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**STRATEGIES AND CHARACTERISTICS
OF EFFECTIVE
ONE-TO-ONE LITERACY TUTORS**

A thesis
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TRACEY SHELLEY-ANNE BENNETT

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Abstract

What makes an effective one-to-one tutor of literacy is unclear. Researchers (Anand & Bennie, 2004; Chapman, Tunmer, & Prochnow, 1999; Holland, 2004; Oliver, 2000) in New Zealand have investigated the effectiveness of one-to-one tutoring programmes; however there are very few studies on tutor effectiveness especially in the context of New Zealand education. The present New Zealand study explored the strategies that effective one-to-one tutors of literacy used as well as the observed and perceived characteristics distinctive to effective one-to-one literacy tutors.

Three effective tutors were observed at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre during their regular tutoring with two of their tutees over a period of four weeks. To determine the strategies used and the characteristics distinctive to the three tutors, tutoring sessions were audio-tape recorded, and observational notes were recorded. The time spent engaged in various teaching activities was recorded and tutors were required to comment on the successes and challenges of the session in a journal entry after each tutoring session. Individual and group interviews with the tutors were conducted to gain further insight into observational data and journal entries.

Numerous strategies were identified during observations of the three effective tutors; the use of these strategies was further explored during

individual and group interviews. The majority of each one-to-one tutoring session focused on the teaching of direct letter-sound relationships, listening to tutees read, and phonemic awareness activities. Open questions were asked more frequently than closed questions. Tutees were praised frequently. Scaffolding was observed regularly throughout tutoring sessions. The effective tutors used Questioning as their most frequent type of help and used Demonstrating least frequently. High levels of engaged teaching were maintained throughout tutoring sessions. A higher percentage of words were spoken by the effective tutors than the tutees. Written planning did not appear to play a role in the effectiveness of the tutor. Role reversal was a strategy used frequently by one of the effective tutors. Effective tutors used a variety of ways to motivate tutees to read, complete homework, and remain on task.

Many characteristics of effective tutors were revealed during observations and journal entries. The perceived characteristics of effective tutors were explored during interviews with the three tutors. The ability to establish positive, caring relationships appeared to play a major role in the tutees' learning and confidence. The tutors believed being responsive to tutees' emotional needs was the most important characteristic of an effective tutor. The tutors ensured that the sessions were positive and laughter was frequently observed. Good communication was maintained with parents and tutees. The effective tutors were flexible during tutoring sessions, yet consistent with routines. The three effective tutors were knowledgeable and experienced in working with children experiencing reading difficulties. They

believed effective tutors are aware of their tutees' areas of greatest need, understand their tutee, and maximise all teaching opportunities.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Although 75% of New Zealand children cope well with reading, the concern is that approximately 25% of children do not, thus requiring Reading Recovery or some other form of reading intervention (Ng, 2006). In 2001, nine countries administered the Trends in IEA's Reading Literacy Study to examine trends in achievement since 1991 (Ministry of Education, 2005). The study was conducted in conjunction with the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS). The results of the study revealed that Sweden had the largest range in reading achievement followed by New Zealand. The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) in 1996 found that one in five New Zealanders have very poor literacy skills (Walker, 1997). The results from the IALS are based on a random sample of 4223 New Zealand adults ranging in age from 16 to 65 years.

Children who are reading well will read more, learn more word meanings, and hence read even better (Stanovich, 1986, 2004). However, children with inadequate vocabularies, who read slowly and without enjoyment, read less which inhibits further growth in reading (Stanovich, 1986, 2004). Strickland and Morrow (2000) suggest this is a concern because these children fall further behind each year and develop negative attitudes towards reading. Westwood (2001) agrees that negative attitudes begin to develop when the child fails and becomes confused. Thus, the need for effective reading intervention programmes is crucial.

To address the difference between the highest and lowest achievers the New Zealand government set the goal that by 2005, every 9 year old child will be able to read, write and do maths (Ministry of Education, 1999). A Literacy Taskforce was set up to advise educators on how to achieve this goal. The Literacy Taskforce recognised that even the best classroom practices would benefit greatly from more intensive, specialised intervention programmes (Ministry of Education, 1999). Quatroche, Bean and Hamilton (2001) suggest there is a great need for extra tutoring for children who struggle to maintain their chronological age in reading.

Snow, Burns and Griffin (1998) believe tutoring is an important and effective way of helping young readers who are experiencing difficulties. There is a wide range of current reading intervention programmes in New Zealand schools that provide one-to-one tutoring. The cost of these interventions and the time dedicated to delivering them has led researchers to explore the effectiveness of reading intervention programmes.

However, the reasons behind the powerful effects of tutoring are not clear (Juel, 1996). What's more only a small amount of research has been conducted on what makes an effective tutor of literacy, especially in New Zealand. Little is known about what kinds of relational qualities might accompany effective tutoring (Lysaker, McCormick, & Brunette, 2004). Fitzgerald (2001) suggests future research should examine the components of tutoring that contribute to its effectiveness as well as the roles that social features of tutoring play in children's progress. Quatroche, Bean and

Hamilton (2001) also suggest there is a need for more observational research of effective reading specialists in order to understand what makes an effective reading specialist.

There is a dearth of New Zealand research concerning what makes an effective tutor, much of the previous research has been primarily conducted in the United States as well as England, Scotland, and Australia. It is important to investigate whether the findings of these overseas research studies reveal the same findings as research conducted in the context of New Zealand education. Of particular importance to the present study are findings of previous research (Cobb, 1998; Fitzgerald, 2001; Friedland & Truscott, 2005; Juel, 1996; Loudon et al., 2005; Lysaker, McCormick & Brunette, 2004; Maloch, 2002; Minor et al., 2002; Pressley et al., 2001; Rodgers, 2004/2005; Skidmore, Perez-Parent & Arnfield, 2003; Worthy & Patterson, 2001) that relate to the strategies used by effective tutors and the characteristics that are distinctive to effective tutors. These studies led me to conduct the present research study in New Zealand.

The purpose of this study was to examine the strategies that effective tutors of literacy use as well as the observed and perceived characteristics of effective literacy tutors. The study aimed to answer the following research questions in the context of New Zealand: 1) What strategies do effective one-to-one tutors use to foster or encourage success in reading for children experiencing reading difficulties? and 2) What observed and perceived characteristics are distinctive to effective one-to-one tutors of literacy?

To answer the research questions, six tutoring dyads, three tutors with two tutees each, were selected from the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Measures of tutees' progress were used to indicate the tutor's effectiveness. Tutors were also required to have at least 18 months tutoring experience at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Participants were observed during their regular tutoring sessions and interviewed on completion of the observations. Observations and tutors' journal entries were analysed. This data was used to construct interview questions that clarified the data. An analysis of the minutes spent on teaching activities was also conducted.

A review of the literature is provided in the following chapter. It includes a brief overview of reading difficulties in New Zealand and the reading interventions available in New Zealand schools. A detailed review of previous research studies concerning strategies and characteristics of effective tutors and teachers of literacy is also included. This review of relevant literature leads to the statement of research questions.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature related to the two research questions for the current study: 1) What strategies do effective one-to-one tutors use to foster or encourage success in reading for children experiencing reading difficulties? 2) What observed and perceived characteristics are distinctive to effective one-to-one tutors of literacy?

First, an overview of reading difficulties experienced by New Zealand children is provided. Second, because the importance of effective literacy tutoring programmes was highlighted when reviewing reading difficulties in New Zealand, descriptions of one-to-one reading intervention programmes available in New Zealand schools are provided. Third, considering the cost of interventions and time dedicated to delivering these interventions, it is important that we have a good understanding concerning what makes these interventions effective, in particular research that focuses not only on the programme but also the tutor. Thus, a review of recent studies that have investigated strategies used by effective tutors and teachers, characteristics of effective tutors and teachers, and the perceptions of what makes a tutor or teacher effective is included. Fourth, a rationale for the current study is provided. Lastly, the current study's research questions derived from the review of the literature are listed.

2.2 Reading Difficulties in New Zealand

According to the Ministry of Education (1996) most children who rely on schooling to learn to read and who receive good reading instruction do, in fact, become successful, lifelong readers. However, there are some children for whom good instruction is necessary, but not enough (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1999). The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) conducted in 1996 revealed that one in five New Zealanders had very poor literacy skills. The results from the survey are based on a random sample of 4223 New Zealand adults ranging in age from 16 to 65 years (Walker, 1997). In 1995 and 1996 24% of all 6 year olds were enrolled in Reading Recovery (Kerslake, 2001). Ng (2006) reported that in 2005 20% of all six year old children were enrolled in Reading Recovery. These statistics suggest that many New Zealand children have made little or no progress toward gaining independence in reading during their first year of schooling (Thompson & Nicholson, 1999). As these children have not got off to a good start, they typically fall further behind each year as their problems become compounded (Stanovich, 1986; Strickland & Morrow, 2000). Both Westwood (2001) and Strickland and Morrow (2000) suggest these children's problems are compounded because they develop effective avoidance strategies – children will try to engage as little as possible in reading and in doing so they negate the potential benefits of sustained practice. This is described by Stanovich (1986, 2004) as the Matthew effect. Stanovich (2004) states “children who have become better readers have selected, shaped, and evoked an

environment that will be conducive to further growth in reading. Children who lag in reading achievement do not construct such an environment” (p.127). Thus the disadvantaged children are left feeling inadequate, they continue to struggle along, and a bigger gap between the highest and lowest reading achievement scores is created. The occurrence of negative Matthew effects are highlighted by the findings from New Zealand’s participation in the Progress in Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) conducted in 2001. PIRLS was designed to assess reading literacy achievement at the middle primary school level. The distribution of scores shows the highest achieving students in New Zealand doing as well as, or better than, their peers in many countries. However, the range of scores was wide in New Zealand; they were large compared with most other high-performing countries (Ministry of Education, 2004). New Zealand had the second largest range in reading achievement. Only Sweden had a larger range, while the United States had the smallest range. Results of the IALS and PIRLS highlight the number of New Zealanders experiencing reading difficulties, thus it is important to reflect on possible reasons for children experiencing reading difficulties in New Zealand.

Nicholson (1997) suggests differences in home experiences, including socio-economic status, may help to explain why there are such differences among children’s reading abilities when they start school. Home environments that do not support and encourage reading fail to promote reading achievement for those children. These social-class differences are also reflected in the poor performance of low-income students at the end of their schooling (Nicholson, 1997). The high failure rate of pupils, particularly

in low-income schools, may also be related to the 'whole language' approach to teaching reading in New Zealand schools (Nicholson, 1997). Thompson and Nicholson (1999) state that children who score well on phonemic awareness tests also score well on reading tests. Without phonemic awareness children seem unlikely to become good readers and spellers. Juel (1996) also agrees that children who become poor readers were low in phonemic awareness at school entry. Thompson and Nicholson (1999) propose that exposure to good children's literature alone will be of little or no benefit to children experiencing reading difficulties.

Efforts to improve literacy skills in some countries have resulted in national initiatives such as specific policies and government directives on literacy teaching, regular monitoring of literacy standards, 'whole school approaches' to support children with literacy problems, the introduction of a daily 'literacy hour' in schools, and increased attention given to early identification and intervention for children at risk of failure. In October 1998, the New Zealand government announced the goal that "by 2005, every child turning nine will be able to read, write, and do maths for success" (Ministry of Education, 1998, p.5). A Literacy Taskforce was set up to advise educators on how to achieve this goal. The Literacy Taskforce recognised that even with the best practice in every classroom, effective intervention programmes are still needed for children who will benefit from more intensive, specialised teaching (Ministry of Education, 1999). Individual instruction has a particular advantage. Clay (2005) suggests it allows the child who does not know when his attempts are good and when they are poor to be personally reinforced by

the teacher immediately. It has been suggested that one teacher per pupil is the only practical way of working with children who are experiencing reading difficulties (Clay, 2005).

2.3 One-to-One Reading Interventions in New Zealand Schools

There is a range of one-to-one reading intervention programmes in New Zealand schools that provide individual guided practice and corrective feedback to students. What is of importance is the effectiveness of these programmes, therefore a review of current research concerning their effectiveness is provided as well as a brief summary of the intervention programme.

2.3.1 Reading Recovery

The Reading Recovery programme is funded and supported in New Zealand schools by the Ministry of Education (National Reading Recovery, 2006). The Reading Recovery programme is used for children falling into the lowest 20% of literacy learners compared with their cohort in an individual school (Ministry of Education, 1999). The children are admitted to the programme on the basis of achievement in the 'Six Year Net' or 'Observation Survey' (Adams & Ryan, 2002). These tests are administered on or soon after the child's sixth birthday. The 'Six Year Net' test comprise assessments in alphabet knowledge, sentence writing, spelling, reading lists of words in isolation, and concepts about print. Running records are also taken to assess

oral reading ability. Ng (2006) reported that approximately 20% of 6 year old children received Reading Recovery in 2005, fairly consistent with the previous years. The number of schools offering Reading Recovery has increased slightly from 64% in 2004 to 67% in 2005 (Ng, 2006). It is not uncommon to have children qualify for the programme but unable to find a place in a Reading Recovery programme. Some of these children miss out altogether because by the time there is a vacancy they are too old to meet the age criteria of 6 to 6 years 6 months (Adams & Ryan, 2002).

Children work individually with a trained Reading Recovery tutor. The child is taken out of class, thus close liaison between the class teacher and the Reading Recovery teacher is essential. The one-to-one instructional lessons occur daily and last for half an hour. Clay (2005) provides an example of a typical tutoring session:

- Reading of two or more familiar books;
- Rereading book from previous lesson and completing a running record;
- Working with letter identification;
- Breaking words into parts;
- Writing a story;
- Hearing and recording sounds;
- Reconstructing a cut-up story;
- Introducing a new book; and
- Attempting to read the new book.

Each child may attend Reading Recovery lessons for 12 to 20 weeks (Clay, 2005). Children are removed from the Reading Recovery programme when they have gained sufficient independence to be able to cope in their own classes. The decision is determined by performance on the Diagnostic Survey (Clay, 1979) and how quickly the child can work through the assessments. After 20 weeks if the child is unable to cope alone in the classroom, they are referred for psychological assessment and for longer-term help (Clay, 2005).

The level of efficacy of the Reading Recovery programme has been challenged by some observers who believe that gains made in the programme are not necessarily maintained over time, and skills taught in the sessions do not generalise to the children's classroom reading activities (Westwood, 2001).

Chapman, Tunmer and Prochnow (1999) conducted a study that examined the relationship between the development of phonological processing skills and the effectiveness of Reading Recovery in a whole language instructional context. The participants in the study were aged 5 years and were part of a study on beginning literacy achievement. There were four groups of participants: Reading Recovery group – children who had successfully completed Reading Recovery; Referred On group – children who had failed to complete Reading Recovery and had been referred for further assistance; Poor Reader Comparison group – poor readers who did not receive Reading Recovery; and Normally Developing group – average to

above average readers. Chapman, Tunmer and Prochnow (1999) hypothesised that “children with deficiencies in phonological skills at school entry would encounter difficulties in learning to read, and that unless these deficiencies were overcome during regular classroom instruction or Reading Recovery, the reading difficulties would continue” (p. 4). Findings showed that participation in the Reading Recovery programme did not eliminate or reduce deficiencies in phonological skills (Chapman, Tunmer & Prochnow, 1999). Evidence for the failure of Reading Recovery to bring children up to average levels of reading performance may be seen in what is known as the reading book level data. To successfully complete the Reading Recovery programme the child should be working at or above Level 16¹ of an approved list of text levels that has been field-tested (Clay, 2005). “In accordance with this recommendation, the mean book level reported by the Reading Recovery teachers for the discontinued children was 16.6. However, the classroom teachers reported a mean reading book level of only 9.0 for the same children, with only one child attaining a level of 16” (Chapman, Tunmer, & Prochnow, 1999, p.49). The researchers have no explanation for this discrepancy. This suggests that methods of evaluation are not consistent with the classroom measures.

Reading Recovery data has been monitored and reported on annually since 1984 by the New Zealand Ministry of Education. Ng (2006) reported on

¹ Books are levelled according to the *Ready to Read* series. A book level of 16 has a recommended reading age of 6 to 6 years 6 months.

the data from the 2005 Annual Monitoring of Reading Recovery.

Approximately 59% of students completed Reading Recovery successfully during 2005 and a further 24% were considered to be responding well and carried over to 2006. During 2005 8.4% of children were 'referred on' to specialist help or long-term reading support. Students who completed Reading Recovery successfully had an average of 76 sessions over a period of 19 weeks (Ng, 2006).

2.3.2 Resource Teachers of Literacy (RT: Lit)

Resource Teachers of Literacy (RT: Lit) were known as Resource Teachers of Reading prior to 2001. RT: Lit offer specialist assistance to primary and intermediate level school students (mostly aged 6 to 12 years). They are funded by the government. In 2004 there were 109 RT: Lit in New Zealand working with 87 clusters with children in Years 0-8 (Holland, 2004). All RT: Lit are required to complete a 2 year graduate or post graduate diploma. The training programme gives the teachers an understanding of research methodologies, theories of literacy, and a background in current issues in literacy. Every RT: Lit is responsible to a management committee. A management committee comprising a base school principal, another principal, a reading adviser and a member of the local Special Education branch decides which students will be enrolled and discontinued with an RT: Lit (Adams & Ryan, 2002). The Ministry of Education (2002) states that the role of a RT: Lit is to support the classroom teacher by meeting the needs of children struggling with literacy, as well as working with individual or small

groups of children. Limbrick (2002) believes the RT: Lit positions have expanded and strengthened the role of Resource Teachers of Reading. Adams and Ryan (2002) suggest the role of a RT: Lit has moved from one in which nearly all their time was spent tutoring pupils on a one-to-one basis, to a role that involves much less individual tutoring and more teacher or school literacy advisory work. However, research found that although there was a slight increase in the average time RT: Lit spent with teachers, specialist staff and others in 2004, there was also an increase in their time spent with students – close to half of the RT: Lit weekly workload was dedicated to assisting students directly (Holland, 2004).

The average time a pupil spends with an RT: Lit is between 10 and 20 weeks, although some children continue for up to a year (Holland, 2004). This decision occurs after test data for each pupil is reviewed and analysed. The assessments administered can include a word recognition test, running record of oral reading achievement, spelling, knowledge of the alphabet, and sometimes various phonological awareness tests (Adams & Ryan, 2002).

Data on students taught by RT: Lit and their precursors (Reading Teachers of Reading) have been collected and analysed each year since 1992. Annual reports to the Ministry of Education record progress of the service throughout New Zealand schools. The purpose of these reports is largely to provide evidence of shifts in student achievement; however, information is also collected on the nature of RT: Lit work (Holland, 2004). The report found that of those students discontinued from an RT: Lit, nearly

60% were Pakeha, while 30% were Maori and 9% Pasifika, reflecting the ethnic distribution at enrolment (Holland, 2004). The greatest gains in reading levels were made by students aged 7 to 11 years. Holland (2004) suggests that lower gains in reading for those aged 12 and older may be caused by entrenched literacy difficulties and that this area could benefit from further investigation to determine the most effective intervention strategies for children over 12 years.

2.3.3 Supporting At-Risk Readers

The Supporting At-Risk Readers programme (SARR) is an adaptation of the Reading Recovery programme designed for students Year 4 (8–9 year olds) and above in the Waikato² who are experiencing reading and writing difficulties. The SARR programme is funded by the Waikato Community Trust (Oliver, 2000). Funding grants are also provided by WEL Energy Trust and the Ministry of Education (SARR Trust, 2006).

At the beginning of every school year, all Year 4 students are screened in reading and writing tasks. After testing, results are analysed, and students operating below their chronological age are listed. Students are prioritised in order of least need so that they can be worked with quickly and remedied in a short time making way for children with greater reading difficulties. Daly, Miller and Kellaway (2003) describe SARR as daily, individual, intensive

² The Waikato is a region in the North Island of New Zealand.

supplementary tutoring that provides specialist teaching, enabling students to stimulate their learning. SARR is a collaborative approach between parents, teachers and SARR tutors. Tutors are trained teachers. Tutors are up-skilled in the processes of reading, writing, and strategic teaching. The programme consists of three components: A school-based intervention programme, an ongoing yearly tutor development programme, and a 5 week parent training programme (Oliver, 2000). The main purpose of the programme is to accelerate students to a level where they are able to participate independently in a group within the classroom (Oliver, 2000).

Upon entry to the programme each candidate is given a full range of tests to assess their individual needs. The assessments include three running records to establish an easy, instructional, and hard level; writing vocabulary from the Observational Survey; Peters Spelling Test; and the New Zealand Revised Burt Vocabulary Test (Marriott, 1995). The achievement of independent reading with understanding at the average class level is the criterion for discharge from the programme. Time in the programme is not a factor (Marriott, 1995). When a student is considered ready for discontinuation, a full regime of testing is again undertaken to confirm the tutor's judgement. Students' progress continues to be monitored after discharge from the programme. The students are monitored twice a term for the rest of that school year and then once a term until they leave the school (Marriott, 1995). There is evidence to suggest that with ongoing monitoring, positive changes to students' attitudes towards reading and their reading abilities can be maintained for approximately 1 to 2 years (Oliver, 2000).

A study to evaluate the SARR programme was conducted by Oliver (2000) in order to provide evidence that a local 3 year grant was producing 'value for money'. The study focussed on one participating school and investigated the impact of the SARR programme on the attitudes and behaviour of the children, the tutor teachers, and the parents over a 3 year period. Oliver (2000) collected data from a variety of sources: Semi-structured interviews with the principal, the tutor and parent trainer, tutors, parents and classroom teachers; observations of parent training sessions and tutor training sessions; and an analysis of figures on the chronological and reading ages of the students at points of entry, discharge, and 1 to 2 years after discontinuation of the programme. Oliver (2000) found that overall the SARR students made reading gains of approximately 1.9 years during their time in the programme. After they had left the programme they maintained a reading age of between 8 years 6 months and 10 years and maintained this over 1 to 2 years (Oliver, 2000).

Oliver (2000) suggests students in the study expressed confidence in their ability to read once they had participated in the SARR programme. They were able to explain the new strategies they had acquired to read and understand the text. Oliver (2000) also states that teachers noticed significant changes for the better in the students' attitudes towards reading, overall achievement, and classroom behaviour.

2.3.4 Pause Prompt Praise

Pause Prompt Praise (PPP), known in Maori as *Tatari Tautoko Tauawhi*, was originally aimed to support students of middle to upper primary school age who were making very slow progress in learning to read, and whose reading ability was 2 to 5 years below their chronological age (Glynn, Wearmouth, & Berryman, 2006). However, PPP is now used to support younger children as well as children who speak English as a second language. The principles of the PPP procedures are not necessarily limited to parents in the home. PPP may also be conducted at school, usually outside the mainstream classroom, by teachers, classroom assistants, community members and others, including peers who are more skilled in reading. PPP sessions include regular and brief oral interactions between a tutor and tutee, the tutee reads a written text that is of high interest to the reader and the tutor, but at an appropriate instructional level beyond what the reader could manage independently, within their zone of proximal development (Glynn, Wearmouth, & Berryman, 2006). PPP emphasises the importance of phonemic awareness. Children can continue using the PPP programme for as long as it is deemed necessary. Tutors are not required to have qualifications. The training offered to PPP tutors is short; however, it requires some support for tutors from experienced teachers and researchers (Wearmouth, 2004). The implementation of PPP is dependent upon the allocation of resources by each participating school.

A study conducted by Merrett and Thorpe (1996) measured the power of praise by using two parallel groups tutored by older pupils. The research question examined the importance of praise as an element in the PPP procedures. One group was tutored using the standard PPP procedures, whilst the second group was tutored similarly but given no praise. A non-treatment group was used for comparison. The study was completed in 10 weeks, each reading session occurred three times per week for approximately 15 minutes. The participants were chosen from a population of Year 7 and Year 9 pupils in a community school in Birmingham. Students whose reading ages were 4 years or more below their chronological ages were included in the study. The tutors were required to record the session number, the date, the title of the book, and the page numbers read at the end of each session. Records were also kept of the progress made through book levels. The pairs were asked to record every reading session on audio-tape and the researcher attended all sessions to ensure that this was carried out. Merrett and Thorpe (1996) monitored the performance of the tutors by listening to the tape recordings of the reading sessions and gave them feedback once a week. A questionnaire was also completed by each of the peer tutors upon completion of the study. Praise was found to be a highly significant factor for success in improving reading (Merrett & Thorpe, 1996). This research showed that praising in the PPP procedures must be specific and immediate. The students in the group which received no praise improved, but to a far lesser extent than those who had been tutored using all three elements of PPP. Merrett and Thorpe (1996) suggest further studies are

needed to examine the incidence and importance of variability in praise responses.

After reviewing the one-to-one reading intervention programmes provided in New Zealand schools there are many questions that remain unanswered, one of which is: How does the role of the tutor contribute to the effectiveness of the programme? Research studies have largely focussed on the effects of the intervention programme but no study in New Zealand has focused on the person delivering the programme and what makes them effective.

