
L: And he saw a toys. I like this one, Teacher.
T: Hmmmm. Oops, I think, did we skip a page?
L: And he look up in the red tackies and he said "Gogo, I want to that tackies, the red one, and" and Gogo, he look at a red tackies and S and Gogo they are going into the shop to buy tackies and Gogo buy in the Eastgate.
T: Buy what?
L: In the Eastgate.
T: Hmhm.
L: And Gogo went to the to see the red tackies and said "I want to buy a . . . a blanket and he don't buy it" and he put on the red tackies and

T: He said what?

L: He said he was blue.

T: Blue?

L: Hmhm. And the people and another the people they stand up and another people they sit down. And Gogo said to S. and said and said "S. what's your color, Gogo?" S. said.

T: Hmmm.

L: And everybody was going fast. And he saw the toys and Super (man) and they saw saw the new car and the ??

T: And the what?

L: And the planes.

T: Show me. Ahhh.

L: And was looking the shoes, red shoes.

T: Hmhm.

L: And he looked down at his shoes.

T: Hmmm.

L: And he see the price.

T: Hmhm.

L: And S. said "Gogo, did you buy me those red shoes?"

T: Hmmm.

L: And the car, it was going. And he press and they press the shoes and they it go to to to the to ask the man.

T: Mmm.

L: And they put it on and they press, is feel good and and they said "Gogo, how much?" and said "five".

T: Ok..

L: And S. said to Gogo "my shoes is going

he and he was saw a little bit "how much them?" "four rand" and counted "one, two, three, four" and he gave him four rand and S look at Granny and look at that guy working so fast and S look at his tackies and Gogo was so tired and they sit in the bus and they was happy and they sat and he help Gogo.

T: Yes, very nice.

better and fast".

T: Hmhm.

L: And to the bus they are going and put his shoes to the seats. And Gogo he's looking his shoes and and and the tin was falling down.

The Boy

Pretest

L: The boy was sleeping and the sun, it was coming out.

T: Hmhm.

L: And they don't see the sun.

T: Hmhm.

L: And the sun was coming out and fast and he eat and three was was eating the bread and the and the juice

T: Hmmm.

L: And mommy was making the food.

T: Hmmm.

L: And to the night was sleeping.

The Bicycle

Pretest

T: Ok, I have another set of pictures. Let's look at these. Ok, can you tell me the story?

L: Yes. And said how much the bicycle?

T: Hmhm.

L: And say it "10"

T: Hmhm.

L: And they go and said "How much the bicycle?" "10" and and he saw his Granny and

Posttest

L: He was sleeping in the night and the sun came out and he wake up in the morning and he eat his breakfast and he came back to the school and he eat his things and he and and the sun go into the night and his mommy gave him the food and he go back to sleep.

Posttest

T: Tell me this story. You want to start in the beginning?

L: "How much this bicycle?" "Ten rand" and he give him ten rand and he said "I want this bicycle" "yes, ten rand" and his bicycle and is tired and was broken and he want he said "I want a bike" and he saw a bike and he say he said to Grandpa "Whose bike is that?" "is yours" and he go to his uncle and his uncle buy him a new bike.

his and he going to give his Granny the money

T: Hmm.

L: And so the bicycle and as to Grandfather, said "whose bicycle is that?" he said "Grandfather, is yours" And then go with his bicycle and his broke his bicycle and and he put it on and he going to ride it.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

T: Can you tell me a story?

L: Yes, was this.

T: No, a new story. Any story.

L: A new story?

T: Hmhm.

L: I want to tell you Songololo story.

T: OK, why don't you tell me a story about you or your family?

L: And my mother was was buy me a bicycle.

T: Hmhm.

L: A new bicycle, and my brother was buy me the Coca-cola

T: Hmm.

L: And my sister was buy me the book and my Grandfather was buy me the train and and he buy me the soccer ball

T: Mmm.

L: And he buy me the the the hundred thousand and and put it in my bicycle, these things is broken and they put it and they match up.

T: Hmm. Ok, Is that it?

Posttest

T: Ok, now I want you to think about a story. Can you tell me a story that you can make up, just any story?

L: Songololo?

T: Any story, tell me any story that you can think up. Can be a book or about your birthday or any story.

L: March is was my birthday. Mommy put me birthday and. . when I'm five, and everybody said "happy birthday, Lawrence"

T: Nice.

L; I go home and eat my cake.

T: Hmm.

L: And my brother make me another cake and he finished and is why my mommy's birthday and my mommy on Tuesday he came to visit me.