2.4 Studies that have Investigated Effective Tutors and Teachers

According to Clay (2005) the best progress for a child experiencing reading difficulties will result from the kind of individual instruction that works with the child's strengths to overcome his weaknesses. Snow, Burns and Griffin (1998) agree suggesting that tutoring is an important and effective means of helping young readers and writers who are experiencing difficulties. Considering the cost of interventions and time dedicated to delivering these interventions, it is important that we have a good understanding of effective interventions, both in terms of the programme and the tutor. Allington (2006) suggests that struggling readers benefit enormously from access to tutoring, in particular, tutoring that is paced to take advantage of every minute of time available. In addition, Glynn, Wearmouth and Berryman (2006) suggest the characteristics of particular importance within reading tutoring are: Learners

assuming some control over interactions; reciprocity and mutual influence between learner and teacher; learning is scaffolded within the zone of proximal development; and feedback is responsive to the learner's current level of understanding and competence, not simply corrective or evaluative. Research that has been conducted primarily in the United States, as well as Australia, England and Scotland, have investigated this area further. The following section provides a summary of 13 research studies in three areas: 1) Strategies used by effective tutors and teachers; 2) characteristics of effective tutors and teachers; and 3) perceptions of what makes a tutor or teacher effective. See Table 1 for an outline of the studies listed in alphabetical order.

Table 1 *Studies Relating to Tutor and Teacher Effectiveness*

Researchers & location	Data	Participants	Focus
Cobb (1998) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview • Written reflections • Assessment measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-education majors • Preservice teachers • Fourth grade children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Characteristics of effective tutors • Social context of tutoring • Instruction
Fitzgerald (2001) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey • Interview • Assessment measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First and second grade children • Minimally trained college students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruction • Reading gains • Supplemental tutoring

Table 1 (continued)

Researchers & location	Data	Participants	Focus
Friedland and Truscott (2005) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written reflections • Survey • Interview • Assessment measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grade 7 and 8 children • Preservice middle and secondary teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruction • Supplemental tutoring
Juel (1996) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Written reflections • Survey • Assessment measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grade 1 children • University student-athletes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instruction • Communication between tutors/students • Overall achievement of tutors/students
Louden et al. (2005) Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching practices that lead to improved outcomes
Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Written reflections • Assessment measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preservice teachers • Grade 1 to 5 children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One-to-one tutoring • Relationship between tutor and student

Table 1 (continued)

Researchers & Location	Data	Participants	Focus
Maloch (2002) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Interview • Literature Response Logs • Teacher Notes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grade 3 students • Teacher in her fifth year of teaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher's role and guidance within literature discussion groups
Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Survey 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preservice teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers
Pressley et al. (2001) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Interview 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behaviours and characteristics of effective teachers
Rodgers (2004/2005) United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation • Reflection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading Recovery teachers • Grade 1 children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature of scaffolding in one-to-one reading instruction
Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield (2003) England	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers • Year 6 children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-pupil dialogue during guided reading

Table 1 (*continued*)

Researchers	Data	Participants	Focus
Topping and Ferguson (2005)	• Observations • Interviews	• Teachers • Children in their first year of schooling (5 years)	• Teaching behaviours of highly effective teachers
Scotland			• Teachers perceptions of effectiveness
Worthy and Patterson (2001)	• Observation • Written reflections	• Grade 1 to 5 children • Preservice teachers	• Relationship between tutor and student
United States			• One-to-one tutoring

2.4.1 Strategies used by Effective Tutors and Teachers

Fitzgerald (2001) studied at-risk first and second grade (aged 6 to 8 years) students' reading growth whilst being tutored by minimally trained American college students in the America Reads programme. The 144 first and second grade students were chosen from schools that had the lowest or second-lowest average reading scores in the district. The poorest readers from each class were selected. One hundred and seventeen children were in the programme long enough to be able to be included in the research study and their parents had consented for them to be included in the analyses.

Thirty nine college students were selected as tutors and five graduate students were chosen as supervisors.

The tutoring sessions were modeled partly on Reading Recovery lessons. There were four parts to each lesson: Reading familiar text, word study, writing sounds and reading a new book. Each session was 40 minutes long and occurred twice a week. Tutors and supervisors were given a total of 33 hours of training: 12 hours were given prior to commencing tutoring and the remaining 21 hours were spread over the 6 months that the programme ran for.

Fitzgerald (2001) used standardised and non-standardised assessments to assess students' reading ability at the beginning, middle and end of the study. Aspects of reading ability that were measured included: Instructional reading level (Bader Reading and Language Inventory); including book level (Clay, 1993); ability to read words in isolation (San Diego Quick Assessment, LaPray & Ross, 1986); knowledge of letter names (Letter Identification, Clay, 1993); knowledge of letter sounds in isolation and in context (Letter Identification, Clay, 1993); and attitude towards reading using a Likert-style survey. Tutors and supervisors filled out questionnaires about aspects of the tutoring programme prior to the commencement of the programme and upon the completion of the programme. Focus group interviews were conducted three times during the programme, each time randomly selecting 8 to 10 tutors. According to Fitzgerald (2001) the interviews gave participants the opportunity to talk about problems they may

have been experiencing, positive events, aspects of the programme, and their training.

All children received identical formats for tutoring. There were two groups of children: High-level treatment and low-level treatment. The major difference between the two groups was the amount of tutoring received. The high-level treatment group of children received 25 weeks of tutoring compared to the control group of low-level treatment children who received 6 to 12 weeks of tutoring. The control group design for this study was unique as it involved a within-programme control group format; a group of children was compared with a group of similar children in the programme who received identical instruction, but less of it (Fitzgerald, 2001). Comparisons between the within-programme control group and other students showed that, on average, children made statistically significant gains in instructional reading level that could be attributed to the tutoring. Overall, high-level treatment children outperformed low-level treatment children in instructional reading level. The children receiving more tutoring gained more (1.19 grade levels) than the group with fewer sessions (0.29 grade levels) (p [less than] 0.01). According to Fitzgerald (2001) the effectiveness of a tutorial programme is related to using a balanced lesson design that stresses repeated reading, word study, learning about sounds, and sound-letter relationships.

Friedland and Truscott (2001) researched American middle school students' awareness and commitment through literacy tutoring. The

participants included 13 seventh and eighth grade (aged 12 to 14 years) children experiencing reading difficulties. They were selected by the reading specialist at their school with additional reference to teacher recommendations. The study went for two semesters. Tutors for this programme were enrolled in a literacy course designed for preservice middle and secondary teachers in various subject areas. Tutors received ongoing training throughout the course; the class met for one and quarter hours twice a week. The tutors had no previous tutoring or literacy teaching experience. Tutoring sessions were held two to three times per week for 40 minutes, for a total of 18 sessions. The sessions focused on vocabulary, word recognition, comprehension, writing, and study strategies.

Tutees' reading levels were assessed using a standardised reading test prior to commencing the programme. Three types of data were collected during the research study. The first type of data required the tutor to make daily reflections regarding learning interactions. The second data type required the adolescent tutees to complete a Likert-style survey in order to obtain information on their reactions to the tutoring programme. Data was collected from individual interviews with the tutees upon conclusion of the programme.

An analysis of the tutors' daily reflective journals revealed that the tutors spent the majority of their time building comprehension and developing vocabulary. Another major category that emerged from the reflections was relationship building. Friedland and Truscott (2005) highlighted the

importance of flexibility and sensitivity in maintaining a positive relationship. Instructors of the literacy course emphasised the importance of recognising individual differences. Data from the Likert-style surveys indicated that the majority of students were aware that the tutoring helped them learn new words, helped them understand what they read, and helped them sound out words. The findings revealed that the tutees were generally aware of what was being taught and of their own learning. Answers to interview questions also revealed the students' awareness that tutoring helped them. Responses from interview questions indicated that the tutoring programme helped build an awareness of students' learning and an awareness of the process of learning. "This awareness can be a driving force in students' persistence in learning and willingness to apply the strategies voluntarily" (Friedland & Truscott, 2001, p. 559). Six out of seven students stated they would like to continue in the programme.

Louden et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analysis to identify effective teaching practices that lead to improved literacy outcomes for children in the early years of school (first and second year of schooling³). This was a national study funded by the Australian Government Department of Education, Science, and Training in which effective teachers of early literacy in primary schools were identified, observed, and their teaching practices compared to

³ First and second year of schooling refers to the first and second years of formal schooling for which children's chronological age varies between Australian states.

those of less effective teachers. Based on success in producing student achievement gains over much of the school year, three groups of teachers were identified: Those who were more effective, as effective, or less effective than expected in literacy teaching. The teachers in the three groups who had agreed to take part in the observation phase of the study were each visited by two members of the research team for up to four days and their literacy teaching sessions were videotaped. Table 2 describes 33 literacy teaching practices classified into six broad dimensions. Louden et al. (2005) developed the descriptions of these teaching practices based on key findings from research literature. They were used as a tool when observing the effective teachers of early literacy.

Analyses of the frequency of literacy activities in all teaching episodes showed that there was substantial overlap between the groups of teachers; Louden et al. (2005) suggest this indicates only a very weak relationship between teacher effectiveness and literacy teaching activities. In terms of the weak relationship between teaching activities and teacher effectiveness, the more effective teachers made rather more use of the activities of reading to children, interactive writing, independent writing, and language experience. In contrast, the less effective teachers made more use of guided oral reading, isolated phonics, and task board activities.

Table 2 *Teaching Practice Axis of Classroom Literacy Observation Schedule by Dimension (Louden et al. 2005, p.188)*

Category	Description
Participation	Teacher's organisation and motivation of children's classroom literacy learning, characterised by attention, engagement, stimulation, pleasure, and consistency.
Knowledge	Teacher's application of her knowledge of literacy to teach significant literacy concepts and skills, characterised by use of the classroom literacy environment, purpose, explanations, modeling, and meta-language.
Orchestration	Teacher's management or orchestration of the literacy classroom, characterised by awareness, structure, flexibility, pace, and transition.
Support	Teacher's support for children's literacy learning, characterised by assessment, scaffolding, feedback, responsiveness, explicitness at the word and text levels, and persistence.
Differentiation	Teacher's differentiation of literacy tasks and instruction, characterised by challenge, individualisation, inclusion, variation, and connection.
Respect	Teacher's respect for children and evidence of the children's respect for her and their classmates, characterised by warmth, rapport, credibility, citizenship, and independence.

Analyses of the Classroom Literacy Observation Schedule (CLOS), showed that the more effective and effective teachers demonstrated a wide variety of literacy teaching practices from all six dimensions of CLOS: Participation, Knowledge, Orchestration, Support, Differentiation, and Respect (Louden et al., 2005). The less effective teachers demonstrated a limited number of literacy teaching practices that were also spread across the six dimensions of CLOS. Louden et al. (2005) state that further analysis showed that the literacy teaching repertoires of the more effective and effective teachers included teaching practices that were less frequently seen in classrooms such as attention, engagement, pace, meta-language, and challenge. The teaching practices of the less effective teachers tended to be dominated by those teaching practices frequently observed in classrooms (Louden et al., 2005).

Louden et al. (2005) suggest the more effective and effective teachers were different from the less effective teachers in terms of quality and quantity of their teaching practices in the support dimension. The more effective and effective teachers were able to support children through the literacy teaching practice of assessment-based teaching, scaffolding, feedback, responsiveness, explicitness at word and text levels, and perseverance in ensuring positive literacy outcomes for the whole class. Louden et al. (2005) suggest that focused and explicit feedback indicates to children exactly where their learning is appropriate and where they need to develop further specific concepts and skills.

According to Louden et al. (2005) the findings of the study show that effective literacy teaching requires teachers who can “ensure high levels of student participation, are deeply knowledgeable about literacy learning, can simultaneously orchestrate a variety of classroom activities, can support and scaffold learners at word and text levels, can target and differentiate their instruction, and can do all of this in classrooms characterised by mutual respect” (p. 242).

A study conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) was designed to develop an understanding of what effective first grade (aged 6 to 7 years) literacy instruction was like in contemporary America. Pressley et al. (2001) state that an important limitation to other studies previously conducted is that they were carried out in only one region of America; consequently the results could have reflected a set of practices shaped by local pressures. To avoid potential regional influences, Pressley et al. (2001) conducted their study in five different states in various regions of the United States.

School administrators were asked to identify grade teachers who they considered to be very effective in promoting literacy achievement. Rather than simply accepting the school administrator’s recommendations as accurate, Pressley et al. (2001) came to their own conclusions about the effectiveness of each teacher. The researchers based this on observations of student engagement and evaluations of the quality of reading and writing observed during the study. There were 15 pairs of teachers observed in this study. Although, only 10 were used to generate conclusions in the study, all

30 participants were studied carefully. The most effective and least effective teacher in each of the five states was included. These selections were based on the literacy outcomes of engagement in literacy activities, student reading, and student writing.

Participating teachers were observed repeatedly to document their teaching and observe the reading and writing of students in their classes. All the observers had extensive experience in reading education, ranging from professors to graduate students. The observers especially attended to teaching processes, the types of materials used in the class, and student reading and writing performances and outcomes. In general there were at least five or more half day visits to each classroom. The effective teachers in a study conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) placed a real emphasis on the sounds of words, both during decoding and writing.

Data collection and analysis occurred simultaneously over the course of the observations of each teacher. Observations at the beginning of the study were open-ended, and as conclusions about a teacher emerged the observations became more focused. The observation data were complemented by interview data, with interview questions designed to clarify the observations. The researchers who did the observations and conducted the interviews at each site then developed a summary of how their most effective and least effective teacher taught. Detail was strongly encouraged. This process continued for the teaching behaviours and characteristics of all

10 teacher participants. A list of 221 teaching behaviours and characteristics was compiled.

The researchers at each site were then given the entire list of 221 teaching behaviours and characteristics and asked to indicate which ones occurred in the most effective classroom they observed at their locale. These indications were used to produce a list of teaching behaviours and characteristics that occurred in all five 'most effective for local' classrooms. One hundred and three behaviours and characteristics were identified. Many of the behaviours and characteristics in this list could be attributed to the 'least effective for locale' teachers. Therefore, another analysis was carried out to identify the behaviours and characteristics unique to the most-effective-for-locale teachers compared to the 'least effective for locale' teachers. A list of 11 behaviours and characteristics distinguishing the 'most effective for locale' from the 'least effective for locale' was compiled:

1. When explicit teaching and opportunistic teaching are combined, often many skills (10 to 20) are covered every hour of literacy teaching.
2. The teacher explicitly teaches children to self-regulate.
3. Students are taught to use multiple cues as part of word recognition during reading.
4. There is explicit teaching of comprehension skills.
5. Extensive scaffolding during writing.
6. Students are taught to plan, draft, and then revise.

7. Cue cards are provided for the writing processes, providing hints about what needs to be checked during revising.
8. By the end of the year students are expected to use conventions correctly (e.g. Capitalising sentences, and ending sentences with punctuation marks).
9. High demands are placed on children with respect to spelling during writing (e.g. correct spelling of high frequency words, reasonable invented spelling of lower frequency words, and some use of a dictionary to check spellings).
10. Big books are written by the class.
11. Tasks are designed so students spend much more time on academically demanding subtasks than non-demanding ones.

(Pressley et al., 2001)

In order to provide a rich description of effective instruction for children who are having great difficulty learning to read, Rodgers (2004/2005) examined the nature of scaffolding in a one-to-one literacy learning setting in the United States. The students' interactions with their teachers provided an ideal context to learn more about the nature of effective literacy tutoring. Rodgers (2004/2005) analysed the teacher's help in two ways: In terms of the kind and in terms of the level of help provided. The following questions were posed: (1) What is the nature of the student's problem solving, and how does this problem solving change over time? And (2) What is the nature of the interactions between teacher and student in terms of the kind and level of teacher support provided to help the student use the sources of information,

and how do these interactions change over time? Particular attention was paid to the teacher's talk because according to research (Wells & Chang-Wells, 1992), talk plays a critical role in scaffolding literacy performance.

This study used a qualitative case study approach to provide a detailed description of the interactions between two expert teachers and two of their students (four students in total) over 12 weeks during literacy tutoring sessions. Data were gathered in the context of Reading Recovery not because Rodgers (2004/2005) wanted to evaluate the effectiveness of Reading Recovery, but because it provided an appropriate setting: One-to-one intervention for at-risk readers.

Only two lesson components were analysed for the purpose of this study: (1) Running records, because they provided evidence of the child's independent problem solving and (2) reading a new story with teacher assistance, because it provided evidence of the student-teacher interactions.

Two teachers were chosen from a list of recommended Reading Recovery teachers compiled by 10 Reading Recovery teacher leaders. Both teachers had successfully discontinued more students than the average for the state in the previous school year. The student participants were identified as the lowest achieving children in their first grade (aged 6 to 7 years) group according to assessment measures of reading ability.

Lessons were audio-taped daily for a total of 169 lessons. In addition, two consecutive lessons for all four students were videotaped at four points in time at 3 weekly intervals, resulting in 32 videotapes. As soon as possible following each videotaped lesson, each teacher viewed the tape and reflected aloud about the student's reading and the support provided during the reading. Their reflections while viewing the videotapes were audio-taped and fully transcribed.

Data were analysed in two main phases corresponding to the two research questions. Rodgers (2004/2005) analysed the nature of the tutees' problem-solving attempts while reading independently during the running record component of each Reading Recovery lesson. She then gathered data on interactions at four points for two consecutive lessons. Each teacher move was categorised in two ways: The kind of help and the level of help offered. When coded by kind of help, Rodgers (2004/2005) found that the content of the interactions had to do with either words or actions. Definitions and examples of teacher moves are provided in Table 3.

Evidence suggested that the two tutors varied the kind of help that they provided to their students and that the kind of help was matched to each student's development. When considering the level of help provided, the majority of teacher moves focused on taking some action. Most teacher moves directed or questioned the student to take an action, even early on, as opposed to demonstrating or telling the student. In fact, demonstrating and telling made up the smallest percentages of all the teachers' moves. "Not

only must the teacher have a theory of the task and a theory of the student but the teacher must also decide what errors to attend to and what level of help to provide” (Rodgers, 2004/2005, p. 530).

Table 3 *Categories of Teacher Help from Rodgers (2004/2005, p. 511)*

Category	Definition	Examples
Telling (T)	The teacher reveals or tells the student.	“That word is <i>girl</i> .” “You skipped a page.” “That didn’t sound right to me.”
Demonstrating (De)	The teacher takes the student’s role and demonstrates a problem-solving action.	The teacher rereads. The teacher articulates the first sound of a word.
Directing (Di)	The teacher directs the student to take a specific action.	The teacher rereads. The teacher articulates the first sound of a word.
Questioning (Q)	The teacher asks a question.	“Are you right?” “Does it say <i>leopard</i> or <i>lady</i> ?”

Rodgers (2004/2005) suggests that texts that are too easy and read accurately will not provide opportunities for the teacher to interact with the student. However, she also suggests that too many errors might also be counterproductive to the learning process, because the student’s engagement and contribution to the problem solving will likely diminish. Without the student’s contributions, there could be no interaction.

Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield (2003) investigated the quality of teacher-pupil dialogue in the guided reading session of the Literacy Hour in the United Kingdom. The pilot study suggested that the different patterns of teacher-pupil dialogue had significant consequences for the development of pupils' comprehension abilities.

Five primary schools in the South of England were visited on three occasions over a 6 month period. Guided reading sessions were audio-taped for 20-30 minutes on each occasion, and were of the same group of 6 children aged 10 to 11 years and their teacher. A video camera was also mounted on a tripod to record aspects of non-verbal communication during the discussion. Audio-tape recordings were transcribed by a trained transcriber and then cross checked and amended by the research team.

Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield (2003) revealed that teacher-pupil dialogue in the guided reading session tended to resemble 'pedagogical dialogue'. This can be described as "someone who knows and possesses the truth instructs someone who is ignorant of it" (Skidmore, Perez-Parent & Arnfield, 2003, p. 52). According to Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield (2003) the teacher controlled turn-taking by nominating the next speaker, kept control of the topic of conversation, and did most of the talking. Their findings suggest that there may be a need to re-examine the conduct of discussions in the Literacy Hour. Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield (2003) suggest it may be beneficial to relax the teacher's directing influence over the talk for

part of the session and allocate time for pupils to explore their own understandings, in their own words.

Topping and Ferguson (2005) explored the teaching behaviours of highly effective teachers of literacy working in different literacy teaching contexts and investigated whether these were consistent between teachers and whether teacher perceptions corresponded with observations of their behaviour. The study took place in Western Scotland.

Five schools with the largest difference between experimental and comparison group gains (these differences ranged from +17 months to +33 months of reading age) were selected to participate in the study (Topping & Ferguson, 2005). In each of the five schools, one effective teacher in the first year of formal schooling was selected. In this study, the effective teachers were nominated by a local authority advisor as the most effective in schools with high gains on literacy tests. The selected teachers' length of teaching experience ranged from 5 to 26 years (average 16 years). The average age of the pupils was 5 years and 5 months.

An observation schedule was derived from previous research on the behaviours of effective teachers, general classroom observations, and effective strategy instruction (Topping & Ferguson, 2005). Observable behaviours were grouped into five major categories: a) Transmitting Information, b) Interaction with Pupils, c) Questioning, d) Non-teaching, and e) Formal Assessment (Topping & Ferguson, 2005). Each teacher was

observed during two literacy sessions each lasting 1 hour 20 minutes during which researcher interactions were kept to a minimum. All sessions were videotaped and the observation schedule was completed later from the video. An interview with each teacher was also conducted on completion of observations. Teachers were invited to comment on their organisation, teaching strategies, lesson content, monitoring and assessment methods, and professional development in literacy (Topping & Ferguson, 2005). Interview questions were matched with the major behavioural observation categories and were designed to provide an in-depth view of the observations. Data from interviews and observations were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for further analysis.

Topping and Ferguson (2005) found that during shared reading sessions the effective teachers interacted with their students and questioned frequently. Questioning was more open than closed and non-teaching behaviour was rarely observed. In contrast, during the general literacy sessions non-teaching behaviour occurred more frequently and less questioning was evident. Questioning was more closed than open. Praise was used frequently in both general literacy sessions and shared reading sessions. Teacher behaviour appeared to support and scaffold literacy learning, and learners were generally engaged. Most of the participating students reported actively seeking high rates of time on-task and explicitly using questioning, modeling, and scaffolding. This was confirmed by observation.

2.4.2 Characteristics of Effective Tutors and Teachers

Cobb (1998) reflects on a study that provides a closer analysis of the social context of tutoring with older readers. The research participants were fourth grade (aged 9 to 10 years) at-risk children in a culturally diverse American elementary school. Standardised test scores administered by the school each spring were used to identify possible candidates for the tutoring programme. The three research questions asked were: 1) What is the nature of social interactions within tutorial sessions? 2) How can we describe naturally occurring social interactions between highly effective tutors and tutees? 3) Do highly effective tutors share common characteristics as they interact with tutees?

The total number of tutors in Cobb's (1998) study was 17: Nine athletes who were non-education majors and eight preservice teachers. Training was limited due to time availability, therefore tutors met for one hour each month for training sessions.

Tutoring sessions were run twice a week for half an hour. The programme lasted 10 weeks. Each session consisted of reading aloud an independent level book, a retelling of that story, activities that provided opportunities for tutees to practise reading for standardised tests, journal writing, and if there was time, reading aloud a book at an instructional level⁴.

⁴ The reader requires the help of another in order to read the book.

The researcher used qualitative data sources including preliminary and post interviews with the tutors, teachers, and children. In addition, tutors and children were required to make ongoing journal entries. Cobb (1998) also provided additional quantitative data in the form of pretest and posttest scores. These tests measured reading achievement, writing achievement, and attitudes towards reading. Results showed that there were significant gains due to the efforts of the tutors and their students. Numerous characteristics were observed within the unique social context of each successful dyad: Tutors communicated well; tutors had a social conscience; they felt a kindred bonding to their child; tutors effectively used body language; tutors were knowledgeable about their student's culture; and tutees were motivated and co-operative as a consequence (Cobb, 1998). As in Juel's (1996) research, the most successful dyads experienced significantly more scaffolded reading and writing experiences. Cobb (1998) suggests a close examination of the social context of the tutoring relationship and specific interpersonal skills of effective mentors are areas for future research.

Juel (1996) investigated the interactions and types of tutoring activities observed in successful tutoring dyads as well as the impact that tutoring first grade at-risk children had on American university student-athletes who were poor readers.