T: Hmm.

L: And I went to visit my Daddy and if I'm came back, I see my brother.

T: Hmm.

L: And he bought me a airplane

T: Hmm.

L: Yes.

L: And and my Grandfather bought me a helicopter, a Biker Mice.

T: Oh.

L: And my Daddy came to visit me, it was my Daddy's birthday, I said "Happy Birthday" and everybody was happy and all the aunts. . on Monday I go to school and after school, I buy I eat my things . .if I bought my things, my Granny give me a money to buy suckers and . .

T: Ok..

Nelson – Control Group

Not So Fast, Songololo

Pretest

T: Ok, tell me the story. Tell me the story. .
Who's this?

N: Songololo.

T: Yes. Tell me the story.

N: Tackies. Shoes. Is want sleep. The Gogo
and the and the dog. The dog say woof, woof.

T: Hmhm.

N: Gogo and S is going town. They cry a bus
and S is is is is is what cry a bus. Gogo and the
mommy is is S is is is is what to S is go what
bus. S is talking the grandfather after after
Gogo say ?? is go and airplane and shoes for S.

T: Hmhm.

S: After the scooter is go and after is Gogo is
buy S shoes. After Gogo is S is what go to
town, is see big big carpet, if are shoes they
get, need a box for shoes, after this are shoes
for S, and then as they going a town.

T: Hmhm.

N: S is taking off these shoes and S is sleeping
of the Gogo is down.

T: Nice story.

T = Teacher

N = Nelson

S = Songololo

... = pause

Posttest

T: Can you tell me this story?

N: I don't know this. (pointing)

T: That's ok. What is he doing? What is
happening?

N: A dog barking.

T: Hmmm. Ok..

N: The dog see Granny and he is run away to
him.

T: Hmmm.

N: Is say Granny, is say Gogo, you can go to,
you can go with your friend. Is say him ding
ding ding. S climb up the bus, so many people
but S didn't cry to the bus,

T: Hmhm.

N: Songololo so many car, he going to to shop
and he say, what is one, Teacher Barbara?

T: Songololo.

N: Tis?

T: Hmmm.

N: Then he see S. S see two nice thing. Then
he go to tuck shop, then he go to buy the
shoes. Is my shoes, Gogo, and he's count his
money, one, two, three, four rand. He climb
up the bus and he say he say to his Gogo, this
very this nice shoes.

T: Very nice, thank you.

The Boy

Pretest

T: Look at these pictures. What do you see?
Can you tell me a story?

N: Yes. This is sleeping.

T: Hmhm.

N: This is eating.

T: Hmhm.

N: This is eating.

T: Hmhm.

N: This is eating.

T: Hmhm.

N: This is sleeping.

T: Hmhm.

The Bicycle

Pretest

T: This is a different story. Look at this story.
Look here. Look up here. Ok. Look up here.
Let's start here.

N: Bicycle.

T: Hmhm. What happened? Let's start here.

N: Because bicycle for the Daddy, this is what
bicycle is is baby. .

T: Hmhm. What happened here?

N: Bicycle is taking off these wheels stop.
This mommy is. . after this bicycle, this
mommy is turning off and is going this bicycle
and the daddy is looking is nice.

T: Yes.

Posttest

T: Ok, let me show you these pictures and you
tell me the story, Ok? Tell me the story.

N: You start from there?

T: Yes.

N: This one is sleeping, this one is eating, this
one eating outside, and this one is reading a
book and this one is sleeping.

Posttest

T: And another short story, ok? Start here,
please.

N: ?? He want to go with his bike, what is
bicycle? ??

T: What what?

N: Is take he want to take this bicycle, he see a
bicycle very broken and he run away to his
mommy and he see bicycle for a granny and
he say "please give me this bicycle" "no, is my
bicycle, look ?? go to buy your only bicycle"
and he check is man this bicycle and he go to
tuck shop and ?? and he go away to his blue
bicycle.

N: Hmhhh.

N: After this, this this bi -- this uncle is this for his bicycle is this baby is taking uncle for bicycle. This baby is going take baby. Finish.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

T: Can you tell me a story?. . about your birthday or about shopping with with mommy. .or what can you tell me? Can you tell me a story?

N: Yes.

T: Ok, tell me a story.

N: The story is called . .in bat, and the owl in the night is coming, of the owl in the night is coming after after in the morning the the owl is coming the bat is coming after owl in the night and after that he's sleeping. After after oh make a . . .

T: Ok, is your story finished?