Juel (1996) assessed the following measures for each child: Alphabet recognition, concepts about print, word recognition, spelling, basic decoding skills, and attitudes towards reading using standardised and non-

standardised tests. The interactions of the most successful tutoring dyads were analysed to determine the particular forms of interaction and the specific tutoring activities that seemed to most help the children. Two types of analyses were used to compare the tutoring interactions and activities in the most successful dyads with the interactions and activities in the less successful dyads. Firstly, qualitative analysis of videotapes and audio-tape recordings of tutoring sessions were conducted, and transcriptions were made of a random selection of sessions (approximately six sessions). Audio-tape recordings along with their transcriptions and videotapes were independently viewed or listened to by four people, the researcher and three others. The reviewers then considered their logs and identified those techniques and interactions that seemed most prevalent and successful across the effective dyads.

To determine whether these identified interactions were characteristic of the successful dyads, more detailed analyses of the audio-tape recordings and videotapes were conducted. The occurrences of different types of interactions on each audio-tape were counted and random selections of videotapes were re-examined. The second form of analysis was a quantitative analysis of minutes spent in the various tutoring activities. Tutors were required to record the start and finish times of each activity on a form that was handed in immediately following the tutoring session. Research assistants listened to the audio-tapes and verified both the length and kind of activity. Total times spent in the seven basic activities throughout the tutoring sessions were then tallied. The seven basic tutoring activities were:

1) Reading children's literature, 2) writing, 3) My Book, 4) My Journal, 5) alphabet book, 6) hearing sounds, and 7) letter-sound activities.

Juel (1996) states that there were no differences between the number of tutoring sessions or the incoming characteristics of the children in the successful and less successful dyads. When considering the initial analysis of what might have contributed to success in the tutoring dyads, Juel (1996) suggested the three basic characteristics of the 15 most successful dyads were: "Obvious affection, bonding, and verbal and non-verbal reinforcement of children's progress; many scaffolded reading and writing experiences; and much explicit cognitive modeling of reading and writing processes by the tutor" (p.282). An analysis of minutes spent in the seven basic teaching activities showed the 15 most successful dyads spent substantially more time engaged in two activities: Reading My Book (these books slowly introduced both high frequency words and new words built on the phonogram taught during instruction) and direct letter-sound instruction. On the other hand, the 15 most successful tutoring dyads spent substantially less time in two activities: My Journal (children thought of a new word for the tutor to record and the child copied it into their journal, drew a picture, and a short sentence using the new word) and reading literature (these books were written by popular children's authors). Juel (1996) states that the form of interaction within the activity (e.g. scaffolding and modeling) contributed to what the child learned from the activity.

Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) chose a collective case study method to explore and examine the relational dimensions of one-to-one tutoring. Cases were chosen not for their intrinsic interest but because the researchers thought they would highlight the phenomenon of relationship (Lysaker, McCormick & Brunette, 2004). This study extends the current research on effective tutoring programmes by closely examining the relational qualities of very successful and less successful tutoring pairs.

The 10 week study took place as part of an established university school partnership with a four year teacher education programme in the United States. Ten tutoring pairs were chosen as the participants. Students and their tutors who made significant progress (7 tutoring pairs) and also those that made very little progress (3 tutoring pairs) were chosen. The 10 tutors were preservice teachers, all in their third year of a four year teacher education programme. The tutors were all enrolled in a literacy block required of all elementary education providers. One tutor was an African-American female and 9 tutors were Caucasian females. The students were in Grades 1 to 5 (aged 6 to 11 years). Nine were of African-American descent; one child was of Latino origin. All the children were referred to the tutoring programme by their teachers because of a perceived need for them to receive help with literacy. Reading level assessments were used to confirm the need for tutoring, as well as to provide a baseline for interpreting children's progress across the semester. Tutors were required to assess reading abilities and reading attitudes of their tutees, and to provide detailed lesson plans.

Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) had three main data sources for this study: 1) A set of achievement measures to ascertain children's reading growth and to determine which tutoring pairs had experienced significant success; 2) preservice teachers' written reflections; and 3) researchers' observations that documented relational qualities of the tutoring pairs.

Two researchers independently read and reread four sets of tutoring journals looking for significant characteristics of the tutoring relationship. Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) then met as a team and discussed what qualities were present in the cases they read. From this, the researchers developed a set of themes that they could use to code the next set of four tutoring journals. Seven themes were identified in the journals of those tutors whose children met with significant success over the 10 week period: Happiness, sensitivity, responsiveness, hope, positive tone, reciprocity, and reflectivity. In contrast, the qualities of relationship identified in the tutoring journals of the four less successful tutoring pairs were discomfort, hierarchy, lack of optimism, and foreclosure of possibility.

The study concluded that there were relational differences between very successful and less successful tutoring pairs. Very successful tutoring pairs seemed deeply engaged in caring and were sensitive to their reading buddies. Less successful tutors, on the other hand, had difficulty connecting to their reading buddies. They were concerned about their buddies and wanted them to succeed; however, they were not able to engage on a

relational level. Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) suggest that relational factors may directly impact the tutoring process and be a critical issue for those interested in helping readers and writers experiencing difficulties.

Maloch (2002) conducted a 5 month qualitative study in the United States to examine the teacher's role and guidance within the context of literature discussion groups. The classroom that was the focus for this study consisted of 29 third grade students (aged 8 to 9 years) of varying ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. The teacher was in her 5th year of teaching, literacy activities were abundant and her classroom provided many opportunities for students to respond to literature. Maloch's (2002) investigation explored the question: What is the relationship between the teacher's role and student participation in literature discussion groups?

Data were collected through participant observations, interviews with the teacher and the students, and collection of artifacts (literature response logs, teacher notes, and handouts). Approximately 30 literature discussion groups were videotaped, three formal interviews were conducted with the teacher, and multiple informal interviews occurred throughout data collection. Data were recorded with the use of field notes, and video and tape recording. Maloch's (2002) role was as participant observer and this role varied throughout data collection. In the beginning, she participated in a role similar to a teacher's assistant; this enabled the students to adjust quickly to her presence. As data collection intensified, her role became more observational.

Data analysis was ongoing throughout all phases of data collection. As patterns and categories were identified the researcher compared events within and across categories to refine and further develop hypotheses. Maloch (2002) informally shared raw data and in-process analyses with the teacher for the purpose of triangulation.

Findings revealed that the effective teacher acted as a facilitator and a mediator, rather than a leader (Maloch, 2002). She broadly described the teacher's role within discussion groups as active, complex, and dynamic. "Instead of orchestrating the discussion from the outset, she responded to what students generated" (Maloch, 2002, p.100). She suggests when teachers function as a more experienced other, they support, or scaffold students attempting tasks they are unable to complete on their own. The findings also showed the discussion was cohesive. The teacher asked follow-up questions that continued or expanded a line of thought. The study provided an in-depth look at how this teacher enacted the role of facilitator as she scaffolded students' understandings of a new discussion format. The teacher's role during literature discussion groups consisted primarily of scaffolding students' attempts at conversation and discussion around the literature (Maloch, 2002).

Worthy and Patterson (2001) observed 71 preservice teachers and analysed their reflections concerning their experience of literacy tutoring. This enabled the authors to examine how the situated learning experience and the relationship with students contributed to preservice teachers' growth

in teaching. This study involved two school-based literacy tutorial programmes in predominantly Hispanic American, low-income schools.

The 71 tutors were preservice teachers in a one year teacher preparation programme. The 71 tutored students were in Grades 1 to 5 (aged 6 to 11 years) and had been referred by their teachers as needing reading support. Thirty of the students were bilingual in English and Spanish.

Worthy and Patterson (2001) focused their data collection and analysis primarily on tutors' written reflections and the observational notes of researchers which were kept in journals. Tutors were required to write formal reflections about their tutoring every several weeks and once at the end of the semester. A typical reflection described the student's instructional needs, their new relationship, any concerns about their ability to tutor, and their optimism about working with their student.

When analysing the data, Worthy and Patterson (2001) did not start with pre-established categories. The categories developed as the researchers collected and analysed reflections, met formally and informally, read and shared research literature, and thought independently. Worthy and Patterson (2001) did not code anecdotal notes and researcher journal entries; however, they used these as contextual support in presenting findings.

Five categories emerged from the study: Tutors' Concerns, Assessment, Instruction, Tutor Learning, and Relationships. When analysing

data concerning tutors' concerns, Worthy and Patterson (2001) found that tutors' first reflections described their own perceived limitations and that tutors worried that they were not experienced enough to be effective. Concerns about their own inadequacies gradually gave way to the realities of teaching as time passed. Worthy and Patterson (2001) stated that tutors' reflections became more focused on managing behaviour and meeting the instructional needs of their students. Analysis of assessment and instruction found that as tutors moved through the semester, tutors began to take charge of individualising instruction for their students based on their growing knowledge of students' interest and needs (Worthy & Patterson, 2001). Tutors' final reflections illustrated a deeper understanding of their students' individual academic needs, which led to more focused instructional plans. Worthy and Patterson (2001) found that as the semester progressed tutors' reflected on their own learning. More than half of the tutors believed that the connection between theory and practice was the most important aspect of the tutoring. The largest category of tutor comments focused on personal relationships between tutors and students (Worthy & Patterson, 2001). Tutors commented on the positive influence of relationships on students' motivation and learning. Tutors discussed how their moods were tied to their children's actions during tutoring sessions (Worthy & Patterson, 2001).

Worthy and Patterson (2001) suggest that a future study could include fewer participants to enable the researcher to examine more closely the issues of tutor learning and relationships. Another suggestion for further research was to include interviews and systematic analysis of tutors'

interactions with students, parents, and teachers. Worthy and Patterson (2001) further suggest that future research on tutor-child interactions in classrooms and other tutorial settings could help clarify the role of personal relationships in students' learning.

2.4.3 Perceptions of What Makes a Tutor or Teacher Effective

Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002) examined preservice teachers' perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers. The participants were 134 preservice teachers who were enrolled in an introductory level education class. The majority of participants were Caucasian female.

The participants were administered the Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Teachers Survey (PTPCETS) and the Witcher-Travers Survey of Educational Beliefs (WTSEB). The PTPCETS required participants to identify, rank, and define between three and six characteristics that they believed effective teachers possessed or demonstrated. The WTSEB contained two parts, the first part asked questions about demographic information and the second part contained 40 items each using a five point Likert-type scale. The first stage of analysis was to examine the responses of students regarding their perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers. To determine the percentage of students who cited each attribute, units of information served as the basis for defining a significant statement, each unit corresponded to a unique characteristic (Minor et al., 2002). The second stage of analysis involved themes being

given a score of one if at least one characteristic was represented by the participant and a score of zero if not. Minor et al. (2002) described the third stage of analysis as a “series of chi-square analyses to determine which background variables were related to each of the themes” (p.119). In the final stage of analysis, a factor analysis determined the number of factors underlying the themes.

Seven themes emerged from the preservice teacher’s responses: 1) Student centred, 2) effective classroom and behaviour manager, 3) competent instructor, 4) ethical, 5) enthusiastic about teaching, 6) knowledgeable about the subject, and 7) professional. Being student centred was the most common theme identified by participants. Minor et al. (2002) states that in general, preservice teachers, regard the interpersonal context as the most important aspect of teaching.

2.5 Summary

Six studies highlighted strategies used by effective teachers and tutors. The study conducted by Loudon et al. (2005) revealed that effective teaching requires teachers who can maintain high levels of student participation, are knowledgeable about literacy learning, orchestrate a variety of classroom activities, support and scaffold learners, and target their instruction according to the children’s needs. Most teachers in the study conducted by Rodgers (2004/2005) directed or questioned the student to take an action, as opposed to demonstrating or telling the student how to solve a problem (Rodgers,

2004/2005). The findings of Topping and Ferguson's (2005) study revealed that effective teachers interacted with their students and questioned them frequently. Topping and Ferguson (2005) found that the type of questioning was more open than closed. Modeling and scaffolding were observed frequently and non-teaching behaviour was rarely observed.

Several characteristics distinctive to effective tutor and teacher participants were revealed in the review of literature. Cobb (1998) revealed the effective tutors were knowledgeable about their students' culture thus enabling the students to maintain motivation and co-operation. Juel (1996) found that the three basic characteristics of the 15 most successful tutoring dyads were affection, bonding, reinforcement of children's progress; scaffolded reading and writing experiences; and frequent modelling of reading and writing processes. Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) found that there were relational differences between the successful and less successful tutors. Successful tutors were caring and sensitive to the needs of their students whereas the less successful tutors found it difficult to connect with their students. Maloch (2002) revealed that the effective teacher acts as a facilitator and a mediator, rather than a leader. The characteristics identified by previous research led this study to explore whether these characteristics were distinctive to the three tutors in the present study.

Preservice teacher's perceptions of an effective teacher were explored by Minor, Onwuegbuzie, Witcher and James (2002). Effective teachers were perceived to be student centred, effective managers of the classroom and

students' behaviour, competent instructors, ethical and enthusiastic, knowledgeable about the subject they taught, and professional. The present study explores the perceptions of the three tutors concerning characteristics of effective tutors.

2.6 Rationale for the Study

The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) in 1996 found that one in five New Zealanders aged 16 to 65 years have very poor literacy skills (Walker, 1997). Kerslake (2001) also revealed that approximately 20 percent of New Zealand children experience reading difficulties during their early days at school. Research shows that there is a great need in New Zealand for extra tutoring for children who struggle to maintain their chronological age in reading (Quatroche, Bean & Hamilton, 2001). Many tutoring programmes in New Zealand provide very successful tuition but not many teachers receive feedback about the strategies tutors use that makes the tutoring in these programmes so successful.

Research has been done to examine tutoring programmes and what makes a programme effective, but little research has studied individual tutor effectiveness. Studies of effective tutoring may be enhanced by a close look at how the tutor delivers the programme. Fisher (2005) claims that the focus in reading research has been more on the child's behaviour than on the role of the teacher. Goldstein (1999) suggests that the New Zealand literature has focused on the more cognitive aspects of the tutoring process, leaving

the affective nature of teaching-learning interactions unexplored. Quatroche, Bean and Hamilton (2001) believe there is a need for more observational studies that follow effective reading specialists as they perform their roles in order to understand what makes an effective reading specialist. Mercer (1995) also suggests there is continued and crucial need for research that looks particularly at how teachers and learners interact as they move toward developing shared knowledge. Fitzgerald (2001) suggests future research needs to examine several factors, including the following: (a) Which components of tutoring contribute to its effectiveness? And (b) What roles do social features of tutoring play in children's progress? Answers to these questions have important implications for teacher and tutor education.

There is a dearth of quality research on tutor effectiveness in New Zealand. My study aims to address this by identifying strategies and characteristics distinctive to effective tutoring dyads in one-to-one literacy tutoring, in New Zealand.

2.7 Research Questions

This study endeavours to answer the following questions:

- 1) What strategies do effective one-to-one tutors use to foster or encourage success in reading for children experiencing reading difficulties?
- 2) What observed and perceived characteristics are distinctive to effective one-to-one tutors of literacy?

Chapter 3: Method

The following chapter describes the methods and procedures used in this study. The setting for the study, selection of participants, measures of tutee's reading ability, comparison of tutees' chronological ages and reading ages, procedure, and analysis of the data are outlined. The chapter concludes with a summary.

3.1 Setting

The Hamilton Children's Reading Centre opened on 17 February 2003. The Reading Centre provides free specialist diagnosis and tuition for children, aged 6 to 14 years, who are experiencing reading difficulties. The Hamilton Children's Reading Centre is the only reading centre of its kind operating in Hamilton. Approximately 40 children from a wide range of schools attend the Reading Centre each week. The Reading Centre is modelled on the Auckland Children's Reading Centre that was established in 2001 by Professor Tom Nicholson and Associate Professor Keri Wilton. Dr Sue Dymock and Professor Tom Nicholson, Directors of the Hamilton and Auckland Reading Centres, work collaboratively, regularly discussing the content and the effects of the intervention. The Reading Centre is a collaborative project between the School of Education at The University of Waikato, Knighton Normal School and the community. It is staffed by Bachelor of Teaching (Honours) and Master of Education students, practising

provisionally, and fully registered teachers along with a Manager and a Director. During 2005 there were a total of eight tutors.

Children must be reading at least six months below their chronological age to be accepted into the programme. Children are assessed when they enter the programme to ascertain their reading age and to diagnose their specific areas of weakness. All children in the programme are assessed at the beginning of Term One, at the end of Term Two, and at the end of Term Four⁵. Once children have reached their chronological age in reading they receive a graduation certificate. Children are graduated at two different times during the year: At the end of Term Two, after mid year assessments, or at the end of the year.

Each child attends the Reading Centre for one session per week. A session usually lasts for one hour. During this time the tutor and tutee work one-to-one on a range of activities. Typically each session involves reading age-appropriate text, a high frequency word activity to develop word recognition and automaticity, a phonemic awareness activity, direct letter-sound instruction, and spelling instruction. Depending on the tutee's individual needs, activities focusing on comprehension or fluency are also worked on during the session.

⁵ A New Zealand school year comprises of four terms

3.2 Selection of Participants

Six tutoring dyads, three tutors with two tutees each, participated in the study. When selecting participants the following criteria were applied:

- Measures of tutees' progress indicated that the tutor was an effective tutor;
- Tutors must have had at least eighteen months' tutoring experience at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre;
- Tutor and tutee were available at times that the researcher was available to observe; and
- All participants agreed to participate in the study.

All three tutors and six tutees who met the criteria were approached and agreed to participate. Informed consent was obtained from all participants and anonymity was assured. Each tutor was assigned a number and each tutee was assigned a letter of the alphabet. Throughout this thesis the tutors are referred to as T1, T2, and T3; the tutees are referred to as TA, TB, TC, TD, TE, and TF. In the following subsections the method of selection of the three tutors and six tutees will be described.

3.2.1 Tutors

Measures of tutee's progress were available for three experienced tutors from the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre who had each been

tutoring at the Reading Centre for at least eighteen months. In all three cases measures indicated that the tutors had been effective (i.e., the tutees had made statistically significant gains in reading progress while being tutored by one of these three tutors (Dymock, 2004)). The three tutors were approached and invited to participate in the study. Written informed consent was obtained from the Director of the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre and the three tutors (see Appendices A and B). Details of the qualifications and experiences of the three tutors follow (see Table 4 for a summary).

3.2.1.1 Tutor one. Tutor One (T1) has a Bachelor of Arts Degree with Commerce and Japanese; and a Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching. T1 is a fully registered teacher. She has completed three papers towards a Master of Education degree. During 2003 T1 studied at the University of Waikato part-time, taught Year Five and Year Six students part-time at a local country school, and tutored six children at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. During 2004 T1 taught level one and two literacy education papers part-time to Bachelor of Teaching students at The University of Waikato. In addition, T1 continued to teach Year Five and Year Six students part time at the primary school and tutor four children at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. In 2005 T1 won a full time teaching position in which she taught Year Five and Year Six children. During 2005 T1 also tutored two children at the Reading Centre.

3.2.1.2 Tutor two. Tutor Two (T2) is a provisionally registered teacher. She has a Bachelor of Teaching and a Postgraduate Diploma in Education.

T2 has also completed one paper towards a Master of Education. Prior to working at the Reading Centre, T2 worked in a reception class for new immigrants at a primary school in Hamilton. T2 was the Manager of the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre in 2003 and tutored ten children per week. In addition, T2 taught Year Four and Year Six children part time, and worked with ESOL children. In 2004 T2 resigned as the Manager because she won a full-time teaching position at a primary school in which she taught Year One, Two and Three children. T2 continued to tutor two children at the Reading Centre in 2004. In 2005 T2 tutored eight children per week at the Reading Centre. In August 2005 the Manager's position became available at the Reading Centre and T2 resumed this position, tutoring ten children per week as is required in the Manager's position.

3.2.1.3 Tutor three. Tutor Three (T3) is a provisionally registered teacher with a Bachelor of Teaching and a Postgraduate Diploma in Education. T3 started tutoring at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre in February 2004 while completing her postgraduate studies at The University of Waikato. She tutored six children per week in 2004. During 2005, T3 tutored eight children per week and worked part-time in a relieving position in primary schools and early childcare centres.

Table 4 *Summary of Tutors' Qualifications and Experience*

Tutor	Qualifications	Teacher Registration	Started tutoring at the Reading Centre (Years of teaching in brackets)	Number of children tutored per week
Tutor One (T1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bachelor of Arts with Commerce and Japanese • Postgraduate Diploma of Teaching • Working towards Master of Education 	Fully registered	February 2003 (3 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2003 – 6 children • 2004 – 4 children • 2005 – 2 children
Tutor Two (T2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bachelor of Teaching • Working towards Master of Education 	Provisional	February 2003 (3 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2003 – 10 children • 2004 – 2 children • 2005 – 10 children
Tutor Three (T3)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bachelor of Teaching • Postgraduate Diploma of Teaching 	Provisional	February 2004 (2 years)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2004 – 6 children • 2005 – 8 children

3.2.2 Tutees

Tutees were selected according to the availability of the three selected tutors and the researcher, and consent from the child and their guardian. Six tutees participated in the study. Written informed consent was obtained from the parents or guardians of the tutees (see Appendix C). Verbal consent was also obtained from each tutee (see statement in Appendix D). All tutees who were invited to participate in the study agreed to participate. All six tutees were European. There were 2 girl and 4 boy tutees. Five tutees (Tutees A, B, C, E & F) spoke English as their first language. One tutee, Tutee D, spoke English at school and spoke Afrikaans at home. Descriptions of the individual tutees' profiles are given in Table 5.

3.2.2.1 Tutee A. Tutee A (TA) is a girl aged 8 years 11 months. TA enrolled at the Reading Centre in August 2005. She has good hearing and does not wear glasses; however, she had been undergoing vision therapy. TA participated in Reading Recovery for approximately ten weeks. According to her mother, her attendance at school is good. TA started school at the age of six in Australia. Her attendance for the last two terms of 2005 at the Reading Centre was 100%. See Table 6 for a summary of TA's beginning and end of year assessment results and Figure 1 for a comparison of TA's chronological age and her performance on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999).

Table 5 *Summary of Tutees' Profiles*

Tutee	Age	Gender	First enrolled at Reading Centre	Vision and hearing	First language	Other reading intervention programme	Reading Centre attendance term 3 and 4, 2005
Tutee A	8y11m	female	August 2005	Vision therapy, good hearing	English	Reading Recovery 10 weeks	100%
Tutee B	10y7m	male	February 2003	Glasses, good hearing	English	None	100%
Tutee C	12y5m	male	February 2003	Good	English	Reading Recovery and a school based reading programme	72%
Tutee D	10y7m	male	February 2004	Good	English and Afrikaans	None	89%
Tutee E	8y7m	male	February 2005	Good	English	None	94%
Tutee F	7y7m	female	July 2004	Good	English	Reading Recovery	83%

3.2.2.2 *Tutee B.* Tutee B (TB) is a boy aged 10 years 7 months. TB enrolled at the Reading Centre in February 2003. He has good hearing according to his mother and wears glasses for reading. TB has not been in any reading intervention programmes other than the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. His school attendance is good and he had a 100% attendance rate at the Reading Centre for the last two terms of 2005. See Table 6 for a summary of TB's beginning and end of year assessment results and Figure 1 for a comparison of TB's chronological age and his performance on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999).

3.2.2.3 *Tutee C.* Tutee C (TC) is a boy aged 12 years 5 months. TC enrolled at the Reading Centre in February 2003. According to his parents, he has no hearing or vision impairment. He has participated in Reading Recovery and was involved with another reading programme at his school. His attendance at school is reasonable and in the last two terms of 2005 he attended 72% of all tutoring sessions. See Table 6 for a summary of TC's beginning and end of year assessment results and Figure 1 for a comparison of TC's chronological age and his performance on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999).

3.2.2.4 *Tutee D.* Tutee D (TD) is a boy aged 10 years 7 months. TD enrolled at the Reading Centre in February 2004 and graduated in December 2005. He does not wear glasses and he has good hearing. TD has not participated in other reading intervention programmes. According to his mother, he has excellent school attendance. TD attended 89% of all tutoring

sessions at the Reading Centre for the last two terms of 2005. He speaks English at school and Afrikaans at home. TD started school at six years of age in South Africa and has been at school in New Zealand since 2002. See Table 6 for a summary of TD's beginning and end of year assessment results and Figure 1 for a comparison of TD's chronological age and his performance on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999).

3.2.2.5 Tutee E. Tutee E (TE) is a boy aged 8 years 7 months. He started attending the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre in February 2005. According to his mother, TE has good vision and hearing. He has not been involved in other reading programmes. His attendance at school is good and he attended 94% of tutoring sessions at the Reading Centre for the last two terms of 2005. See Table 6 for a summary of TE's beginning and end of year assessment results and Figure 1 for a comparison of TE's chronological age and his performance on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999).

3.2.2.6 Tutee F. Tutee F (TF) is a girl aged 7 years 7 months. TF enrolled at the Reading Centre in July 2004. She does not wear glasses and she has good hearing. TE has previously participated in Reading Recovery. Her school attendance is good and she attended 83% of all tutoring sessions for the last two terms of 2005. See Table 6 for a summary of TF's beginning and end of year assessment results and Figure 1 for a comparison of TF's chronological age and her performance on the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999).

Table 6 *Tutees' Assessment Results (in Raw Scores and Reading Ages) 2005*

Assessment Measure	Tutee A		Tutee B		Tutee C		Tutee D		Tutee E		Tutee F	
	Aug ^a	Nov	Feb	Nov								
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (accuracy)	8y1m	7y9m	7y5m	9y2m	6y4m	7y2m	7y4m	9y1m	6y2m	7y8m	6y1m	7y3m
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (comprehension)	7y9m	7y10m	7y7m	13yrs	7y5m	8y11m	6y11m	11y9m	<6yrs	7y10m	<6yrs	7y1m
Burt Word Reading Test	7y2m	7y7m	7y3m	9y5m	7y3m	7y6m	8y1m	12y10	6y4m	7y10m	6y5m	7y3m
Roper Phonemic Awareness (42)	42	40	33	41	40	I/C	42	42	11	42	14	36
Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills (50)	24	37	15	42	20	29	25	43	3	34	0	19
Schonell Spelling Test	8yrs	8y2m	7y6m	8y8m	7y2m	7y4m	7yrs	8y7m	6y4m	7y1m	5y9m	6y5m
WRAT3 Reading (57)	24	29	24	30	26	29	21	35	21	28	19	25

Note. I/C = Incomplete. Maximum raw scores are provided in brackets immediately following the name of the assessment measure.

^aTutee A enrolled in August 2005 therefore her beginning of year assessments were administered in August rather than February.

3.3 Measures of Tutee's Reading Ability

The following assessment measures are administered on all tutees in the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre by the tutors each year in February, July and November. A summary of measurement raw scores and reading age equivalent for each of the six tutee participants are shown in Table 6.

3.3.1 Neale Analysis of Reading Ability. The Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999) is a standardised test that measures reading accuracy and comprehension. Each form of the test contains a series of six graded passages varying in length from 26 to 505 words. Accuracy is assessed by oral reading of graded passages, and comprehension is assessed by orally answering questions about the passages. Parallel-forms reliabilities are .98 for accuracy and .95 for comprehension (Neale, 1999).

3.3.2 Burt Word Reading Test. The Burt Word Reading Test (Gilmore, Croft, & Reid, 1981) is used to assess children's ability to read words in isolation. It consists of 110 words graded in approximate order of difficulty. This is a New Zealand standardised test and age norms have been provided for children from 6.0 years to 12.11 years (Gilmore, Croft & Reid, 1981).

3.3.3 The Roper Phonemic Awareness Test. The Roper Phonemic Awareness Test (Roper, 1984) is used as a measure of phonemic awareness. This test consists of six subtests, each measuring a different aspect of phonemic awareness. These aspects are phonemic segmentation,

phoneme blending, deletion of a phoneme, substitution of initial phoneme, and substitution of final phoneme. Each subtest consists of seven items, giving a maximum score of 42 (Roper, 1984).

3.3.4 Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills. The Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills (Bryant, 1975) is used to measure the tutee's ability to read pseudowords. This test assesses children's knowledge of letter-sound relationships and syllabification. There are 50 items on this test. Before presentation of the list, the child is told, "I am going to show you a list of words, they are not real words, but I want to see if you can read them." The child is then presented with the list and told to skip any words that he or she cannot read.

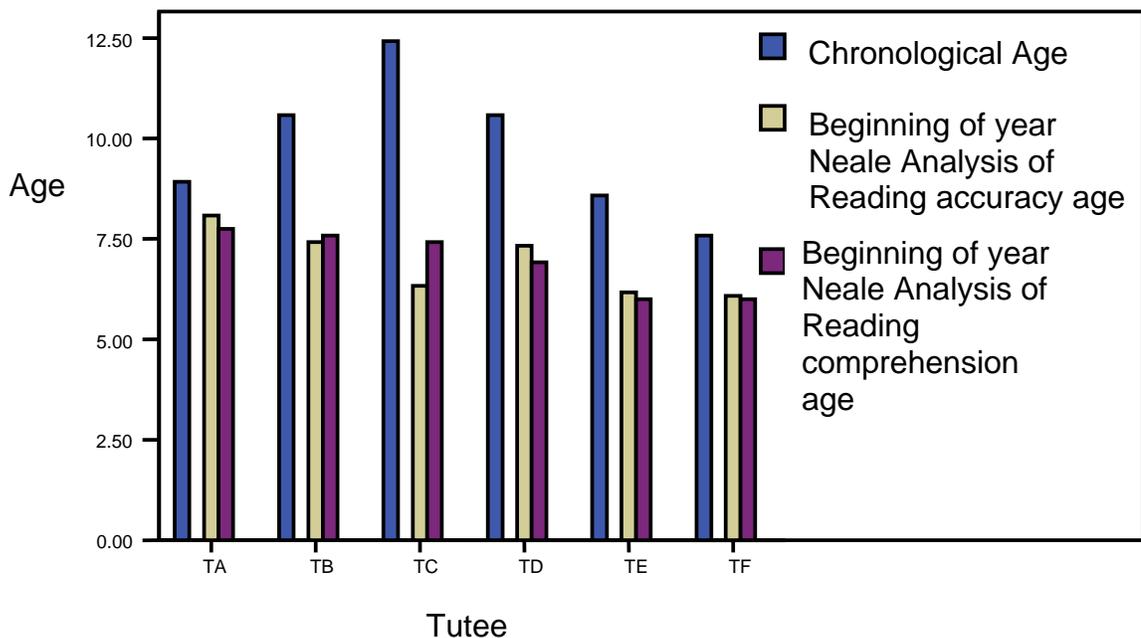
3.3.5 Schonell Spelling Test. The Schonell Spelling Test (Schonell, 1975) is used to test spelling ability. A list of words is dictated individually to each tutee. The tutor dictates words until the tutee has made ten consecutive errors. Each word is read out singly, again in a sentence and then repeated.

3.3.6 Wide Range Achievement Test of Reading (WRAT3). WRAT3 reading subtest (Jastak & Wilkinson, 1993) is a brief achievement test measuring reading recognition. This subtest includes the recognition and naming of letters, and pronunciation of words out of context. The WRAT3 manual reports split-half reliabilities of .98 (Jastak & Wilkinson, 1993).

3.4 Comparison of Tutees' Chronological Ages and Reading Ages

Figure 1 illustrates comparisons between the tutees' chronological ages and their reading ages according to beginning of the year assessments administered in February 2005 (TB, TC, TD, TE, and TF) and August 2005 (TA). The results are from the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (accuracy and comprehension). Note that there is a substantial gap between the chronological age of the tutees and their reading ages (Neale Analysis of Reading Ability–accuracy). This ranges from 10 months (TA) to 6 years and 1 month (TC).

Figure 1. Comparison of tutees' chronological age and beginning of year reading accuracy and comprehension ages



3.5 Procedure

The data presented and discussed in this thesis were gathered during the tutees' regular weekly tutoring sessions at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Each of the six tutoring dyads were recorded for their 1 hour tutoring session each week for up to five weeks. In the case of absenteeism, recorded sessions continued until a total of at least three sessions per tutoring dyad had been recorded, except in the case of one tutee who was unable to attend the last two sessions of the term. Twenty 1 hour sessions were recorded in total from the six dyads ranging from two sessions for one dyad (T1 and TC) to four sessions for three dyads (T1 and TB, T2 and TA, T3 and TE) (see Table 7).

Table 7 *Total Number of Sessions Observed Per Tutor Dyad*

Tutor dyad	Number of sessions recorded
Tutor 1 Tutee B	4
Tutor 1 Tutee C	2
Tutor 2 Tutee A	4
Tutor 2 Tutee F	3
Tutor 3 Tutee E	4
Tutor 3 Tutee D	3

The researcher observed each session while sitting at the same desk as the tutor and tutee. In order to minimise interference during the tutoring

session, the researcher was not seated until the tutor and tutee had chosen their seats. Data was gathered in four ways: Audio-tape recording, observational notes, journal entries, and interviews.

3.5.1 Audio-tape Recording and Transcription

A small cassette recorder (Sony TCM400DV) that was as unobtrusive as possible was placed on the desk during each session. As well as recording tutoring sessions, the researcher audio-tape recorded individual interviews with the tutors and the group interview with the tutors. All audio-tape recordings were transcribed shortly after each recording took place. All dialogue, except words spoken by the tutee while reading, was transcribed. Notes concerning body language and non-verbal communication were also made by the researcher.

3.5.2 Recording of Observational Notes

During each recorded session the researcher made observational notes. Based on findings of prior research (Cobb, 1998; Fitzgerald, 2001; Friedland & Truscott, 2005; Juel, 1996; Pressley et al., 1995; Topping & Ferguson, 2005) a checklist was constructed to help with this process (see Appendix E). The minutes spent on particular activities were also recorded for further analysis (see Appendix F).

3.5.3 Journal Entries

Each tutor completed a journal entry following each recorded session. In this journal entry the tutors were asked to reflect on successes and challenges that occurred during the session and whether they would do anything differently during subsequent sessions (see Appendix G).

3.5.4 Lesson Plans

All three tutors agreed to submit a copy of their lesson plan to the researcher on completion of each session.

3.5.5 Interviews

Once all the sessions had been observed and transcribed, each of the three tutors were interviewed individually. The interview questions were derived from the transcripts, observational notes and journal entries (see Table 8 for the list of questions). During these interviews tutors had access to observational notes, journal entries and transcripts relating to their tutoring sessions. After the individual interviews all three tutors were interviewed together (refer to Table 9 for a list of the group interview questions). The tutors in the group interview knew each other well and were comfortable together. During the group interview the tutors were able to support, clarify, or disagree with each other's ideas.

Table 8 *Summary of the Questions Asked During Individual Interviews*

Topic	Question	Tutor	Tutor	Tutor
		1	2	3
Tutoring style	When a tutee is having trouble with a word in the text, what do you find is the most effective way of helping them?	•	•	•
	How do you decide when to move your tutees up a reading level?	•	•	
	Why do you spend approximately five minutes on listening to the tutee read and much more time on syllable work, phonemic awareness and direct letter-sound instruction?	•		•
	I noticed you got the tutee to reread the last page of the book they had read for homework, why do you do this?		•	
	You do a lot of role reversal in your lessons, why do you find this effective?	•		
	I have noticed you repeat what the tutee says a lot of the time, does this happen subconsciously or do you purposely do this? If so, why?		•	
	What is one task that you find takes up more time than is necessary?	•	•	•
Support from other tutors	Do you feel supported by the other tutors?	•	•	•

Note. • Indicates the tutor was asked that particular interview question.

Table 8 (continued)

Topic	Question	Tutor	Tutor	Tutor
		1	2	3
Motivating tutees	How do you encourage your tutees to complete their homework?	•	•	
	How do you think your reward system helps the tutees?			•
	How do you motivate the tutees to read?	•		
	What do you think is the most effective way of keeping Tutee F on task?		•	
	Why do you occasionally let the tutees choose their own books to read during the session?			•
	I noticed in one of your journal entries that you use games to bribe the tutee to work harder, does this work and how often would you use this technique to keep them on task?			•
	In one of your journal entries you mentioned you would begin easy with one of your tutees to motivate him, can you expand on this?	•		
Relationship with tutee	Do you take the successes or challenges of tutees personally?	•	•	•
	Do you get emotionally attached to your tutees?		•	•
	Does the humour with Tutee D encourage or discourage him to learn?			•

Note. • Indicates the tutor was asked that particular interview question.

Table 9 *The List of Questions Asked During the Group Interview*

Questions
What do you think makes a tutor an effective tutor?
What do you think is the most important contributing factor for a tutor to be effective?
How do you motivate your students when they lack the desire to read?
What keeps you motivated or passionate about teaching children to read?
Do you reflect on past lessons and evaluate the successes and challenges? If so, do you adapt your lessons?
How do you develop such positive relationships with your students?
How do you keep the students on track for a whole hour session?
Is there much communication with the parents?
Do you utilise a wide range of materials or have you got your favourites that you use each week?
Do you feel you are flexible with your lessons? Or do time constraints restrict flexibility?
What do you consider to be the most important part of the session?
What percentage of the session do you think is actual engaged learning?

3.6 Analysis of the Data

An analysis of teaching activities and transcriptions was conducted. The analysis of teaching activities was done by the researcher during each observation and included the time spent on each teaching activity and the percentage of time spent each session on engaged and non-engaged activities. Teaching strategies and the number of words spoken by the tutors and tutees during sessions were analysed from transcriptions.

3.6.1 Analysis of Teaching Activities

The percentage of time spent on each teaching activity (see Appendix F) was analysed for each tutoring dyad. The time spent on each activity was divided by the total time of each session. An average percentage was then calculated by adding up the percentages for that particular activity for each session and dividing by the total number of sessions. For an example of this calculation see Table 10.

An analysis of time spent on engaged and non-engaged activities was also completed. Engaged activities included direct teaching or on-task activities. Non-engaged activities included off-task discussion, organisation of resources, or when the tutee was not involved in an activity while the tutor was writing homework. The time for engaged teaching activities was added up and then subtracted from the total session time to calculate the non-

engaged time for each session. An average percentage was also worked out for these two categories.

Table 10 *An Example of How the Percentage of Time the Tutee Spent Reading to the Tutor was Calculated*

Activity	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Checking and writing up homework	5 minutes	6 minutes	4 minutes
Direct letter-sound instruction	8 minutes	9 minutes	22 minutes
Game to reinforce lesson	12 minutes	-	7 minutes
High frequency words read in isolation	2 minutes	7 minutes	2 minutes
Phonemic awareness	6 minutes	-	-
Reading together	-	4 minutes	3 minutes
Spelling	-	2 minutes	-
Tutee reading to tutor	16 minutes	15 minutes	15 minutes
Transition between activities	7 minutes	10 minutes	2 minutes
Total time of session	56 minutes	53 minutes	55 minutes
Percentage of time tutee read to tutor	$16/56 \times 100 = 29\%$	$15/53 \times 100 = 28.3\%$	$15/55 \times 100 = 27.3\%$
Average % of time tutee read to tutor (3 sessions)	$29\% + 28.3\% + 27.3\% = 84.6\%$ 84.6% divided by 3 sessions = 28.2%		

3.6.2 Analysis of Transcriptions

Transcriptions were analysed in terms of teaching strategies and words spoken. These two approaches are described below.

3.6.2.1 *Teaching Strategies.* Teaching strategies were identified based on prior research (Lysaker, McCormick & Brunette, 2004; Worthy & Patterson, 2001). Comments and actions from the transcriptions were categorised into the various strategies. Table 11 outlines the teaching strategies identified from the transcripts.

Table 11 *Teaching Strategies Identified from Transcripts*

Teaching strategy	What was analysed
Types of questions	The percentage of open-ended questions versus the percentage of closed questions.
Praise	How often tutors praised and how often tutors praised with specific feedback.
Scaffolding	How often tutors used scaffolding techniques and when scaffolding occurred most frequently.
Types of Help	Four categories of help that tutors used: Telling, demonstrating, directing, and questioning.

3.6.2.2 *Words spoken.* The number of words spoken by each participant in each session was counted. A comparison was then made between the total number of words spoken by the tutor during the session and the total number of words spoken by the tutee. All words for each participant, excluding the words spoken by the tutee whilst reading a book, were included in the transcriptions. The total words spoken were calculated for each session and a percentage calculated for the tutor and tutee. The percentage of words for the tutor and tutee per session were added up and

then divided by the total number of sessions observed to obtain an average percentage of words spoken by the tutor and tutee. Table 12 provides an example of this calculation.

3.6.3 Analysis of Lesson Plans

Lesson plans were graded by the researcher as well as a tutor who had taught at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre but who was not part of this research study. A set of criteria was established for the grading of each lesson plan (see Table 19) and comments were made to justify the chosen grade.

3.6.4 Analysis of Journal Entries

Comments made by the three tutors in each journal entry were categorised according to the three questions asked: Successes during the session, challenges during the session, and possible changes for future lessons. Comments were entered into a table (see Table 21) and analysed to identify most frequent comments regarding successes, challenges, and future changes to sessions.

Table 12 *An Example of How the Percentage of Words Spoken was Calculated for One Dyad*

	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Tutor 2 words spoken	3214	2737	3391
Tutee F words spoken	531	558	525
Total words spoken	3745	3295	3916
Percentage of words spoken by Tutor 2	$3214/3745 \times 100 = 85.8\%$	$2737/3295 \times 100 = 83\%$	$3391/3916 \times 100 = 86.6\%$
Percentage of words spoken by Tutee F	$531/3745 \times 100 = 14.2\%$	$558/3295 \times 100 = 17\%$	$525/3916 \times 100 = 13.4\%$
Average percentage of words spoken by Tutor 2 (3 sessions)	$85.8\% + 83\% + 86.6\% = 255.4\%$ 255.4% divided by 3 sessions = 85.1%		
Average percentage of words spoken by Tutee F (3 sessions)	$14.2\% + 17\% + 13.4\% = 44.6\%$ 44.6% divided by 3 sessions = 14.9%		

3.6.5 Analysis of Group and Individual Interviews

Questions for the individual interviews were constructed to supplement the observational data. Tutors' responses to interview questions were classified in two categories corresponding to the research questions: 1) Strategies Effective Tutors Used during One-to-One Literacy Tutoring, and 2) Characteristics of Effective Tutors.

3.7 Summary

The study was conducted at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Nine participants were selected for the study, three tutors and six tutees. The three tutors that were selected had all had the progress of their tutees' measured and in all three cases these measures indicated that the tutors were effective. They had a minimum of 18 months experience and agreed to participate. The six tutees all had reading ages at least 6 months below their chronological age. They were chosen according to the availability of the three selected tutors and the researcher.

Various measures of assessment for each tutee were administered by their tutor prior to the observations as well as on completion of the observations. The measures included the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (Neale, 1999), Burt Word Reading Test (Gilmore, Croft & Reid, 1981), Roper Phonemic Awareness Test (Roper, 1984), Bryant Test of Basic Decoding

Skills (Bryant, 1975), Schonell Spelling Test (Schonell, 1975), and the Wide Range Achievement Test of Reading (Jastak & Wilkinson, 1993).

All tutoring dyads were observed while participating in their regular tutoring sessions. The sessions were audio-tape recorded and later transcribed. The researcher made observational notes and recorded the time spent on each teaching activity. The tutors were asked to complete a journal entry after each session and were interviewed individually and as a group by the researcher after all sessions had been observed.

Finally, the analysis of the data was divided into six parts. Firstly an analysis of the time spent on teaching activities, including a comparison of the time spent on engaged activities versus non-engaged activities was conducted. Secondly a description of teaching techniques using categories based on prior research (Lysaker, McCormick & Brunette, 2004; Worthy & Patterson, 2001) was done. The third aspect of investigation was an analysis of the percentage of words spoken by the tutor compared to the percentage of words spoken by the tutee. Finally analyses of the three tutors' lesson plans, journal entries, and interviews were carried out.

Chapter 4: Results

The results of this research were obtained from observations of the three tutors each with two of their tutees during their regular tutoring sessions at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Results were also obtained from journal entries, and data from interviews with tutors. The following chapter is divided into three sections. Firstly, the strategies used by effective tutors are discussed in 11 subsections: Time spent on the three main teaching activities, time spent on all teaching activities per dyad, tutors' use of open and closed questions, tutors' use of praise, tutors' use of scaffolding, categories of tutor help, engaged teaching, percentage of words spoken by the tutors and tutees, tutors' written planning, tutors' use of role reversal, and tutors' approach to motivation. Secondly, the observed characteristics of effective tutors identified in the study are provided in seven subsections: Able to build positive relationships, a good communicator, flexible, consistent with routines, reflective, and knowledgeable and experienced. Thirdly, tutors' perceptions of characteristics of effective tutors as revealed during individual and group interviews are described.

4.1 Strategies Effective Tutors Use during One-to-One Literacy Tutoring

The three tutors were observed and audio-tape recorded during tutoring sessions. Data from interviews and journal entries were used to clarify the observations and to seek further understanding of how and why the

tutors used these strategies. An analysis of the time spent on the three main teaching activities was done as well as the time spent on all teaching activities per dyad. The three main teaching activities were identified based on the amount of time spent on each of them during tutoring sessions.

4.1.1 Time Spent on the Three Main Teaching Activities

All three tutors dedicated a large proportion of time during sessions to teaching direct letter-sound relationships, listening to their tutee's read, and raising phonemic awareness. Approximately half of all tutors' sessions were dedicated to these three teaching activities, with the exception of Tutor 1 who allocated 85% of her sessions with Tutee B to these three teaching activities. Almost half of her sessions were spent on raising phonemic awareness. Refer to Table 13 for the percentage of time spent on each activity for each dyad.

During group interviews with the three tutors, they were asked what they perceived to be the most important activity of the session. All three tutors considered phonemic awareness and the teaching of direct letter-sound relationships to be the most important activity of the session. When teaching these strategies tutors believed tutees need to read, write, say, and hear the sounds they are taught. Often when they were teaching direct letter-sound relationships the tutors included poems to reinforce this concept, for example if the tutor was teaching the letter-sound /b/ the poem would focus

on words beginning with /b/. This strategy also encouraged the tutees to read.

Table 13 *Time Spent on the Three Main Teaching Activities*

Tutor dyad	Listening to tutee read		Phonemic awareness		Direct letter-sound instruction	
	Mins	%	Mins	%	Mins	%
T1TB (4)	18	7.6	25	10.5	69	29.1
T1TC (2)	11	12.6	39	44.8	24	27.6
Average time per session T1	29/6 = 4:48	20.2/6 = 3.4	64/6 = 10:42	55.3/6 = 9.2	93/6 = 15:30	56.7/6 = 9.45
T2TA (4)	60	24.9	18	7.5	51	21.2
T2TF (3)	44	26.8	6	3.7	39	23.8
Average time per session T2	104/7 = 14:54	51.7/7 = 7.4	24/7 = 3:24	11.2/7 = 1.2	90/7 = 12:54	45/7 = 6.4
T3TD (3)	15	9.6	18	11.5	33	21.1
T3TE (4)	39	16.3	25	10.5	59	24.7
Average time per session T3	54/7 = 7:42	25.9/7 = 3.7	43/7 = 6:06	22/7 = 3.1	92/7 = 13:06	45.8/7 = 6.5
Average time per session 3 tutors	9:06	4.8	6:42	4.5	13:48	7.5

Note. Mins = minutes. (n) = number of sessions

During individual interviews the researcher asked Tutor 1 and Tutor 3 why they spent more time teaching direct letter-sound relationships, syllabification, and phonemic awareness than listening to their tutees read. Tutor 1 and Tutor 3 reported that they considered those skills the most

important as the tutee had not yet mastered them and therefore needed more practice.

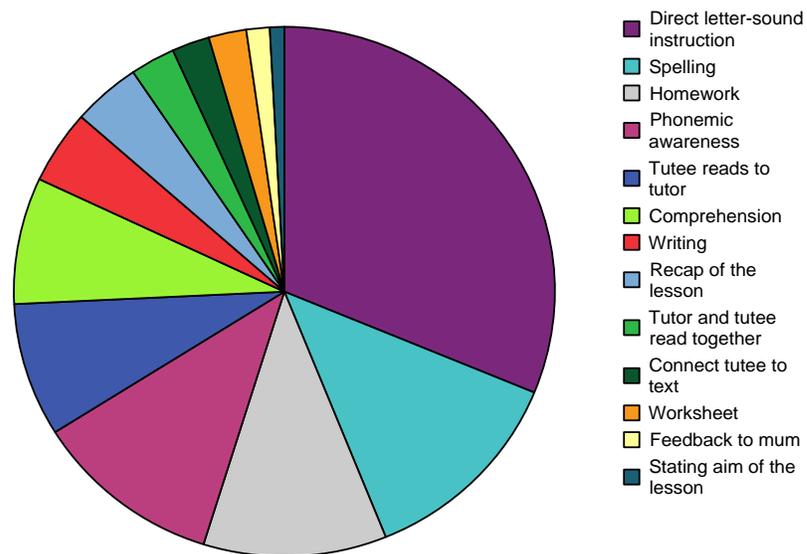
4.1.2 Time Spent on all Teaching Activities per Dyad

The following subsections summarises the time spent on each teaching activity for each tutoring dyad. Refer to Appendix H for a description of each teaching activity.

4.1.2.1 Tutor 1. Figure 2 and Figure 3 illustrate the varied activities for Tutor 1 with Tutees B and C respectively. Tutee B, a 10 year old boy, had low levels of phonemic awareness and a limited ability to decode unfamiliar words. Tutee B had difficulty with multi-syllable words when decoding. He was reading words in isolation 3 years 4 months below his chronological age, and reading words in context 3 years and 2 months below his chronological age. Tutee C, a 12 year old boy, had good levels of phonemic awareness; however, he had a limited ability to decode unfamiliar words. He was reading words in isolation 5 years and 2 months below his chronological age, and words in context 6 years and 1 month below his chronological age. Tutor 1 reported that she planned her sessions very differently for each tutee as the tutees had very different needs. Tutor 1 spent a substantial portion of the session with both tutees teaching direct letter-sound relationships (27.6% with Tutee C and 29.1% with Tutee B). She spent 85% of the session with Tutee C conducting the following activities: Listening to him read (12.6%), phonemic awareness activities (44.8%), and direct letter-sound instruction (27.6%).