N: No, in the dark, dark is ?? in the pool after after swim pool oh the boy after the boy is swimming pool is coming after is going in the school after is going after is going home an uncle after after is going is going a bus. Is finished.

Posttest

T: Ok, tell me any story.

N: Any story? Hmmmm. Didn't Frighten Me?

T: Ok.

N: And story poem. And and

T: Any story.

N: One pink, really dark night turn Mother turn off the light I look out my window only to see an orange alligator but this orange alligator didn't frighten me.

T: Very nice.

Appendix F

Sample Analyzed Transcript

Zandile – Interactive Reading

Not So Fast, Songololo

Nouns are marked in blue.

Correctly used verbs are marked in fuchsia.

Incorrectly used verbs are marked in red.

F-units are separated by slashes.

Phrases not analyzed are indicated by italics.

Pretest

T: Tell us the story. . . Tell me the story about S. . . ok, tell me the story. What is he doing?

Z: /Is playing./

T: Is playing. Hmhm.

Z: / Then, mommy is walking/ and see the dog that's barking./

T: Hmmm. . . what does Gogo say? What does Granny say? . . . What does Granny say? . . . Does she say "let's go shopping?"

Z: Yes, and then they did walking slow. /

T: Hmhm.

Z: And then said "hold my stick/ and then I get in the bus"/ And then S is walking fast/ and then said to Granny "Granny, look the cars"/ And then said "Look the tackies, Granny"/ And then said "Granny, let's get in/ and look those tackies"/ And then they start wearing them./ And then S is walking fast./ And then said Gogo to S "These tackies they're nice"/ And then and then Gogo looking is looking on his on his shoes on his tackies. / . .

T: Ok, thank you.

T = Teacher

Z = Zandile

S = Songololo

. . . = pause

Posttest

T: Tell me the story. Look at the pictures.

Z: She is slow./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And the baby crying./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And this one said to this to Songololo "where my yellow pen for?"/

T: Hmhm.

Z: And hear somebody coming down the street/ and the dog, um, and the dog bark at Gogo. /

T: Hmhm.

Z: And Gogo stands./

T: Hmhm.

Z: Then the dog stop to bark/ and Gogo stands./

T: Hmhm. . . do you want to turn the page?

Z: Yes.

T: Ok, well, you turn the pages.

Z: And Gogo calls Songololo to help her./ And S. comes/ and

T: Hmhm.

Z: And Gogo hold onto S.'s shoulders./ And

Zandile – Interactive Reading

Not So Fast, Songololo

Nouns are marked in blue.

Correctly used verbs are marked in fuchsia.

Incorrectly used verbs are marked in red.

F-units are separated by slashes.

Phrases not analyzed are indicated by italics.

Pretest

T: Tell us the story. . . Tell me the story about S. . . ok, tell me the story. What is he doing?

Z: /**Is playing.**/

T: Is playing. Hmhm.

Z: / Then, **mommy is walking/** and **see** the dog **that's barking.**/

T: Hmmm. . . what does Gogo say? What does Granny say? . . . What does Granny say? . . . Does she say "let's go shopping?"

Z: Yes, and then they **did walking** slow. /

T: Hmhm.

Z: And then **said** "hold my **stick/** and then I **get** in the **bus**"./ And then S **is walking** fast/ and then **said** to **Granny** "Granny, **look** the cars"./ And then **said** "Look the **tackies,** Granny"./ And then **said** "Granny, **let's get in/** and **look** those tackies"./ And then they **start** wearing them./ And then S **is walking** fast./ And then **said** Gogo to S "These tackies **they're** nice"./ And then and then Gogo looking **is looking** on his on his **shoes** on his tackies. / . .

T: Ok, thank you.

T = Teacher

Z = Zandile

S = Songololo

. . . = pause

Posttest

T: Tell me the story. Look at the pictures.

Z: She **is** slow./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And the **baby crying.**/

T: Hmhm.

Z: And this **one said** to this to Songololo "where my yellow **pen** for?"/

T: Hmhm.

Z: And **hear** somebody coming down the **street/ and the dog, um,** and the **dog bark** at Gogo. /

T: Hmhm.

Z: And Gogo **stands.**/

T: Hmhm.

Z: Then the dog **stop** to bark/ and Gogo **stands.**/

T: Hmhm. . . do you want to turn the page?

Z: Yes.

T: Ok, well, you turn the pages.

Z: And Gogo **calls** Songololo to help her./ And S. **comes/** and

T: Hmhm.

Z: And Gogo **hold** onto S.'s **shoulders.**/ And

he **said** Gogo. . .