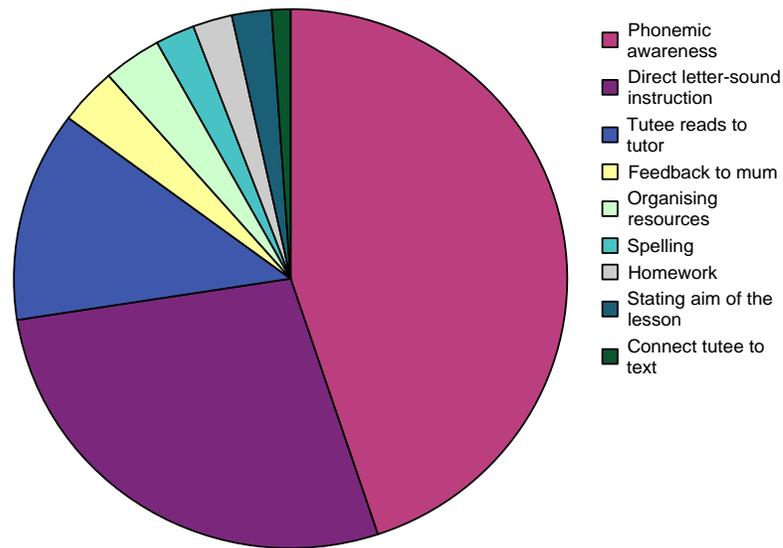
Tutor 1 spent 47.2% of the total tutoring session with Tutee B teaching the following activities: Listening to him read (7.6%), phonemic awareness activities (10.5%) and direct letter-sound instruction (29.1%). She taught a variety of activities during the rest of the session. The main activities included: Comprehension (7.2%), writing (4.2%) and spelling (11.8%).

Figure 2. Average time spent on teaching activities: Tutor 1 and Tutee B⁶



⁶ In Figures 2-7 data is presented in order of highest percentage of time to lowest percentage of time according to APA (2002) requirements.

Figure 3. Average time spent on teaching activities: Tutor 1 and Tutee C



4.1.2.2 Tutor 2. Figures 4 and 5 illustrate how Tutor 2 allocated her time during sessions with Tutees A and F respectively. Tutee A, an 8 year old girl, had good levels of phonemic awareness. However, she had a limited ability to decode unfamiliar words. Tutee A had difficulty decoding words containing vowel digraphs and words with two or more syllables. Tutee A was reading words in isolation 1 year and 10 months below her chronological age, and words in context 6 months below her chronological age. She was spelling 11 months below her chronological age. Tutee F, a 7 year old girl, had low levels of phonemic awareness, and she was unable to decode any unfamiliar words in the Bryant Test of Basic Decoding (Bryant, 1975). She was reading words in isolation 1 year and 2 months below her chronological age, and reading words in context 1 year 6 month below her chronological age. Tutee F was spelling 1 year and 10 months below her chronological age. Tutor 2 spent approximately a quarter of her sessions listening to her

tutees read (24.9% with Tutee A and 28% with Tutee F). The tutees read two books each session that were at a level suitable to their reading ability. One book was a new and unfamiliar text to the tutee and the other book had been read during the week prior to the session. Direct letter-sound instruction was another major focus in this tutor's sessions (21.2% with Tutee A and 23.8% with Tutee F). Tutor 2 spent time checking homework and going through any areas of difficulty that the tutee had with homework tasks (17.8% with Tutee A and 9.1% with Tutee F). Time was also spent explaining homework tasks thoroughly and Tutor 2 would often complete several examples with the tutee before the tutee went home. Homework activities were linked to teaching during the session.

Figure 4. Average time spent on teaching activities: Tutor 2 and Tutee F

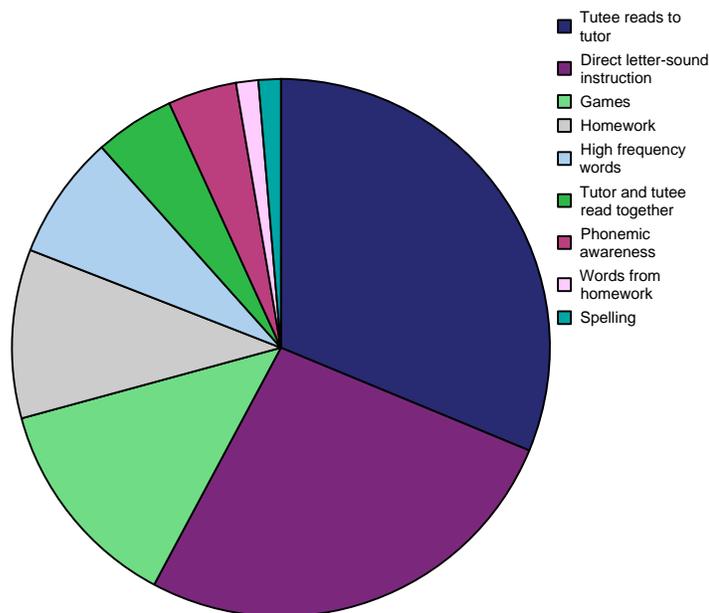
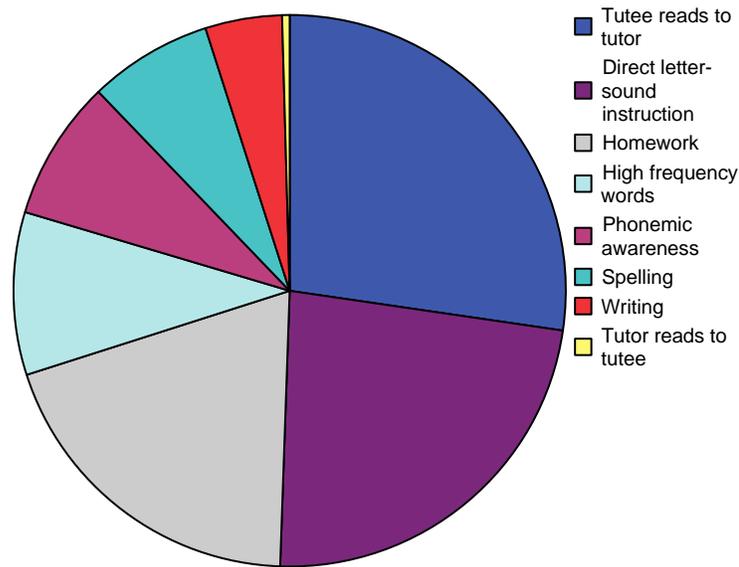


Figure 5. Average time spent on teaching activities: Tutor 2 and Tutee A



4.1.2.3 Tutor 3. Figures 6 and 7 illustrate how Tutor 3 allocated her time during sessions with Tutees E and D respectively. Tutee D, a 10 year old boy, struggled to decode unfamiliar words. He was reading words in isolation 2 years 6 months below his chronological age, and reading words in context 3 years and 3 months below his chronological age. Tutee E, an 8 year old boy, had low levels of phonemic awareness and a very limited ability to decode unfamiliar words; he had difficulty decoding words containing vowel digraphs and words with more than two syllables. He was reading words in isolation 2 years and 3 months below his chronological age, and reading words in context 2 years and 5 months below his chronological age. Tutee E was spelling 2 years and 3 months below his chronological age. Both tutees had similar needs. Tutor 3 spent just under a quarter of the session (21.1% with Tutee D and 24.7% with Tutee E) teaching direct letter-sound

relationships. She spent time listening to the tutees read (9.6% with Tutee D and 16.3% with Tutee E) and on phonemic awareness activities (11.5% with Tutee D and 10.5% with Tutee E).

Figure 6. Average time spent on teaching activities: Tutor 3 and Tutee D

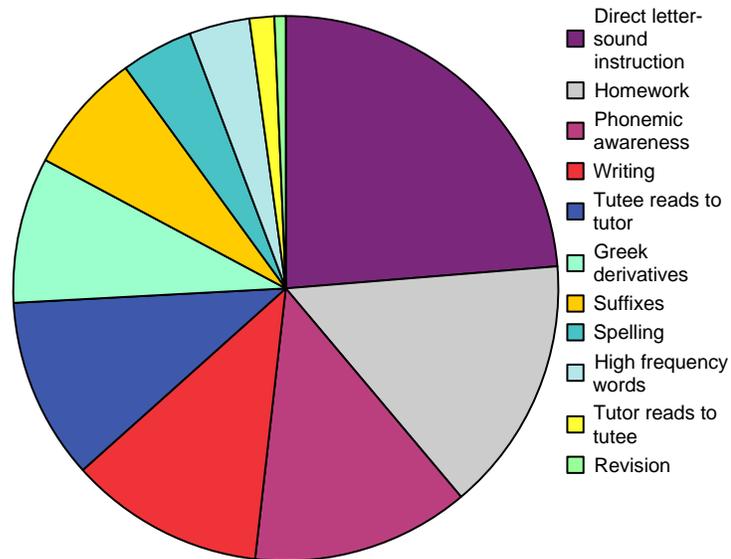
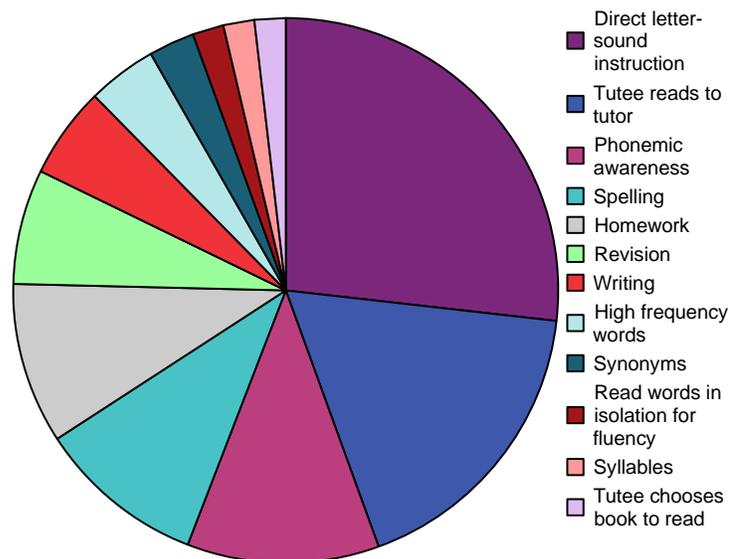


Figure 7. Average time spent on teaching activities: Tutor 3 and Tutee E



4.1.3 Tutors' Use of Open and Closed Questions

Questions in the transcriptions were categorised as being either closed or open.

4.1.3.1 Definition of closed questions. A closed question can be answered finitely by either 'yes' or 'no'. Closed questions can include presuming, probing, or leading questions (Richardson, 2006). Closed questions are easier and quicker to answer. They give facts, and give the control of the conversation to the questioner.

4.1.3.2 Definition of open questions. Open-ended questions solicit additional information. They are broad, and require more than one or two word responses (Richardson, 2006). Although any question can receive a long answer, open questions deliberately seek longer answers. Open questions require the respondent to think and reflect. They also hand control of the conversation to the respondent. Open questions develop trust and are perceived as less threatening.

4.1.3.3 Definitions for this research. For the purpose of this analysis, I chose to define closed questions as questions that require a 'yes' or 'no' answer. All other questions were defined as open. During tutoring sessions, the tutees were required to give a lot of one word answers to closed questions such as "What word is this?" and "How many syllables are there in this word?" I was interested in finding out whether effective tutors required

the tutees to think and reflect by using open questions rather than allowing them to choose either a 'yes' or 'no' answer. The following extract demonstrates Tutor 1's use of open and closed questions:

Tutor 1: What is the major problem in the story?

Tutee B: Scamp scares the possums.

Tutor 1: Okay, so he scares them away. Is that the major problem?

Tutee B: Um, probably.

Tutor 1: What else could the major problem be?

Tutee B: Um...

Tutor 1: Ah, let's see. Does it say?

Tutee B: No not really.

4.1.3.4 Proportion of open and closed questions used by tutors. Table 14 shows that all three tutors used open questions more than closed questions. Tutor 1 and Tutor 2 both used open questions approximately two thirds of the time and closed questions a third of the time. Tutor 2 used open questions slightly more than half the time.

Table 14 Overall Percentage of Open and Closed Questions Used

	Tutor 1		Tutor 2		Tutor 3	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Open questions	470	68	388	57	400	68
Closed questions	224	32	291	43	185	32
Total number of questions	694 (6 sessions)		679 (7 sessions)		585 (7 sessions)	

4.1.4 Tutors' Use of Praise

Two types of praise were identified in the transcriptions of observations: Praise and Praise with Specific Feedback. Praise was defined as when the tutor remarked positively about something successful the tutee had done, for example, “good girl”, “well done”, and “awesome”. Praise with Specific Feedback was defined as when the tutor remarked positively about something successful the tutee had done and explained why they were pleased with them, for example, “Good boy, I like the way you broke that word into syllables”. The following example shows Tutor 2 using Praise with Specific Feedback while listening to Tutee A read:

Tutor 2: Goodness me let's stop there. You use lots of lovely expression and I also like the way you remembered to break the word in the middle. When you've got two /t/ together I heard you break it up.

Table 15 highlights the number of times tutors used Praise and Praise with Specific Feedback. All three tutors used Praise (without feedback) with their tutees more often than Praise with Specific Feedback. Tutor 2 praised with and without specific feedback more frequently (on average 46 times per session) than Tutor 1 and Tutor 3.

Table 15 *The Number of Times Effective Tutors Use Praise*

	Tutor 1 (7 sessions)		Tutor 2 (6 sessions)		Tutor 3 (7 sessions)	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Praise	189	92	231	84	143	94
Praise with specific feedback	16	8	45	16	9	6
Average number of times tutor praised tutee per session	205 / 7 = 29.6		276 / 6 = 46		152 / 7 = 21.7	

4.1.5 Tutors' Use of Scaffolding

When scaffolding, a tutor provides no more help than necessary, and offers progressively less help as the tutee gains competence, until the tutee can perform the task independently (Maloch, 2002). The tutor takes the tutees step by step through new skills with just enough support to ensure their success. The following extract below provides an example of how one of the effective tutors in this study used scaffolding techniques during direct letter-sound instruction:

Tutor 2: If you break off that last blend there, what is that word?

Tutee F: Um...

Tutor 2: That /e/ makes that letter say its name doesn't it? So you start sounding it out...

Tutee F: safe-est, safest

Tutor 2: That's it!

Mercer (1995) claims that scaffolding is useful for describing how one person can become actively involved in another's learning activity enabling the learner to have an active role and yet progress further and more easily than they could have done alone. Tutors in the current study used scaffolding

techniques most frequently during direct letter-sound instruction and least frequently during high frequency word reading. There were some individual differences. Tutor 2 and Tutor 3 used scaffolding most frequently while teaching direct letter-sound relationships, whereas Tutor 1 used scaffolding more frequently during reading than during direct letter-sound instruction. Tutor 3 used scaffolding techniques a quarter of the time during reading and syllabification activities. Tutor 2 used scaffolding techniques less frequently than Tutors 1 and 3 during syllabification and spelling. The tutors in the current study commented that they did not want to make their tutees dependent upon them. All three tutors provided enough support to allow tutees to progress whilst ensuring their tutees maintained some degree of independence. Table 16 summarises the tutors' use of scaffolding during reading tutoring.

4.1.5.1 How effective tutors help tutees decode when reading

connected text. During individual interviews the tutors were asked to describe how they helped their tutees with unknown words that the tutee came across while reading a book. Tutor 1 found the most effective way of helping them was to remind tutees about strategies they had learnt. She believed the less she said the more the tutee had to think for themselves. Therefore she encouraged them to do it on their own and tried to ask questions that were less supportive. Tutor 2 recorded any words that were unknown and revisited them when they had finished reading, especially if they were reading to improve fluency or comprehension. She believed that it was important the tutee maintained an understanding of the plot. Tutor 3 also revisited

unknown words in the text when they had finished reading. She recorded the words in the tutee's workbook. When Tutor 2 revisited the unknown words, she got the tutee to write it on a whiteboard and then they worked it out together, usually by breaking it into syllables. Tutor 3 got the tutee to write the word enlarged on the whiteboard, break it into syllables, and then sound it out. Observations of all three tutors when helping tutees decode unknown words confirmed what the tutors reported.

Table 16 *Frequency and Occurrence of Scaffolding*

Teaching activity	Tutor 1		Tutor 2		Tutor 3		All 3 tutors	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Direct letter-sound instruction	12	26	18	50	16	29	46	33
Reading appropriate levelled text	15	32	8	22	14	25	37	27
Syllabification	10	21	3	8	14	25	27	19
Spelling	3	6	2	6	12	21	17	12
High frequency words	7	15	5	14	0	0	12	9
Total number:	47	100	36	100	56	100	139	100
Average number of times per session:	47/7 = 6.7		36/6 = 6		56/7 = 8		139/20 = 6.9	

Note. No.= number

4.1.6 Categories of Tutor Help

Table 17 provides definitions for four categories of tutor help identified in reading research (Rodgers, 2004/2005). According to Rodgers research (2004/2005) from most to least helpful they are: Telling, Demonstrating, Directing, and Questioning.

Table 17 *Categories of Tutor Help (Adapted from Rodgers, 2004/2005)*

Category	Definition	Examples from transcripts
Telling (T)	The tutor tells the tutee the answer or reveals that what they have done is wrong.	“That c-h in that word is going to make /k/ sound.”
Demonstrating (De)	The tutor demonstrates to the tutee how to solve a problem or pronounce a word.	“Let’s break up that word, we break it up there.” (Shows tutee on the whiteboard).
Directing (Di)	The tutor directs the tutee to take a specific action.	“That’s not what it said. Slow down a little bit and read what it said.”
Questioning (Q)	The tutor asks the tutee a question.	“What sound does that letter make?” “Does that make sense?”

Table 18 summarises the percentage of time for which tutors used these four types of help. All three tutors used Questioning as their most frequent type of help, and used Demonstrating least frequently. Tutor 1 used Directing twice as often as Telling the tutee when helping them with a problem and used Questioning three times as often as Directing when working with her tutees. Tutor 3 used Telling slightly more often than Directing while working with her tutees. Tutor 2 used both Telling and Directing equally when working with her tutees. During interviews with the three tutors they were asked about when they chose to help tutees. The three tutors revealed they made decisions about what to attend to and what to ignore based on the focus of the lesson as well as the tutee's level of understanding.

Table 18 *Types of Help Effective Tutors Use*

Category	Tutor 1		Tutor 2		Tutor 3	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Telling (T)	46	10.1	180	23.5	127	22.2
Demonstrating (De)	6	1.3	34	4.5	21	3.7
Directing (Di)	95	20.9	179	23.5	96	16.8
Questioning (Q)	308	67.7	368	48.5	328	57.3

4.1.7 Engaged Teaching

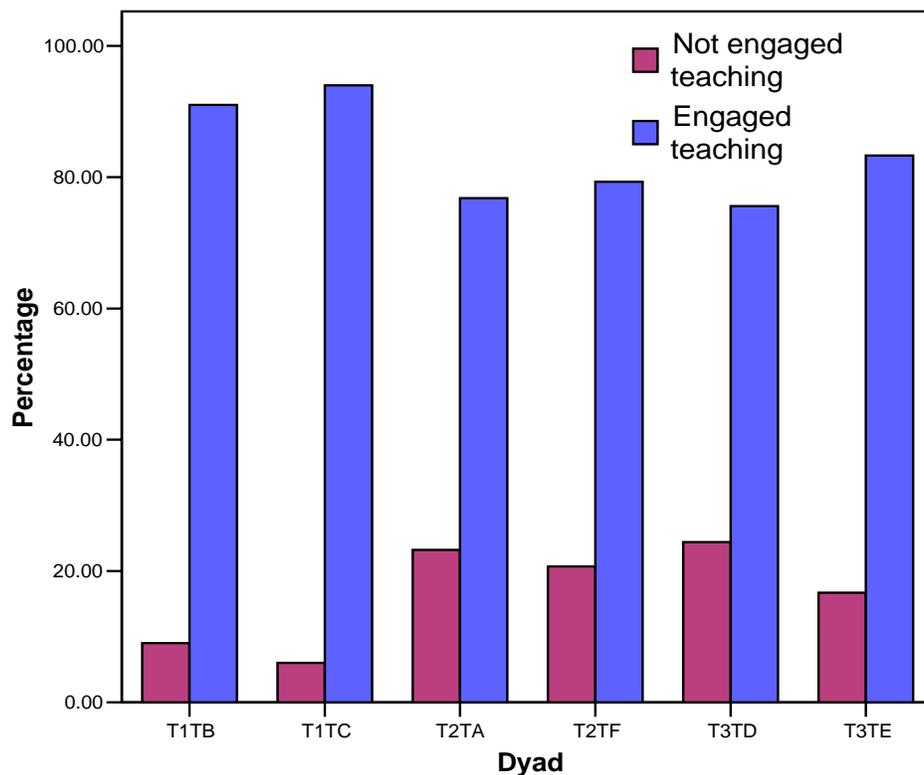
Figure 8 shows the percentage of time the tutors and tutees were engaged in teaching activities versus the percentage of time not engaged in teaching activities. Engaged teaching time did not include marking homework unless feedback was being given to the tutee. It also did not include organising resources and writing up homework.

Tutor 1 was engaged in teaching with her tutees 92.5% of the session. She was not engaged in teaching whilst writing up homework, organising resources and giving feedback to the tutee's mother during session time. Tutor 2 was engaged in teaching 78% of the time. The majority of her non-engaged teaching included checking and writing up homework. Tutor 3 was engaged in teaching 76% of the time with Tutee D and 83% of the time with Tutee E. Non-engaged teaching included writing up and checking homework, the tutee choosing a book, and conversation unrelated to teaching during the transition between teaching activities.

During individual interviews, all three tutors were asked if there was one task during the lessons that they thought took up more time than was necessary. Tutor 1 thought she talked too much during lessons and that this took up too much time. Tutor 1 stated she would explain something three different ways because she wanted to ensure the tutees had understood it. She suggested it might be beneficial but that it took up a lot of time. Tutor 1 also thought organising resources and moving from one activity to the next

took up a lot of time. She wished she could arrive earlier to cut down this time during lessons but due to other teaching commitments this was not possible. Tutor 2 and Tutor 3 found marking and writing up homework took up more time than desired. However, Tutor 3 believed it was important and had to be done. She tried to ensure her tutees were busy with something else while she was doing this so it was not wasting too much learning time.

Figure 8. Average percentage of time engaged and not engaged in teaching

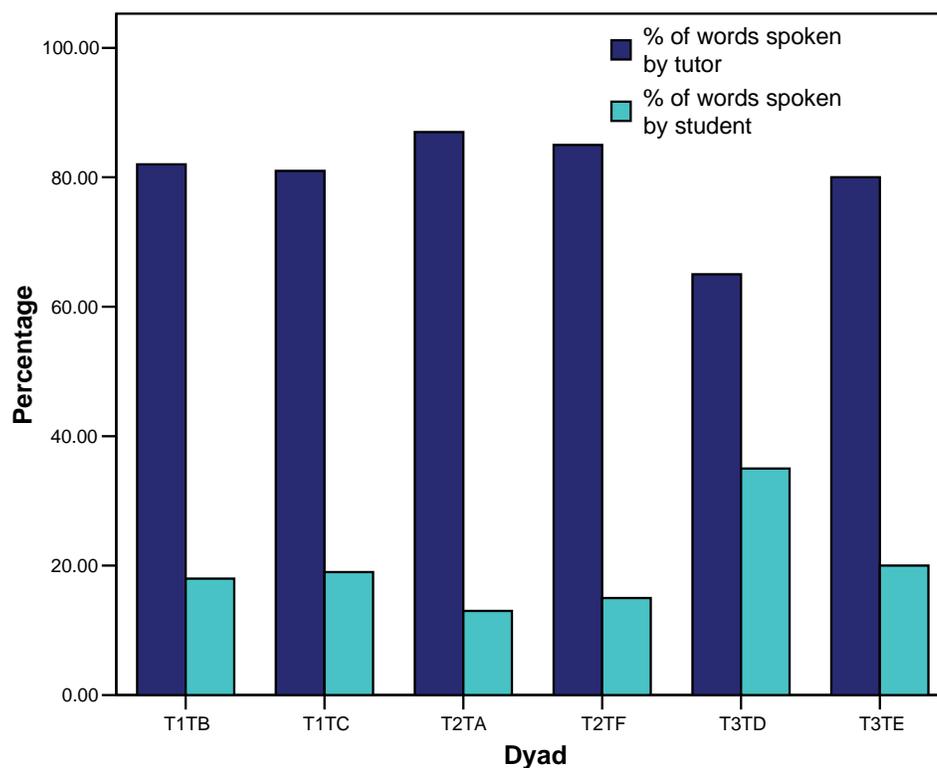


4.1.8 Percentage of Words Spoken by the Tutors and Tutees

Figure 9 illustrates the percentage of words spoken by the tutor and the tutee. The percentage of words spoken by the tutee does not include the

words spoken while they read a book to the tutor. Figure 9 shows that all three tutors spoke substantially more words than the tutees. All the tutors spoke approximately 80% of the total amount of words, with the exception of Tutor 3 with Tutee D; in this case Tutor 3 only spoke 65% of the total words.