T: Hmhm. . .Ok.

Z: And S. **stand**/ and he **kick**, um, a **can** / and Gogo **said** "**come** / and **help** me/, **hold** my **stick**"/

T: Hmhm.

Z: And S. **don't** know what to do./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And Gogo **said** to S. "**Come**/ and **help** me **climb** the bus". ./

T: Ok.

Z: And the bus **was** full /and S. **stand** close to Gogo./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And the **bus stand**/ and the **people go** out./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And this and Gogo Gogo and S. **sit** by the **window** / and S. **said** "**Granny**, I **know** this./ **look** at this, um. ./"

T: Hmhm.

Z: And he **said** "**I know** these cars"/

T: Hmhm.

Z: And the bus **stand**. / And Gogo and S. they **go** out./ Gogo **said** "**it's** only me that **I'm** old". /

T: Hmhm.

Z: And S. while he **was** **waiting** for her **Granny**/, he **looked** at the cars in the **shop**/. . .

T: Hmm. . Ok.

Z: And S. **said** to his **Granny** "**Granny**, **look** at those red **tackies**"/ *and and Gogo said ?? / And Gogo said ./. .* And Gogo **saw** the green man/ and Gogo **said** to S. "**this man is** **making** me **crazy**"/ and they **get** in the **shop** / and **Granny buy** tin of beans./

T: Ok.

Z: And Granny **buy** S. new tackies./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And S. **wear** his tackies, his new tackies,/ and he **look** at Gogo/ and he **smile**/ and Gogo **look** at these red **shoes**/ and then and Gogo **ask** "how much **is** these tackies?"/ And the man **said** "it's a four **rand**"/ and Gogo **count** his money./

T: Hmhm.

Z: One, two, three, four and she **gave** the man./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And the old tackies, **put** them in a new **box**/ and S. **started** to go fast / and Gogo **said** to S. "don't **go fast**"./

T: Ok.

Z: And they **climb** a bus/ and S. **put** his **feet** on the **benches**/ and she **looked** at his tackies/ and Granny **look** at the tackies/ and S. **was** happy./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And then **smile**./

The Boy

Pretest

T: Ok, tell me the story.

Z: The **baby is sleeping**/. . . And his **brother is eating**/. . .

T: Hmhm. . .and then what?. .ok. .

Z: And this **one is reading** a book/

T: Hmhm.

Z: . .and the **mommy doing** the **porridge**, the food/

T: Hmhm.

Z: . .and the **baby is sleeping**./

Posttest

T: Tell me a story about the boy.

Z: A **boy was** sleeping / and he **wake** up/ and the **sun was** bright/ and she **wake**/ and she and she **read**/ and he **wash** hisself/ and he **wear** his old **things**/ and she **eat**/ and he **read** a **book**/ and she **sleep** again./

The Bicycle

Pretest

T: Ok, look at these. Ok, can you see this? One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight. Can you tell me the story? . . . tell me about this picture. . . hmmm? What's happening?

Z: His bicycle is walking./ And then it's following it. / And then he's walking./ he's following his bicycle. / and then he hold it -- ah the mommy./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And then he and then he come to his granny /and then he said to his granny "look, my bicycle". /

T: Hmhm.

Z: And then they walking./ And then they ??

T: Hmm. What . . . solling?? What are they doing?

Z: They're standing./

T: Ok.

Posttest

Z: The little boy he was playing with his bicycle./ He did buy a bicycle/ and the man said "bring the money to pay me"/ and he gave her/ and she go to the to the shop/ and he said "this bicycle is broken"/ and she was pushing/ but the lady sitting outside and the blue bicycle/ and and the boy come to them/ and she give her money/ and he took the bicycle/ and she saw um/ and he saw Grandpa sleeping/ and he saw a red bicycle/ and she go to that/ and she give her money/ and said "can I have that bicycle?"/ and they buy/ . and he walked with his brother / and his brother was going to fix his bicycle / and his brother fixed the bicycle and . / .

T: . . . and the end.

Tell Me A Story

Pretest

T: Ok, can you tell me a story about you? about your birthday or about going to town or about going to the shops?

Z: Me and my **mommy** we **did go** to the town/ and then my mommy **buys** me an **ice cream**./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And **chips** and **juice**./ .and then he **buys** me the **clothes**. /

T: Ok, and then what happened?

Z: Finish./

Posttest

Z: One morning we **went** to to the **zoo**./

T: Hmhm.

Z: And I **saw** a **lion**

T: Hmhm.

Z: And a a **giraffe**/ and . .