Figure 9. Average percentage of words spoken by tutors and tutees



During group interviews the three tutors were asked to estimate the proportion of words spoken by tutors and tutees. The three tutors thought tutors should aim to speak two thirds of the words and the tutee about one third of the words. They believed the need to speak for two thirds of each session is due to the large range of tasks a tutor has to perform. These included the need to check the tutee's understanding and ensure the tutee

can re-explain things back to the tutor. The tutors believed effective tutors say more because they repeat things in three different ways and if the tutee is going off track, tutors need to bring them back on track and then re-explain. In addition they believed that effective tutors should provide a large amount of praise and feedback which also requires them to say more words.

Tutor 2 frequently repeated what her tutees said and was asked by the researcher whether she did this subconsciously or consciously. Tutor 2 suggested sometimes she purposely did it because she was reinforcing what they had just learnt so they got to hear it one more time. She also believed it kept her tutees on task. Tutor 2 admitted it was done subconsciously occasionally. She thought it may be a “habit from being a mother”.

4.1.9 Tutors' Written Planning

Lesson plans from all three tutors for each of the sessions were graded by a tutor who had previously tutored at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre, but who was not involved in this research study. They were also graded by the researcher. Table 19 defines the criteria used to grade tutors' lesson plans. In order to achieve anonymity for the tutors all lesson plans were rewritten in the same handwriting and given an identification number. The grades given by each of the assessors are given in Table 20. The inter-assessor agreement rate was 60%. A further 35% of grades were within half a mark of each other and 5% (one grade) differed by two and a half marks.

Table 19 *Criteria for Grading Lesson Plans*

Grade	Criteria
0	No lesson plan.
1	Some of the lesson planned, none of the activities are described in detail.
2	Each activity named including brief notes about each activity.
3	Each activity named and explained with some detail, explained well enough for someone else to teach from the plan.
4	Each activity named and explained in detail, brief notes on tutee's successes and challenges during the lesson.
5	Each activity named and explained in detail, very specific feedback recorded on tutee's successes and challenges during the lesson, specific learning outcomes or teaching points recorded in the lesson plan.

A summary of the grades of the lesson plans made by the two assessors and comments about each lesson plan is provided in Table 20.

Tutor 1 lacked the preparation time to provide detailed lesson plans. This tutor was only able to arrive at the Reading Centre at the same time as her tutees due to other commitments. The lack of detail in her lesson plans

did not reflect her actual lessons. The lessons were specific to the tutees' needs and utilised a range of resources. Feedback about how the lesson went and what the tutee learnt was briefly recorded which enabled this tutor to quickly reflect on each tutee's needs and to plan for the lesson in her head.

Tutor 2 provided adequate detail about teaching activities in her lesson plans, but her lesson plans had limited feedback about how the session went. She planned in great detail with her first tutee as there was sufficient time before the lesson started. Her lesson plans for her second tutee were sufficiently planned to teach but were not as detailed. This may have been because there was not enough time between tutees. Tutor 2 ensured that a variety of materials were used to maintain tutees' attention.

Tutor 3's lesson planning was very detailed. Each activity was recorded, materials were outlined, sounds to be taught or revised were recorded, all the new spelling words were written down, and specific teaching points were highlighted. Due to the detailed feedback about how the lesson went and what the tutee achieved, Tutor 3 had no trouble planning future lessons according to the needs of her tutees.

Table 20 *Grades and Comments for all Three Tutors' Lesson Plans*

Lesson	Grade		Comments	
	Assess.1	Assess.2	Assessor 1	Assessor 2
1	1.5	1.5	Very few notes about activities, not all activities recorded in plan.	Some notes, but more reminder things.
2	1.5	1	2 activities recorded, 1 activity had brief notes – very small amount of feedback.	Only spelling words explained.
3	2	2	Brief notes included for each activity, touched on future teaching points.	Some detail, confused on what went where, looks like teaching everything – revision?
4	3	2.5	Each activity explained well, no feedback recorded.	More detail, would still need to make up learning activities.
5	1.5	1.5	2 activities recorded, 1 activity described briefly, little feedback.	Did they just read? Good detail on that activity.
6	3.5	1	Activities all recorded, brief notes, little feedback.	Know what to do but not how, which activities?
Total	13	9.5		

Table 20 (continued)

Lesson		Grade		Comments	
T2	Assess. 1	Assess. 2	Assessor 1	Assessor 2	
7	3	2.5	All activities recorded, not much detail, little feedback.	Good spelling words, little detail, but would not know how to teach them.	
8	1.5	1	Not all activities recorded, no detail, limited feedback.	Would have no idea what to do.	
9	2.5	3	Activities recorded, very little detail.	Would know how to teach rule (as I worked at Reading Centre).	
10	4.5	4.5	All activities recorded and explained, detailed feedback.	Clear planning, easy to follow, detail about tutee and future teaching points.	
11	3.5	3.5/4	Limited feedback recorded.	Great detail about activities, but no feedback.	
12	3.5	3	Not much detail about activities.	Could explain rule and teach from this plan.	
13	3	3.5	Not enough feedback .	Detailed planning, basic feedback recorded.	
Total	22	21/21.5			

Table 20 (continued)

Lesson	Grade		Comments	
	Assess. 1	Assess. 2	Assessor 1	Assessor 2
14	4.5	4.5/5	Good feedback recorded.	Detailed plan, feedback recorded.
15	4.5	4.5	Successes and challenges recorded.	Could have named the game for the lesson, but otherwise great.
16	4.5	4.5/5	Good feedback recorded.	Detailed plan.
17	5	4.5/5	Very specific feedback, plan included specific learning outcomes.	Very detailed plan.
18	4.5	4.5	Good feedback.	Great planning.
19	4.5	4.5	Good feedback, detailed plan.	Very detailed, specific feedback recorded.
20	4.5	4.5/5	Goof feedback, very detailed plan.	Could easily teach from plan, future teaching points and feedback recorded.
Total	32	31.5/ 33.5		

4.1.10 Tutors' Use of Role Reversal

All three tutors used role reversal during tutoring sessions; however, Tutor 1 used role reversal more frequently during her lessons than the other tutors. The researcher asked Tutor 1 to explain why. Tutor 1 explained that she got tutees to explain what had been taught to her so that she could determine the steps they were taking, for example when decoding unknown words. She stated "If they can teach it they'll retain it". Tutor 1 believed that occasionally teachers assumed too much and that they needed to check tutees' understanding more often. The following extract is an example of Tutor 1 taking on the role as a tutee while she asks the tutee to teach her about breaking words into syllables:

Tutor 1: Okay so what do I do?

Tutee C: You break it up into syllables

Tutor 1: Okay so how do I do that?

Tutee C: [Shows her on the whiteboard-draws lines between syllables]

Tutor 1: Okay so I put it here [points to the part of the word]

Tutee C: Yeah

Tutor 1: Why do you put it there? Why can't I put it like this first one over here?

4.1.11 Tutors' Approach to Motivation

All three tutors had a variety of ways of motivating their tutees to read, complete homework tasks, remain on task, and to maintain their own passion to continue tutoring children with reading difficulties.

4.1.11.1 Motivation to complete homework tasks. During individual interviews and group interviews, all three tutors were asked how they motivated their tutees to complete their homework. Tutor 1 required her tutees to explain the homework tasks to their parents before they left the Reading Centre. Tutor 1 believed this encouraged tutees and parents to make an effort to complete the homework tasks. Tutor 1 also encouraged tutees to start some of the homework during the lesson to make sure they understood the tasks. Tutor 1 gave stickers for completed homework and always marked homework with the tutee to show them it was important and that it would be checked each week.

Tutor 2 required her tutees to fill in a reading log of all the books they read for homework and gave lots of praise when the homework had been completed. Tutor 2 required her tutees at the beginning of each lesson to read the last page from the book they had read for homework. Tutor 2 did this to check if the book was read for homework and to ensure the tutee was

fluent when reading it. If Tutor 2 noticed the book was too hard or there were particular elements in the book that the tutee stumbled over, Tutor 2 would revise those things or reread the book with the tutee rather than start a new book. She found some tutees did not do their homework and she had to remind them about why they came each week and why it was important to do homework. Tutor 2 said she was not “terribly bossy about homework”.

Tutor 3 kept a sticker chart for each of her tutees, when the tutees completed their homework or tried hard with their reading, they received a sticker. When the sticker chart was complete Tutor 3 presented the tutee with a small gift to acknowledge their efforts. Tutor 3 thought the reward system she used with her tutees made them want to work for her. She believed if they knew they were going to be rewarded, they would complete their homework.

4.1.11.2 Motivation to read. The three tutors were asked how they motivated their tutees to read. Tutor 1 and Tutor 3 allowed their tutees to choose their own books most of the time. They believed this motivated them to read because they enjoyed the books more and could not complain about the book chosen. Tutor’s 1 and 3 believed the topics chosen are also very important. This can mean discussing the book and giving tutees a choice. If tutees do not like a book this could also be discussed. Tutor 1 also motivated her tutees to read by giving them stickers when they filled out their reading log. In addition, Tutor 1 required the tutees’ parents to sign the homework book each night the tutee read. Tutor 1 ensured she introduced the book to

the tutee before sending it home; they talked about the characters and the plot together. Tutor 2 suggested that reading to the tutee using character voices was an effective way to engage an unmotivated tutee, particularly a tutee with a short attention span. Tutor 1 commented that she started her tutees reading easier books at the beginning of the lesson. She was asked to comment on this. Tutor 1 believed that the tutee's confidence could be built up by ensuring the book was fairly easy or familiar to her tutees to start with. The three tutors also suggested that parents could influence their children's motivation levels too, for example, by taking them to the library or by choosing books as gifts for the child. The three tutors reported that occasionally parents suggest they struggled with reading when they were younger and they would not read books or they still do not read books. This could make the child feel unmotivated to read. The tutors believed that if parents are positive and they sit down together with their children and enjoy reading, their child may enjoy reading too. For example, Tutee A's mum was very positive about the progress Tutee A was making at the Reading Centre. She regularly wrote notes to Tutor 2 commenting on her daughter's beautiful reading and excellent progress.

4.1.11.3 Motivation to remain on task. The researcher asked Tutor 2 how she kept one particular tutee (Tutee F) on task as this tutee was easily distracted. Tutor 2 suggested this tutee had a quick mind and she got bored easily. Tutor 2 kept Tutee F on task by keeping her fully engaged the whole time. For example, Tutor 2 quickly regains Tutee F's attention by removing the distraction of whiteboard markers she was using to draw pictures: "So

we've got something meets...hang on I think I'll have the pens back for a minute...". All three tutors found it helpful to maintain a routine in each session. They believed that the flow of the lesson was maintained when tutees knew what was expected during the lesson and what activity was coming up next. In addition, tutors believed that tutees could be kept on track by taking a few minutes every now and then to ask about the tutee's day and taking an interest in the tutee. This strategy keeps the tutee motivated and the tutors believed tutees are then happy to carry on because they have had a break. Below is an example of how Tutor 3 allowed Tutee D to talk about the events of the night before and then quickly brought him back on track:

Tutee D: ...I knocked on their door and their dog ran after me.

Tutor 3: Did it?

Tutee D: It did really! I was like here, near the next door neighbour and it looked at me, I looked at it, it ran after me, I ran away, I got to the car, it bit me and I got in the car. It went like this [demonstrates dog biting him].

Tutor 3: Did it?

Tutee D: Quite bad, it was bad look [shows her his leg].

Tutor 3: Ah, ow! Okay, all the /oa/ words, o-a I mean.

In addition, the three tutors reported that they aimed to provide a variety of materials to maintain tutees' motivation levels. The three tutors had favourite materials they liked to use for each activity although they tried to ensure they maintained variety. All three tutors chose to use the whiteboard most frequently as this enabled the tutees to actively demonstrate their understandings. When the tutors worked with the younger tutees, they chose to work with hands-on materials, for example, magnetic letters and whiteboards. The tutors believed hands-on activities encouraged younger tutees to stay focused.

4.1.11.4 Keeping motivated and passionate about teaching children to read. The three tutors were asked to comment on how they remained motivated and passionate about helping children with reading difficulties. The tutors enjoyed watching their tutees improve and feel good about themselves. One tutor commented "...one thing that has kept me motivated is being involved in this research project because it is a shared experience which makes me feel more motivated; you don't feel like you are on your own".

4.2 Observed Characteristics of Effective Tutors

On completion of the observations of all twenty sessions, interviews were conducted with each tutor individually. A set of questions were prepared for each tutor. Table 8 in Chapter 3 gives a summary of the questions asked of each tutor. The questions were designed to clarify and acquire insight into why tutors did certain things during the sessions and gain

further insight into the tutors' journal entries. Appendix I summarises the journal entries made by all three tutors after their sessions. Tutors were asked to cover four areas in their journal entries: Successes, challenges, what the tutors would do differently next session, and any additional comments recorded by the tutors. A group interview with all three tutors was also conducted on completion of the individual interviews. Table 9 in Chapter 3 summarises the list of questions. Seven characteristics distinctive to the three tutors were identified during observations and when analysing tutors' journal entries. Further insight was obtained from tutors' responses to interview questions.

4.2.1 Able to Build Positive Relationships

Observations revealed positive relationships between the tutor and tutee. During individual and group interviews the three tutors were asked to comment on the importance of positive relationships as well as their emotional attachment to their tutees.

4.2.1.1 The importance of establishing a positive relationship with tutees. There was no doubt in all three tutors' minds that the relationship between the tutor and their tutee is an important factor in the effectiveness of the tutoring experience. The tutors believed an effective tutor has a good rapport with the tutee, and they spend time at the beginning of each lesson to establish and rekindle that rapport. The tutors suggested it may just take the tutor 5 minutes at the start of the session to let the tutee tell you about

something that has happened, while not trying to hurry them on. The tutors also believed an effective tutor always asks questions about their tutee's well being and enjoys seeing the tutees coming in happy to be there. Researcher observations showed that the three tutors used body language that expressed their care for their tutee. They ensured they sat side by side with their tutees rather than directly opposite – which may be too dominating. Entries in the tutors' journals reflected the relationship with their tutees. The three tutors made comments in their journal entries about how they loved working with their tutee, how they hoped their tutee would graduate, and about their tutees' progress since being at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Tutor 3 was asked about the humour and joking around between her and one of her tutees. Tutor 3 believed the humour and joking around with her second tutee encouraged him to learn more. The use of humour was a way in which they 'broke the ice' at the start of their sessions together as they did not get along that well at first. Below is an example of the humour shared by Tutor 3 and Tutee D:

Tutee D: Can't you just graduate me?

Tutor 3: [No response].

Tutee D: Please!!!

Tutor 3: You'll be back next year! [Laughing].

Tutee D: No [pretends to cry].

Tutor 3: Someone's got to keep that seat warm!

4.2.1.2 Emotional attachment. The researcher asked all three tutors if they took the successes and challenges of their tutees personally. Tutor 1 believed it was hard not to take them personally because as a tutor she had spent so much time with them. However, she also believed that she should distance herself occasionally and look at their success and challenges from a different perspective.

Tutor 2 stated that she did not take the successes and challenges of her tutees personally. However, she believed she took them seriously as the challenges were things that needed to be resolved. Tutor 2 viewed assessments as a tool to evaluate where the tutee's needs were, rather than a personal reflection on her teaching. When Tutor 2 was asked if she got emotionally attached to her tutees, she answered "...I get fond of them but I don't think attached...I think there is still that professional distance, but I do enjoy them".

Tutor 3 was emotionally attached to her tutees and took their successes and challenges personally. Tutor 3 stated "...I always want to see them do well and then if they don't I take it upon myself as not being good enough". Tutor 3 was disappointed when one of her tutees did not do as well as what she had hoped. She admitted she had high expectations considering

how well he had done during lessons. Tutor 3 suggested her tutees occasionally 'freaked out' during assessments. Even though she tried to tell them "it was just another little thing they needed to do", she believed they knew it was an important task.

4.2.2 A Good Communicator

The tutors believed that communication with the parents helped tutees achieve more than those whose parents did not come into the Reading Centre. All three tutors endeavoured to talk to parents briefly each session if the parents came into the Reading Centre. The tutors found that using a diary was helpful to keep in contact with parents of older tutees. They would write notes and the parents would write notes back to them. The tutors suggested it was important to remember that parents were taught differently. Therefore it was important to write down exactly what you wanted the tutee to do for homework, including any spelling rules taught during the session (e.g. /i/ before /e/ except after /c/).

4.2.3 Flexible

The three tutors were asked to discuss their flexibility during tutoring sessions. Tutor 1 and tutor 3 believed they were reasonably flexible during their teaching. If a particular need was identified during a session the two tutors would focus on it and come back to their original plan at a later stage. Tutor 2 believed she was fairly flexible but somewhat structured. Tutor 2 was

flexible in the way she did an activity, but structured with what she wanted to teach.

4.2.4 Consistent with Routines

Although all three tutors were flexible enough to respond spontaneously to the 'teachable moment', clear routines had been established and were observed during tutoring sessions. The tutees appeared to know the order of teaching activities, as well as knowing the consequences for completing or not completing homework. The tutors' sessions almost always started by reviewing homework tasks and by reading an appropriately levelled text. The tutees knew as soon as they arrived that they had to get out their homework books and then read from a book either chosen by the tutor or themselves. The tutors' consistency with routines enabled quick transitions between tasks and created a comfortable atmosphere where the tutees knew what to expect.

4.2.5 Reflective

The tutors reflected on their tutoring sessions by recording comments about each session in their lesson plan books. Comments were included about the way the tutee reacted to particular tasks. The tutors found it helpful for future lessons to know whether something worked, or not, during the previous lesson.

Tutor 1 and Tutor 2 were asked to explain how they decided when to move their tutees up a reading level. Tutor 1 believed the tutees' comprehension had to be good before moving them up a reading level. Tutor 1 determined the tutees' readiness by performing an informal running record and, depending on the tutee's area of weakness, she would either focus on fluency, comprehension, or accuracy. Tutor 2 liked her tutees to be able to read accurately, fluently and comprehend most of the book before moving them up a level. She believed all three of these things are equally important. All three tutors ensured tutees were reading at an accuracy rate of approximately 95% before moving them to the next level.

4.2.6 Knowledgeable and Experienced

The three tutors have had many experiences working with children experiencing reading difficulties. They were all teachers, either provisionally or fully registered and had gained degrees from The University of Waikato. Two tutors were working towards their Master of Education and the other tutor had a Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching. All three tutors had worked at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre for at least 2 years. One tutor had taught level 1 and 2 School of Education literacy papers at The University of Waikato. Another tutor had experience working with ESOL children. The knowledge and experience of the three tutors could well have influenced their tutoring and helped them become more effective tutors.

4.3 Tutors' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Tutors

Group interview questions required the three tutors to reflect on what characteristics they believed effective tutors of literacy possess. The three tutors perceived the following characteristics to be distinctive to an effective tutor of literacy:

- An effective tutor is flexible and knows what areas the tutee needs to work on. While an effective tutor is teaching they have the tutee's needs in their head. This enables the tutor to maximise all teaching opportunities;
- An effective tutor fully understands the tutee and their knowledge base;
- An effective tutor uses assessment results as a tool;
- An effective tutor will plan a quick reviewing lesson to confirm the tutee's areas of weakness;
- An effective tutor has a backup plan enabling them to move forward as the tutee needs it;
- The tutors believed the ability to get on with the tutee is the most important factor. If the tutee does not like their tutor and they are not comfortable coming they are not going to learn;
- The ability to prevent distractions is important too as well as the ability to regain attention. If the tutee or tutor is not engaged and motivated, then the tutee is not going to learn;

- It is important that the tutor has the appropriate knowledge and skills. A tutor can be very motivated and have a great relationship with the tutee, but if the tutor lacks the knowledge and skills to teach the tutee how to read the tutor is not going to be effective; and
- The tutors believed it is important the tutor knows how to communicate with the tutee in order to teach them, and to ensure the tutee understands what is being said, the tutor needs to keep it simple.

Tutor 1 referred to the *Effective Literacy Practice* (Ministry of Education, 2003). The handbook discussed having clear objectives, assessing ad hoc to find out if the child is retaining or understanding what is being taught, and building relationships. The tutors concluded the most important factor is a combination of the relationship with the tutee and knowledge of what is being taught.

4.4 Summary

The researcher observed the three effective tutors using a variety of strategies when teaching children experiencing reading difficulties. The three tutors used the majority of the session listening to tutees read, teaching direct letter-sound relationships, and phonemic awareness. Effective tutors used open questions more frequently during tutoring sessions than closed questions. The three effective tutors praised frequently. In most instances the tutors provided specific feedback when praising their tutee. Scaffolding was a strategy used by the three tutors, particularly during the teaching of

direct letter-sound relationships and while listening to the tutees read an appropriate leveled text. Scaffolding occurred least frequently during spelling and high frequency word reading. When tutors helped the tutees with a problem, the tutors most frequently used Questioning and least frequently used Demonstrating as the type of help. During tutoring sessions, the three effective tutors maintained a high level of engaged learning in each of their tutoring sessions. When the three tutors were not engaged in teaching activities it was mostly due to writing up homework, checking homework tasks, and transition between activities. The three effective tutors spoke approximately 80% of the total number of words during tutoring sessions. The tutors believed this was necessary as tutors should explain things in a variety of ways, as well as provide a large amount of praise and feedback. Written planning varied greatly amongst the three tutors. However, all the tutoring sessions adequately addressed the needs of their tutees identified in assessment measures. Role reversal was a strategy used by one of the effective tutors; she believed this strategy helped gain insight into the understandings of her tutees. All three tutors had a variety of ways of motivating their tutees to read, complete homework tasks, and remain on task. These included: Involving parents, using reward systems, using reading logs, maintaining routines, using a variety of materials, allowing tutees to choose their own books, and beginning lessons with easier tasks to build the tutee's confidence.

Observations, journal entry responses, and interviews identified and helped gain further insight into the observed and perceived characteristics of

effective tutors. They communicated well with each other as well as with the tutees' parents. Tutoring sessions were flexible enough to accommodate for tutees' current needs as they arose, yet structured enough to address the tutees' needs identified in assessment measures. In addition, all three tutors were reflective about the successes and challenges during their tutoring sessions. Comments were recorded about the tutee's ability to grasp new concepts and any future teaching points were also recorded. During the group interview the three effective tutors reported that they considered the establishment of positive relationships to be a major contributor to tutors' effectiveness.

Chapter 5 will evaluate and compare these results with other research studies concerning the strategies and characteristics of effective tutors and teachers of literacy.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify strategies and distinctive characteristics of effective tutoring dyads in one-to-one literacy tutoring in New Zealand. Much research has been done to examine tutoring programmes and what makes a programme effective, but little research has studied individual tutor effectiveness, especially in the New Zealand context. This chapter makes a comparison between the findings of recent research studies conducted in the United States, England, Scotland, and Australia with the findings of this New Zealand study. The two research questions are addressed: 1) What strategies do effective one-to-one tutors use to foster or encourage success in reading for children experiencing reading difficulties? and 2) What observed and perceived characteristics are distinctive to effective one-to-one tutors of literacy? Analyses of results obtained from observations, journal entries, and interviews revealed a variety of strategies used by the three effective tutors as well as a range of observed and perceived characteristics of the effective tutors. This chapter is categorised into the following two sections: 1) Strategies Effective Tutors Use during One-to-One Literacy Tutoring, and 2) Observed and Perceived Characteristics of Effective Tutors.

5.1 Strategies Effective Tutors Use during One-to-One Literacy Tutoring

This section compares strategies identified in the current study with recent literature. A number of strategies were used by the three effective tutors in the current study during observations. The following strategies are reviewed: Time spent on teaching activities, tutors' use of open and closed questions, tutors' use of praise, tutors' use of scaffolding, categories of tutor help, percentage of words spoken by tutors and tutees, engaged teaching, tutors' written planning, tutors' use of role reversal, and tutors' approach to motivation.

5.1.1 Time Spent on Teaching Activities

An analysis of the minutes spent in various teaching activities during observed sessions revealed that the tutors in the current study spent, on average, a substantial portion of each 60 minute session teaching direct letter-sound relationships (7 min 5 sec), listening to their tutees read (9 min 6 sec) and phonemic awareness (6 min 42 sec). The findings of recent studies (Fitzgerald, 2001; Juel, 1996; Pressley et al., 2001) also revealed that tutors and teachers allocated a substantial portion of time to teaching sounds and sound-letter relationships, as well as repeated reading. In contrast to some recent studies (Fitzgerald, 2001; Juel, 1996; Pressley et al., 2001) and the present study, the effective teachers in Louden et al. (2005) made more use of reading to children, writing, and language experience, whereas, the less effective teachers in their study made more use of guided oral reading,

isolated phonics, and task board activities. A reason for this could be that the least effective teachers only taught phonics as an isolated activity rather than incorporating it into reading and writing, like the effective tutors in the current study and other studies (Fitzgerald, 2001; Juel, 1996; Pressley et al., 2001).

During interviews the three tutors in the present study reported that they considered direct letter-sound relationships to be the most important skill for tutees to develop. Juel (1996) suggests spending time reading literature meant that less time could be spent doing other activities, such as engaging in direct letter-sound instruction. Observations showed that the tutors ensured that direct letter-sound relationships were taught both in isolation, and in the context of reading and writing. Thus, during reading, tutees were urged to think of letter-sound associations and blend them. Juel (1996) states the form of direct letter-sound instruction is clearly important, with scaffolded⁷ and modelled instruction being particularly important.

The tutees in the current study were all reading below their chronological age, and achieved poorly on The Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills (Bryant, 1975), and The Roper Phonemic Awareness Test (Roper, 1984). Thus, it appears that the three tutors chose to focus on their tutees' areas of greatest need. Analysis of the relationship between tutees' progress in assessment measures and time spent on particular teaching activities is an area for further research.

⁷ The current study analysed the three tutors' use of scaffolding, Table 16 in Chapter 4 provides frequency and occurrence of scaffolding.

5.1.2 Tutors' Use of Open and Closed Questions

The effective tutors in the present study chose to use open questions more often than closed questions. Observations in a study conducted by Topping and Ferguson (2005) also found that effective literacy teachers used open questions 322 times (62%) during a shared reading session compared with 204 (39%) closed questions. Tutor 1 and Tutor 3 used open questions 68% of the time and Tutor 2 used open questions 57% of the time. By using open questions, the tutors required the tutees to think harder and reflect on their understanding (Richardson, 2006). The three tutors used open questions frequently when wanting the tutee to describe how they decoded a word, or to check their understanding of the plot. For example, Tutor 1 used open questions to elicit information from Tutee B about the plot of a book he read for homework:

Tutor 1: How did they feel...what was their response to that problem?

Tutee B: They got really hungry and they got tired of eating nuts all the time.

Tutor 1: Excellent! So what did they do about their problem? What was their action?

Tutor 1 could have chosen to use closed questions when trying to encourage Tutee B to think about the plot by asking: Were they hungry and tired? This type of question however would not have required Tutee B to think and reflect independently about the plot. Tutee B would have just been

required to provide a yes or no answer. Maloch (2002) encouraged the participants in her study, third grade students, to use follow-up questions that continued or expanded a line of thought. She believed follow-up questions (e.g., “Why did you say that?”) encouraged participants to share their reasoning when they had used one word or nondescript answers.

5.1.3 Tutors’ Use of Praise

The tutors’ use of praise in the current study was analysed in two categories: Praise and Praise with Specific Feedback. The three effective tutors in the present study all Praised with Specific Feedback more often than using Praise alone. According to Louden et al. (2005) focused and explicit feedback provided by effective teachers indicates to children exactly where their learning is appropriate and where they need to re-think specific concepts and skills. Coyne, Zipoli and Ruby (2006) state that teachers need to provide high-quality feedback that is immediate, individualised, and content specific. Tutor 1 and Tutor 3 Praised with Specific Feedback 92% and 94% of the time respectively. Tutor 2 Praised with Specific Feedback 84% of the time. For example, Tutor 2 used Praise with Specific Feedback while working on syllabifying words with Tutee A:

“Okay so you’ve crossed out all your vowels, I like the way you did that, you went right through in order, and you just showed me you were very strong knowing which ones were vowels and which ones were consonants”.

When combining the times tutors Praised and Praised with Specific Feedback, Tutor 1 praised her tutee on average 30 times during reading tutoring, Tutor 2 praised her tutee on average 46 times per session, and Tutor 3 praised her tutee on average 22 times per session.

5.1.4 Tutors' Use of Scaffolding

Scaffolding describes the support that tutors and materials provided the tutees during reading instruction. A scaffolded experience in the current study was one in which the tutor enabled the tutee to complete a task that the tutee could not otherwise do by providing a piece of information or breaking the task up into smaller, clearer steps. Coyne, Zipoli and Ruby (2006) state that many students require support during the early stages of learning to read and for at-risk students, instruction that is carefully scaffolded is essential to successful learning.

In the current study, the effective tutors demonstrated many examples of scaffolded reading experiences. Louden et al. (2005) also found that the effective teachers scaffolded extensively to increase the students' confidence and level of success. The tutors in the present study used scaffolding at least six times per session. Scaffolding occurred most frequently during teaching direct letter-sound relationships (33%), reading appropriate levelled texts (27%), and while teaching tutees how to syllabify words (19%).

During scaffolding, the tutors in the current study used language that was clear and consistent when explaining concepts to tutees. Clear and consistent language minimised the tutees' level of confusion and avoided the occurrence of misunderstandings. An example is provided below of Tutor 1 teaching Tutee B how to syllabify a word:

Tutor 1: [Writes *considerate* on the whiteboard]. Underline all the vowel sounds for me.

Tutee B: [He underlines all the vowels including the silent vowel /e/ on the end of the word]

Tutor 1: You have done one thing incorrectly; do all the vowels make a sound?

Tutee B: [Looks at the word]. No, the /e/ on the end doesn't...

Tutor 1: Count the vowel sounds you have underlined.

Tutee B: Four

Tutor 1: So how many syllables will we have?

Tutee B: Four

Tutor 1: Good boy! What does every syllable have to have?

Tutee B: A vowel sound

Tutor 1: Good, so break the word up into syllables.

Tutee B: [Does this correctly]

Tutor 1: Fantastic!

The effective tutors in the present study provided enough support to allow tutees to make progress without doing the task for the tutees. The tutors were intent on making the tutees independent rather than dependent on them. Rodgers (2004/2005) suggests that texts that are too easy and read accurately would not provide opportunities for the teacher to interact with the student; however, he suggests too many errors might also be counterproductive to the learning process because the student's engagement and contribution to the problem solving would likely diminish. Below is an example of how Tutor 2 ensured this by scaffolding while teaching Tutee A what to do to words ending with two consonants when adding /ing/ and /ed/:

Tutor 2: Write that one down [Asked tutee to write *lick*]

Tutee A: [Tutee writes the word down]

Tutor 2: Now where is the short vowel?

Tutee A: [Points to it]

Tutor 2: What sound does it make?

Tutee A: /i/ (short sound)

Tutor 2: How many consonants has it got after the vowel?

Tutee A: Two

Tutor 2: Two there [points to /ck/], so if we want to change it to *licked*, what are you going to do?

Tutee A: [writes it correctly]

Tutor 2: Awesome!

Both the current study and Juel's (1996) study highlighted the fact that scaffolded instruction while reading literature generally involved the tutor assisting with word recognition by reference to letter-sound clues. Juel (1996) found scaffolding that occurred outside of the context of reading and writing, occurred most notably in direct letter-sound instruction. Both studies revealed that scaffolding outside of reading and writing occurred most frequently during direct letter-sound instruction. The findings of the current study and other studies (Coyne, Zipoli & Ruby, 2006; Pressley et al., 2001; Rodgers, 2004/2005) reveal that ongoing monitoring of students is essential to ensure that the tutor provides the correct amount of challenge for the tutee. Both the teachers in the study conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) and the tutors in the current study tried to develop the independence of their students or tutees rather than encourage dependence. A study on effective first-grade literacy instruction conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) revealed that the most effective teachers monitored students carefully to ensure they provided just enough support so that the students could get back on track.

5.1.5 Categories of Tutor Help

Analyses in the current study of interactions across six tutees and their three tutors identified varying levels of help used by the tutors. All three tutors used Questioning as their most frequent type of help. When helping tutees with a problem, the tutors in the present study most often asked their tutees a question that would lead them towards the answer. Demonstration was used least frequently. The tutors in the current study adjusted their support according to the needs of their tutees. The tutors in this study also made decisions about what to attend to and what to ignore.

Questioning was a strategy used most frequently by teachers and tutors in the current study and in studies conducted by Rodgers (2004/2005) and Topping and Ferguson (2005). Findings from the present study and Rodgers (2004/2005) revealed that there was no sequence to the level of help the teachers and tutors provided. How effective tutors make decisions about the level of help to provide is an area for future research.

5.1.6 Percentage of Words Spoken by Tutors and Tutees

The three tutors spoke at least 80% of the total number of words during reading tutoring, with the exception of Tutor 3 who spoke 65% of the total words when tutoring Tutee D. The tutors believed this was to be expected as tutors need to explain new strategies in a number of ways in

order for the tutee to understand. Additionally tutors praised and provided feedback on a frequent basis.

The findings of the current study and Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield (2003) both revealed that the tutor and teacher spoke more than the tutees and students. However, the teachers in Skidmore, Perez-Parent and Arnfield's (2003) study dominated the dialogue in order to maintain control of the discussion, whereas the tutors in the current study believed they spoke more words as they were providing feedback and explaining new strategies in a number of ways for the tutees' benefit.

5.1.7 Engaged Teaching

Engaged teaching in the current study was defined as teaching that involved the tutor and tutee in direct teaching activities, for example, teaching direct letter-sound relationships, reading, and spelling. Non-engaged learning included the down-time between activities, marking homework without the involvement of the tutee, organising resources, and writing up homework. All three tutors were engaged at least 76% of the time in their session with their tutees. The tutors in the current study tried to spend little time on transition between activities by ensuring resources were organised before the tutoring session commenced and by maintaining clear routines to ensure the tutee knew what to expect. The tutors in the current study appeared to make an effort to seek, gain, and maintain tutee's participation during tutoring sessions in a variety of ways, thus allowing for more engaged learning to occur. Non-

engaged teaching time was unavoidable in most instances because marking and setting of homework activities was an essential part of the tutoring sessions.

The results of the present study concur with findings of previous research (Louden et al., 2005; Pressley et al., 2001; Topping & Ferguson, 2005). Louden et al. (2005) revealed that effective teachers ensured that transitions between and within activities were seamless to maintain engagement of the learner. Pressley et al. (2001) found that most of the students were productively involved in reading and writing much of the time. The effective teachers in Topping and Ferguson (2005) reported actively seeking to achieve high rates of time on task and this was confirmed through observations. Both the effective teachers in the above studies and the effective tutors in the present study made the most of every window of opportunity to reinforce the knowledge, concepts, and skills that were being learnt. The teachers and tutors achieved this by maintaining routines and being organised.

5.1.8 Tutors' Written planning

The three tutors in the current study had varying levels of planning. Some written lesson plans were very specific in regards to the objectives, activities, and feedback. Other written lesson plans provided minimal detail. However, all three tutors' lessons were very specific to the tutees' needs and provided a range of teaching activities and materials. One tutor did comment

in her journal entries that she would like to be able to write down her lesson plans in more detail, but unfortunately time did not allow her to do this as she arrived at the same time as her first tutee. This particular tutor included brief notes in her lesson plans, yet she had the teaching experience to be able to plan 'off the top of her head'. The tutor with the most teaching experience had the least detail in her written planning in contrast to the tutor with the least teaching experience who had the most detailed written lesson plans. It is possible that with experience, tutors relied less on the written details in their lesson plans. Another explanation for the variety of written planning could be the differing personalities of the three tutors. Two tutors relied on written planning to ensure their tutoring was well organised, whereas the other tutor was less reliant on written planning and seemed to be able to plan in her head. This was perhaps related to her experience and her time constraints.

In contrast with the current study research by Pressley et al. (2001) revealed that the most effective teachers constructed well planned lessons and activities; this planning was evident in instruction. Further analysis of written planning of literacy tutors is an area for future research.

5.1.9 Tutors' Use of Role Reversal

The three tutees in the present study took great delight in helping the tutor and being the more 'knowledgeable other'. Tutor 1 in the current study used this technique frequently, but Tutors 1 and 2 also made use of this technique. Tutor 1 reported she used this strategy because she believed it

enabled her to determine the steps the tutees were taking and “if they can teach it they’ll retain it”. Below is an example of Tutor 1 pretending to be the tutee. Tutor 1 asks the tutee for assistance:

Tutor 1: Okay Mr Young teach me how to break this word up.

Tutee B: Underline all the vowels.

Tutor 1: I have to underline all those vowels? Done.

Tutee B: [Shakes his head]

Tutor 1: What haven’t I done?

Tutee B: You do the /i/.

Tutor 1: There, so that’s right.

Tutee B: You have to underline the /a/ and the /i/.

Tutor 1: Okay, and so you’re telling me a vowel...

Tutee B: You forgot the /e/! A, e, i, o, u

Tutor 1: Okay and sometimes...y. So I underline the vowels, so that means there’s 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 vowels, there’s 6 syllables?

Tutee B: No

Tutor 1: Why not Mr Young?

Findings of the present study concur with findings from Juel (1996) and Topping and Ferguson (2005). Juel (1996) found that one of the most effective techniques for modelling reading processes was role reversal. Juel (1996) suggests perhaps this is because the pressure to succeed was lifted off the tutee, and perhaps also because the tutees felt more grown-up as they pretended to be the tutor. These studies all revealed that role reversal was a strategy frequently used by effective teachers and tutors.

5.1.10 Tutors' Approach to Motivation

The tutors in the current study used a variety of strategies to motivate tutees to complete homework tasks as well as read. They communicated the importance of homework with the tutees' parents, explained the tasks to the parents so they could possibly help their children at home, and completed a few examples with the tutees' to ensure they understood them. Tutors in the present study introduced homework texts before the tutees went home by reading the first few pages and discussing the characters and the plot. Tutees' and their parents were required to fill in a reading log of all the books their children had read during the week. Leslie and Allen (1999) found that the children whose parents signed the reading forms made more reading progress than children whose parents did not. Some tutors gave stickers for completing their homework.

Tutors in the current study enabled their tutees to choose their own books periodically as they believed this motivated the tutees to read.

Pressley et al. (2001) found the effective teachers in their study provided many opportunities for their students to read material that was interesting to them. The tutors in Cobb's (1998) study also believed if the child was vitally interested in the topic, they brought prior knowledge to the books and the conversations about the books were livelier. Another strategy used by the tutors in the current study was to begin the lesson with an easier book to build up the tutees' confidence, and then move onto a slightly harder text. Tutor 3 in the present study kept progress graphs for her tutees, each time the tutee moved up a level, Tutor 3 invited her tutee to mark it on the graph. Her tutees were delighted when they saw how far they had come with their reading. A study conducted by Juel (1996) revealed that many of the effective tutors tried to keep their children feeling motivated by helping them be aware of their learning and the progress they were making.

All three tutors in the present study found it helpful to maintain a routine in each session to motivate the tutees to stay on task. The flow of the lesson was maintained when tutees knew what was expected during the lesson and what activity was coming up next. The effective teachers in the study conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) also maintained their students' attention by ensuring they were actively engaged in academic tasks most of the time; while also maintaining strong routines.

The tutors in the current study believed that tutees could be kept on track by taking a few minutes every now and then to ask about the tutee's day

and by taking an interest in the tutee. Below is an example of how Tutor 3 allowed Tutee D to talk about his birds before bringing him back on track:

Tutee E: Do you like canaries? [While he is writing dictation] ...

Tutor 3: Oh canaries, no I don't like birds...I don't want a bird and I don't know anyone who wants a bird! [Laughing, as she has been asked this question every week]

Tutee E: I forgot I asked you that already [Giggling to himself]

Tutor 3: You ask me every week! Do you like canaries...do you like birds....do you know someone who wants a bird? [Laughs]

Tutee E: [Laughs]

Tutor 3: [Continues dictating the passage]

The current study found similar common characteristics of effective tutors and teachers as those found in other research studies (Cobb, 1998; Juel, 1996; Leslie & Allen, 1999; Pressley et al., 2001). Parental involvement was a contributing factor in children's progress as was children's interest levels in the books chosen. Juel's (1996) findings and findings of the current study showed that effective tutors motivated their tutees by making them aware of the progress they were making. Effective tutors in the current study and teachers in the study by Pressley et al. (2001) also maintained tutee's motivation levels by ensuring strong routines and high levels of engagement.

5.2 Observed and Perceived Characteristics of Effective Tutors

This section evaluates and compares the findings of the present study with recent literature regarding characteristics of effective tutors. First, the following observed characteristics of effective tutors are evaluated: Able to build positive relationships, a good communicator, flexible, consistent with routines, reflective, and knowledgeable and experienced. Second, the characteristics of effective tutors or teachers as perceived by tutors or teachers are discussed.

5.2.1 Observed Characteristics of Effective Tutors

A number of characteristics distinctive to the three effective tutors were revealed during observations. Individual and group interviews provided further insight into these characteristics.

5.2.1.1 Able to build positive relationships. The current study revealed all three tutors believed the relationship between the tutor and their tutee is an important factor in the effectiveness of the tutoring experience. Teachers and tutors in the studies conducted by Juel (1996) and Loudon et al. (2005) also noted the supportive relationship that developed between tutor and child and the tutors ensured they established significant relationships with their students. The tutors in Juel's (1996) study wanted to help their children gain confidence in themselves. The tutors believed an effective tutor has a rapport with the child, and they spend time at the beginning to establish that rapport.

Tutor 2 stated “you need to have a rapport with the child, and you need to spend time at the beginning to establish that in the first place”. According to Friedland and Truscott (2005) “establishing a positive attitude toward learning through tutoring is possibly the first step in providing struggling readers with the support they need to improve their literacy skills and their views of themselves as readers and writers” (p.560). The study conducted by Friedland and Truscott (2005) found a major category to emerge from tutors’ reflections regarding learning interactions were reports of relationship building. Tutors in their study commented on ways in which they built trust with the tutee throughout the tutoring programme, thus setting the stage for positive working relationships. The tutors in their study knew that skills such as building positive relationships were just as important as being able to teach students literacy skills.

Tutor 3 in the current study believed the humour and joking around with her second tutee encouraged him to learn more. It was a way in which they ‘broke the ice’ at the start of their tutoring sessions together as they did not get along that well at the start of their tutoring relationship. Laughter was frequently observed during tutoring sessions in the current study. Tutors in the study conducted by Worthy and Patterson (2001) also believed in order to get to know their students and make them feel comfortable, they had to express an interest in the children’s lives, share their own lives, have an “excited attitude”, “crack jokes”, “be patient”, and “establish trust” (p.338). Tutor 3 also suggested “often it means taking five minutes at the start of the session to tell you about something that has happened, while not trying to

hurry them on". This was evident throughout all three tutors' sessions. They allowed the tutee to briefly tell them about their day and the tutors showed a genuine interest in their stories. Cobb (1998) also revealed that the effective tutors used the first 3 minutes of each session to re-establish the communication link and to catch up on the tutee's latest news.

Tutors in the current study commented on how they loved working with their tutees. Tutor 1 stated "her homework is always completed to an excellent standard and her recall of the previous week's work is perfect. She is a very fast learner, I love working with her". The pre-service teachers in Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) also expressed joy and emotional fulfilment with regard to spending time with their students. Louden et al. (2005) found that the enjoyment of the more effective teachers was obvious as they engaged with their students.

Effective tutors in the present study wanted their tutees to feel like their sessions were a team effort. The three tutors almost always sat next to their tutees rather than directly opposite. The body language sent a message of caring. The effective tutors in Cobb's (1998) study also ensured a team approach during sessions, the tutors sat side by side with their tutees rather than in the more dominating position – directly across from the tutee. Goldstein (1999) also suggests the act of caring raises children's self-esteem and sense of belonging and creates an atmosphere of trust that enables children to take risks. Findings of the present study showed that the caring relationships that the tutors established with their tutees played a major role in

their learning, and confidence. Another way the tutors in the current study endeavoured to keep their children feeling successful was to help them become aware of their learning and the progress they were making. For example:

Tutor 3: Okay we're going up a level this week, up to 24, so we can put a little dot on our level 24 [Tutor marks new level on a progress graph developed for her tutees.]

Tutee E: 24!

Tutor 3: Yeah! So up here, okay join it up

Journal entries by the three tutors in the current study highlighted the positive relationship established with their tutees. The tutors showed genuine concern for the success of their students. The tutors in the present study expressed concern about their ability to change children's attitudes about reading, and help them become more positive. Yet, they expressed optimistic feelings about the futures of their tutees. The tutors in the study conducted by Fitzgerald (2001) were also concerned that their students would not make progress. The most frequently occurring comment made by tutors in the current study described the tutees' ability to grasp new concepts; these comments were recorded as successes in the tutors' journal entries. Tutor 2 was excited when her tutee successfully completed the last Dolch word list. She recorded this in her journal: "...he accomplished list 15 – yeah!!"

Tutor 1 in the current study found it hard not to take the successes or challenges personally because she had invested so much time with them. However, she also believed that it was important to distance oneself occasionally and look at their success and challenges from a different perspective. Tutor 3 in this study experienced disappointment when her tutees did not do as well as what she had hoped. Worthy and Patterson (2001) examined tutors' reflections and informal talk which demonstrated the emotional attachments they developed with their children.

The tutors in the current study were responsive in the moment, quickly and smoothly changing their plans based on their tutees' emotional needs during the tutoring session. Lysaker, McCormick and Brunette (2004) also revealed the pre-service teachers commented on their students' moods, needs, and expressions. The pre-service teachers in their study were "in tune" with what was going on with their students and allowed this sensitivity to influence their actions during tutoring sessions. Below is an example of how Tutor 3 changed her session slightly when she realised that her tutee was upset:

Tutor 3: How was school today?

Tutee E: Okay.

Tutor 3: Was it? You seem grumpy...are you grumpy?

Tutee E: Yeah.

Tutor 3: Are you? Why?...

Tutor 3: ...Would you like to do a puzzle instead?

Tutee E: Yeah okay.

5.2.1.2 A Good communicator. All three tutors endeavoured to communicate with the tutees' parents briefly each session. This was either done orally or the tutor would communicate through notes in the tutees' homework books. The three tutors believed that communication with the parents helped tutees achieve more than those whose parents did not come into the Reading Centre. The tutors in the present study also ensured they communicated effectively with their tutees.

The ability to effectively communicate with the tutees was a characteristic of effective tutors revealed in both the current study and other research studies (Cobb, 1998; Leslie & Allen, 1999). Leslie and Allen (1999) found that parental involvement was a frequent predictor of growth in children's reading. Tutors in their study invited parents to a conference in which the program was explained, taught strategies were modelled, and progress was reported. Parents were also required to sign forms verifying the books that were read (Leslie & Allen, 1999). Cobb (1998) also revealed that the effective tutors in her study were successful communicators who had experienced working with children. The effective tutors in her study used language that the children used, were accustomed to, and could understand the children's culture and experiences growing up in poverty. Communication

appeared to be just as important with parents as it did with the tutees in both the current study and other studies (Cobb, 1996; Leslie & Allen, 1999).

5.2.1.3 Flexible. Two out of three tutors in the current study focussed on crucial needs that arose during sessions. If this took up the rest of the session then their original plan was revisited at a later stage. In spite of the clear structure and strong forward momentum of her tutoring sessions, Tutor 1 was still able to make flexible use of the 'teachable moment'. In the following episode, Tutor 1 integrates the tutee's contribution:

Tutee C: What makes the /i/ sound?

Tutor 1: What does make the /i/ sound? Let's have a look, that's a very good question! What makes the /i/ sound?

Tutee C: Kind, the /i/ makes the /i/ sound

Tutor 1: Good, give me some other words, write them down, all the words you can think of.

Tutee C: Outside

Tutor 1: Fantastic! What is the opposite of day?

Tutee C: Night...

Tutor 1: Could you please circle or underline might be better, carefully, the /i/ sound

Tutee C: [Starts underling the /i/ sounds]

Tutor 1: Good boy, I can see you are underlining the /i/ sound, so can you please write down here, all of the different ways you can spell the /i/ sound (long sound), just write them down

Tutee C: [Writes them down on whiteboard]

Tutor 1: Right so you've just answered your own question! What are the different ways we can spell the /i/ sound, or what makes the /i/ sound? Can you answer that for me?

Tutee C: i-g-h, i-e, i-c...

The other tutor in the present study was fairly flexible in her delivery of the content yet structured with what she wanted to teach. This tutor would record the needs of her tutees and plan accordingly for subsequent sessions.

Flexibility was a characteristic of effective tutors and teachers highlighted in the current study and in the studies conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) and Louden et al. (2005). Effective teachers in the study conducted by Pressley et al. (2001) reflected on the day as it unfolded and changed the schedule according to the students' needs. Opportunistic teaching and re-teaching was very significant in these effective teachers' classrooms.

Louden et al. (2005) revealed that despite the establishment of routines the effective teachers were able to judge when to respond spontaneously to the 'teachable moment' and when to avoid unnecessary distractions. Tutors in the current study, and teachers in Louden et al. (2005) and Pressley et al.

(2001) were either flexible in the way they taught strategies or flexible with the content taught according to the specific needs of the tutees or students.

5.2.1.4 Consistent with routines. The three tutors in the present study ensured they were consistent with routines during tutoring sessions. For example, it was a feature of Tutor 2's tutoring sessions that after reading a book with the tutee, the tutee was required to syllabify and decode words from the text that he struggled with. Another study that found consistency to be a factor on effective teaching was Louden et al. (2005). The effective teachers in their study were highly consistent in that they set clear routines that were understood and adhered to by the children and that resulted in appropriate classroom behaviour.

5.2.1.5 Reflective. In order for teachers to address effectively the diverse range of literacy needs within a classroom it is most important that they find out what children know and what they need to learn so that instruction can be targeted to the needs of the individual (Louden et al., 2005). The tutors in the current study were constantly referring back to assessment results as well as informally assessing the needs of the tutees. These constant reflections enabled the tutors to effectively teach the tutees what they did not know already, or were having particular trouble with. Pressley et al. (2001) also revealed that the effective teachers were consistently monitoring students as they read and wrote. An analysis of the time spent on teaching activities in the current study illustrated how the tutors reflected on assessment results and taught according to their tutees' needs.

For example, Tutee C was reading words in isolation 5 years and 2 months below his chronological age; therefore Tutor 1 dedicated the majority of her sessions with him to teaching direct letter-sound relationships and phonemic awareness. As well as this, the effective tutors frequently revised skills that had been taught previously to reflect on their tutees' ability to retain the information. For example:

Tutor 3: Good, okay...can you tell me the sounds we learnt last week?

Tutee E: Sounds we did last week...what did we do last week? We did 'Row Row Your Boat' [He is referring to the poem they read]

Tutor 3: Yeah we did! We did do 'Row Row Your Boat'. Now can you tell me the sound?

Tutee E: 'Ow'...that's right o-w and o-w

Tutor 3: So what are their two sounds?

Tutee E: Ow [as in cow] and ow [as in snow]

Tutor 3: Well done, now we can move onto the next sound.

Much of the tutoring or teaching observed in Loudon et al. (2005), Pressley et al. (2001), and in the current study involved teacher or tutor observation of students and identification of areas of need that led to the re-teaching of a concept or skill.

5.2.1.6 Knowledgeable and experienced. The tutors in the current study were informed by a variety of experiences and educational initiatives that could well have influenced their tutoring. The effective tutors suggested “a tutor can be very motivated and have a great relationship with the child, but if the tutor lacks the knowledge and skills to teach the child how to read the tutoring is not going to be effective”. The tutors believed it is important the tutor knows how to communicate with the child. In order to teach them and to ensure the child understands what is being communicated, the tutor needs to know how to communicate effectively.

The effective teachers in Louden et al. (2005) also showed high levels of knowledge about literacy learning processes and skills needed for instruction.

5.2.2 Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective Tutors and Teachers

The tutors in the current study were asked to reflect on the characteristics they believed effective tutors possess in individual and group interviews. Below is a list of characteristics the three tutors discussed:

- The most important factor in tutor effectiveness is the ability to get along with the child. If the child does not like their tutor and they are not comfortable coming they will not learn anything;

- The three tutors believed an effective tutor has a rapport with the child, and they spend time at the beginning to establish that rapport;
- The tutors believed that an effective tutor always asks questions about their tutee's well being and enjoys seeing the tutees coming in happy to be at the Reading Centre;
- They described an effective tutor as flexible. Effective tutors know how to change their lesson according to the tutee's individual needs; and
- The tutors believed that effective tutors use assessment results as a tool. They will plan a quick reviewing lesson to confirm the child's areas of weakness, and have a backup plan enabling them to move forward as the tutee needs it. They know what areas the child needs to work on, they maximise all teaching opportunities, and have a full understanding of the child and their knowledge base.

A study conducted by Minor et al. (2002) revealed the pre-service teachers perceived student-centred descriptors as the greatest characteristic of effective teachers. Verbatim examples of student-centred themes included "love of students", "optimism", "supportive", "kind", "caring", and "patient".

The perceptions of the pre-service teachers in Minor et al. (2002) concur with the perceptions of the tutors in the current study. The most important characteristic highlighted by both the teachers in Minor et al. (2002)

and tutors in the current study was the ability to build positive relationships with the students or tutees.

5.3 Summary

In summary the three effective tutors in this study used the following strategies in their one-to-one literacy tutoring: Tutors spent time on teaching activities that developed their areas of weakness identified in assessment measures; they used open questions more frequently than closed questions; tutors praised the tutees and provided specific feedback regularly; they used scaffolding frequently, particularly during direct letter-sound instruction and reading; tutors chose to use questions when helping tutees with a problem; they spoke more often than the tutees; they used engaged teaching more often than non-engaged teaching; written planning varied greatly amongst the three tutors; role reversal was used frequently; and the tutors used a variety of ways to motivate the tutees to complete homework, read, and stay on task. These concurred with findings in the literature from the United States, England, and Scotland.

The three effective tutors in this study displayed the following characteristics in their one-to-one tutoring. They were able to: Establish positive relationships with their tutees; communicate well with parents and other tutors; be flexible during sessions yet maintain consistency with routines; constantly reflect on the successes and challenges during sessions; and the tutors were knowledgeable and experienced. In a discussion of their

perception of what characteristics effective tutors possess, the tutors named the ability to establish relationships, flexibility, knowledge, the ability to maximise teaching opportunities, and use assessments results effectively. These perceptions concur with the perceptions of tutors in other recent international research studies.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This chapter outlines the key findings of the current study. Part One summarises the findings regarding strategies used by effective one-to-one literacy tutors. Part Two summarises the findings concerning the observed and perceived characteristics of effective tutors. Part Three discusses the implications of the findings, and Part Four provides limitations of the current study, and recommendations for future research.

The present study explored the strategies that effective tutors of literacy use as well as the observed and perceived characteristics of effective literacy tutors. The theoretical base for the study emerged from an examination of the literature from three areas of study. The first area of literature to be examined was that concerning reading difficulties in New Zealand. A brief overview of reading difficulties experienced by New Zealand children highlighted the importance for effective literacy tutoring programmes. Secondly, literature concerning reading interventions available in New Zealand schools was examined. The literature revealed a vast array of reading interventions, all with differing levels of effectiveness. Considering the cost of interventions and time dedicated to delivering these interventions, it has been argued that it is important that we have a good understanding of effective interventions, research that focuses not only on the programme but also the tutor. Therefore the third area of literature to be examined was that concerning studies that had investigated the strategies used by effective one-

to-one literacy tutors or teachers, as well as the characteristics of effective tutors and teachers. Much research has been done to examine tutoring programmes and what makes a programme effective, but little research has studied individual tutor effectiveness, especially in the context of New Zealand education. The studies examined in the review of literature were conducted primarily in the United States, as well as Australia, England and Scotland. Thus in this study three effective tutors in New Zealand were observed and interviewed regarding their one-to-one tutoring at the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. The findings from the present study concur with the findings of research in other countries.

6.1 Strategies Used by Effective One-to-One Literacy Tutors

The effective tutors in this study spent the majority of their tutoring sessions teaching direct letter-sound relationships, listening to their tutee's read, and phonemic awareness. All three tutors considered phonemic awareness and word analysis (e.g. syllables, prefixes, and suffixes) to be the most important activity of the session because their tutees had not yet mastered these skills and therefore needed more practice.

The effective tutors used open questions more frequently than closed questions during tutoring sessions. The open questions required the tutees to think and reflect rather than providing a yes or no answer.

The effective tutors praised their tutees frequently throughout tutoring sessions. The tutors' use of praise was analysed by categorising praise into two types: 1) Praise and 2) Praise with Specific Feedback. Praise was used more frequently than Praise with Specific Feedback.

Scaffolding was observed regularly throughout tutoring sessions. The effective tutors provided enough support to allow tutees to progress whilst ensuring their tutees maintained some degree of independence. Tutors in the current study used scaffolding techniques most frequently during direct letter-sound instruction and least frequently during high frequency word reading.

Four categories of tutor help were identified in reading literature (Rodgers, 2004/2005) prior to conducting observations. The effective tutors used Questioning as their most frequent type of help, and used Demonstrating least frequently. Questioning required the tutee to solve the problem with less help from the tutor, thus encouraging the tutee to use the strategies learnt. Whereas, Demonstrating required the tutor to demonstrate to the tutee how to solve the problem or pronounce a word.

The three effective tutors maintained high levels of engaged teaching time throughout their tutoring sessions. Minimal time was spent on transition between activities. This was achieved by organising resources prior to the tutoring session and by maintaining clear routines to ensure the tutee knew what to expect. The effort to seek, gain, and maintain tutee's participation

during tutoring sessions in a variety of ways was observed frequently, thus allowing for more engaged learning to occur.

The effective tutors spoke more words than tutees during tutoring sessions. When interviewed, the tutors were asked why they spoke more words than the tutees and whether they believed it was necessary. All the tutors believed it was necessary because tutors are required to explain ideas in a variety of ways to ensure the tutee has understood as well as the need to provide constant feedback to the tutee.

There was no clear pattern to the level of written planning provided by effective tutors. Some written lesson plans were very specific in regards to the objectives, activities, and feedback. Other written lesson plans provided minimal detail. However, the lessons did not reflect the level of planning: all three tutors' lessons were very specific to the tutees' needs and provided a range of teaching activities and materials regardless of whether this was documented.

The tutees in the present study enjoyed helping their tutors solve problems; they appeared to take pleasure in being more 'knowledgeable' than their tutor. Role Reversal was a strategy used frequently by one tutor in particular. She believed it enabled her to determine the steps the tutees were taking as well as ensuring the tutee retained the new strategies or letter sounds.

The tutors in the current study used a variety of strategies to motivate tutees to read, stay on task, and complete their homework. The importance of homework was communicated with the tutees' parents, who were required to play an active role in their child's homework. The effective tutors enabled their tutees to choose their own books periodically as they believed this motivated the tutees to read. Tutors also ensured they built up their tutee's confidence by starting with easier tasks and then progressing to more difficult tasks. One observed strategy to motivate tutees was the use of progress charts. Progress charts were used by one of the tutors to record the reading levels of the tutee. Whenever the tutee moved up a level, the tutee also recorded this on a graph. The effective tutors also believed that tutees could be motivated to stay focused by allowing a few minutes every now and then to ask about the tutee's day and by taking an interest in the tutee.

6.2 Observed and Perceived Characteristics of Effective Tutors

Findings of the present study showed that the caring relationships that the tutors established with their tutees played a major role in their learning, and confidence. The effective tutors wanted their tutees to feel like their sessions were a team effort. The body language between the tutor and tutee displayed a message of caring. The tutors' showed genuine concern for the success of their students. The effective tutors were responsive to their tutees' emotional needs during the tutoring session and adapted their plans when necessary. Journal entries of the tutors reported that they loved working with

their tutees. Tutoring sessions were positive and laughter was frequently observed.

The effective tutors were good communicators both with the parents and the tutees. The tutors believed that communication with the parents helped tutees achieve more than those whose parents did not come into the Reading Centre. The tutors also ensured they communicated effectively with their tutees by using language the tutees would understand.

Flexibility was a characteristic of effective tutors highlighted in the current study. Tutors were flexible in the way they taught strategies as well as with the content taught according to the specific needs of the tutees. As well as being flexible, the tutors ensured they were consistent with routines during tutoring sessions. The tutors reported that consistency helped maintain high levels of engaged teaching and motivated tutees to stay focused.

Tutors constantly referred back to assessment results, and performed informal assessments to clarify the needs of their tutees. The constant reflections enabled the tutors to effectively teach the tutees what they did not know already, or were still having particular trouble with.

The effective tutors were informed by a variety of experiences and educational initiatives that could well have influenced their tutoring. The

tutors believed that without this knowledge and experience they could not be as effective as they are.

The tutors perceived that the most important factor in tutor effectiveness is the ability to get along with the child. They believed an effective tutor spends time at the beginning of tutoring to establish rapport with the tutee. The tutors suggested an effective tutor always asks questions about their tutee's well being and aims to accomplish happiness in their tutees. They believed effective tutors know how to change their lesson according to the tutee's individual needs. As well as these characteristics, the tutors believed effective tutors know what areas the child needs to work on, they maximise all teaching opportunities, and they have a full understanding of the child and their knowledge base.

6.3 Implications for Practice

This close examination of six tutoring dyads and their interactions while tutoring has several implications for tutors and teachers in the context of New Zealand education. Tutors who work with students in one-to-one tutoring settings are faced with making complex and instantaneous teaching decisions throughout the entire session. The findings of this study provide a range of strategies used by effective tutors as well as identifying the characteristics of effective tutors. These findings will enable supervisors and programme developers to teach new tutors strategies that have been identified as effective. In addition, they can be used in the recruitment of tutors who have

the characteristics shown to increase tutor effectiveness. Future reading tuition programme development might more strongly emphasise the importance of building and maintaining positive relationships with tutees.

6.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this research cannot be generalised beyond the scope of this study. Firstly, I am examining strategies and characteristics of effective tutors exclusively from the perspective of female, Caucasian tutors. The homogeneity of the group may limit the usefulness of the interpretations offered in the current study. More research is needed with male tutors, as well as with those from other ethnicities. Secondly, the current study occurred with a relatively small number of participants. The particular usefulness of studying cases in depth lies in the rich description of cases, which when added to previous research, sheds more light on the topic under investigation.

The tutoring received by the tutees was carefully supervised both in design and implementation. The results cannot be generalised to programs that use tutors without training or that allow tutors to design their own instructional program.

Future research on tutoring such as the one used in the present study is needed to investigate several other factors, including the following: a) Is there a relationship between time spent on particular teaching activities and

the gains made by the tutees? b) How do effective tutors make decisions about the level of help they provide? c) Is there a relationship between written planning and the effectiveness of the tutor?

This study suggests that when training tutors helping tutors not only with strategy instruction, but with their capacities for developing strong positive relationships with those they tutor may increase benefits for children. Further examination in New Zealand, of specific factors related to the social context of the tutoring relationship and specific interpersonal skills of effective tutors; may provide insights as we continue to search for effective tutoring models to enable children to overcome their reading difficulties.

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Appendix A Information Letter to the Director

School of Education
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand

Phone 64 7 838 4500
Facsimile 64 7 838 4555
www.waikato.ac.nz



October 2005

8 St James Drive
St James Park
HAMILTON

Dear Director

I am currently doing a four paper thesis for my Master of Education. I am researching what strategies effective tutors of literacy use during a one-to-one reading intervention. I would like to conduct my research project at The Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. This research study will investigate one-to-one tutoring for children reading below their chronological age. Unlike previous research which has focussed mainly on the tutoring program, I will investigate the tutors' approaches and strategies. Within tutoring groups there are usually more successful tutoring dyads than others. This has prompted me to investigate and identify effective strategies that the tutor employs. The aspects I will focus on include: planning and assessment, teaching approaches and the relationship between tutor and tutee.

I plan to invite three tutors who have had their tutees' progress measured. If they agree to participate, I will choose two students that each of the tutors work with based on availability of the students, tutors and myself. I would like to observe three tutors twice a week for a period of four weeks. This research study will involve observations, tape recording all sessions being observed, journal entries by the tutors about their sessions and individual interviews with the tutors. Observations will not interfere with the tutors' ability to teach their

students; every effort will be made to ensure the recording equipment and the researcher are unobtrusive.

This study has been approved by the School of Education Ethics Committee, University of Waikato. Any queries of an ethical nature regarding the research should be addressed to Professor Ted Glynn, Chairperson of the School of Education Ethics Committee, University of Waikato (07 838-4500).

I look forward to meeting and discussing this project with you in the near future.

Yours sincerely

Tracey Bennett

Appendix B Information and Consent Letter to the Tutors

School of Education
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand

Phone 64 7 838 4500
Fax 64 7 838 4555
www.waikato.ac.nz



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

October 2005

8 St James Drive
St James Park
HAMILTON

Dear _____

I am currently doing a four paper thesis for my Master of Education. I am researching what strategies effective tutors of literacy use during a one-to-one reading intervention. This research study will investigate one-to-one tutoring for children reading below their chronological age. Unlike previous research which has focussed mainly on the tutoring program, I will investigate approaches and strategies you use while tutoring. The aspects I will be focussing on include: teaching approaches, relationship between tutor and tutee, planning and assessment, and the tutors' knowledge of the reading process.

You have been invited to participate because you are an effective tutor and you have been tutoring for at least eighteen months. Your participation will involve me observing you two times per week with two of your students for four weeks. These students will be chosen depending on the days you tutor and the days I am available to observe. Thus I will be observing two of your sessions per week for a total period of four weeks. In the case of absenteeism, sessions will be conducted until a total of four sessions per student are completed.

This research study will require you to be observed and all observations will be tape recorded and transcribed. You will also be required to complete a journal entry after each observation and be interviewed on completion of all observations.

To protect your privacy your name or the tutees name will not be used in the study, or in the reporting of the results.

Participation in this project is voluntary. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, without having to give a reason. It will not be any problem whatsoever if you decide to do this. If you have any questions about this research, or would like further information, please contact me (07 853-8827). This study has been approved by the University of Waikato Ethics Committee. Any queries of an ethical nature regarding the research should be addressed to Professor Ted Glynn, Chairperson of the School of Education Ethics Committee, University of Waikato (07 838-4500).

If you are willing to participate in this study, please complete the slip below and return it to The Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Thank you for your assistance.

Regards

Tracey Bennett

Consent to Participate in Research

I have read and understood an explanation of this study. I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered. I understand that I may withdraw from this project within the first week without having to give an explanation and without affecting my tutoring in any way. I agree to take part in this research.

Name: _____ Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C Information and Consent Letter to the Parents

School of Education
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand

Phone 64 7 838 4500
Facsimile 64 7 838 4555
www.waikato.ac.nz



27 October 2005

Dear Parents/Guardians

My name is Tracey Bennett and I am currently completing my Master of Education degree. I also managed the Hamilton Children's Reading Centre for 18 months (i.e., from February 2003 to August 2005). I have chosen to study the approaches effective tutors of literacy use during one-to-one reading tuition. A lot of research has been done on effective reading interventions, but little has been researched about what makes an effective tutor. This research will give future tutors and other reading intervention specialists information that will ensure they too can be effective literacy tutors. I will be observing your child's tutor for two hours a week for a total of four weeks. The observed tutoring sessions will be tape recorded and then written down. My overall aim is to find out how the tutor effectively teaches students to read, I will not be specifically observing your child.

To protect your child's privacy, individual names will not be used in the study, or in the reporting of results.

Participation in this project is voluntary. You are free to withdraw your child from the study within the first week of the research study, without having to give a reason. It will not be any problem whatsoever if you decide to do this. If you have any questions about this research, or would like further information, please contact me (07 853-8827). This study has been approved by the School of Education Ethics Committee, University of Waikato. Any

queries of an ethical nature regarding the research should be addressed to Professor Ted Glynn, Chairperson of the School of Education Ethics Committee, University of Waikato (07 838-4500).

If you are willing for your child to participate in this study, please complete the slip below and return it to The Hamilton Children's Reading Centre. Thank you for your assistance.

Tracey Bennett

Consent to Participate in Research

I have read and understood an explanation of this study. I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered. I understand that my child may withdraw from this project within the first week without having to give an explanation, and without affecting his/her tutoring in any way. I agree that _____, who is under my guardianship, may take part in this research and be tape recorded during the tutoring session.

Parents/Guardians name: _____

Pupils' name: _____ Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix D Verbal Consent Statement for the Child

Hello. My name is Tracey. I am helping to collect some information about how your tutor [Jane] helps you to learn to read. You do not have to do anything, just work with your tutor [Jane] like you always do and I am going to take notes about how your tutor [Jane] helps you with your reading. This will help other tutors when they teach other children to read. If you do not want me to watch your lesson please tell me.

Appendix F Teaching Activity Checklist

TEACHING ACTIVITIES		
Activity	Minutes	Additional Comments
• Tutor reading to tutee		
• Tutee reading to tutor		
• Reading together		
• Fluency: reading words in context		
• Fluency: reading words in isolation		
• High frequency words read in isolation		
• Phonemic awareness		
• Direct sound-letter instruction		
• Comprehension strategy and instruction		
• Writing		
• Spelling		
Other activity:		
Other activity:		
Other activity:		
Total time engaged in teaching (add up minutes of all the activities above)		
Total time not engaged in teaching activities (length of session – total time engaged)		

Appendix G Journal Entry Form for the Tutors

Date: _____

1. What do you think was successful during today's session?

2. What do you think was unsuccessful during today's session?

3. What would you do differently next session?

4. Any additional comments:

Appendix H Description of Teaching Activities

Activity	Description
Tutor reads to student	The tutor reads part of the book or a poem to the student.
Student reads to tutor	The student reads a suitably leveled text to the tutor.
Tutor and student read together	Both tutor and student read part of a poem or book together.
High frequency words	Student reads a list of words that occur frequently, the lists start at level 1 and go up to level 15.
Phonemic awareness	The tutor asks the student to rhyme words, break words into phonemes, delete the beginning or end of words and substitute the beginning or end of words with other phonemes.
Direct letter-sound instruction	A sound is chosen (consonants, vowels, blends and vowel digraphs) for the student to become familiar with, a range of materials is used and poems are read that highlight the particular sound.
Writing	The student writes a story or a verse that is dictated by the tutor.
Spelling	The tutor tests spelling words given for homework and gives new words based on either high frequency words or the letter-sound for the session.
Homework	The tutor marks homework from the previous week, writes new homework down and explains it to the student.
Revision	The tutor revises with the student any work done previously.
Suffixes	Tutor introduces word endings a few at a time.
Read words in isolation for fluency	The student reads a list of words to see if they can get faster and faster at recognising them straight away.
Syllables	The student and tutor work together breaking words into syllables, starting with easy words and gradually breaking up more difficult words.
Tutee chooses book to read	The tutor asks the student to choose a book to read from the appropriate leveled box of books.

Appendix I Tutors' Journal Entries

What was successful during the lesson?		What was unsuccessful during the lesson?		What would you do differently next lesson?		Additional comments	
Comment	Count	Comment	Count	Comment	Count	Comment	Count
Tutee's ability to grasp new concept	20	Ran out of time to review	1	Revise sound/concept more	2	I hope my tutee graduates	1
Tutee's attention during the session	3	Not focussed/distracted (tutor)	2	Find more books at appropriate level	1	Love working with my tutee	1
Tutee coped very well with new level of book	1	Tutee's inability to retain new concept/sound	3	Try a new technique when teaching something new	1	He retains everything I say – fast learner	2
Tutee did very well with reading	4	Tutee unable to keep on task	3	Use more hands-on activities	2	Not planned – would have organised better books	1
Last week's lesson was consolidated through homework	1	Nothing was unsuccessful - happy with the lesson	5	Continue with same process – persevere	4	Tutee doesn't do homework–have to revise in lesson	1

Appendix I (continued)

What was successful during the lesson?		What was unsuccessful during the lesson?		What would you do differently next lesson?		Additional comments	
Comment	Count	Comment	Count	Comment	Count	Comment	Count
Concept taught to the tutee well	2	Reading – tutee was a bit upset	2	Bribe with games etc. to keep tutee on task	1	Tutee very well behaved today	1
Both tutor and tutee were on time for the lesson	1	Book level a bit hard but read all previous level books	1	Wouldn't change anything – happy with the lesson	5	New rules will need to be read over several times	1
Variation during the lesson (activities and materials)	1	New level was too difficult so went back to previous level	1	Time permitting - teach the unknown dolch words	1	Tutee copes well with corrections & models them well	1
Pace of lesson was slower	1	The rule in the book too hard for tutee to understand	1	Practise rule prior to lesson so I don't get caught off-guard	1	Tutee always completes homework to excellent standard	1
Tutee talked more and gave more knowledge	1	Forgot to do dolch words	1	Raise reading level ½ a level at a time	1	Attendance is excellent	1

Appendix I (continued)

What was successful during the lesson?		What was unsuccessful during the lesson?		What would you do differently next lesson?		Additional comments	
Comment	Count	Comment	Count	Comment	Count	Comment	Count
Learning linked and flowed well	1	Having to think on my feet-no time to record learning and gaps	1	Teach next step in vowel digraphs /ei/,/ie/,/ee/	1	Tutee has progressed very well since starting here	1
Lesson was tutee-centred	1	Too much time spent organising resources	1	Pay more attention to what I am saying	1	Last lesson for the term – lots of revision	1
				Spend more time on syllabification	1	Having researcher here makes me reflect more	1
				Remember to review	2		
				Be more prepared	1		
				Begin easy - motivation	1		