The Effects of a Shared Reading Intervention on the English Reading Skills of Year One Students in a Level Two Māori-medium Educational Context

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Abstract

One of the biggest challenges confronting literacy education in Aotearoa[1] New Zealand is accommodating the differences in English reading-related variables at school entry to produce equitable outcomes in later reading achievement (Wilkinson, Freebody, & Elkins, 2000). English-medium schools in Aotearoa struggle to negotiate effective literacy practices that validate and cater for the cognitive, cultural, and linguistic differences children bring to the process of learning to read in English. Whereas, the role of English reading instruction in Māori-medium schools has been an under-researched and controversial issue. How to accommodate for these differences to achieve equitable English reading outcomes in a year 1 level 2 Māori-medium context is the theme that this research seeks to explore.

This Masters thesis reports on a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge to examine its effects on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting. The research implemented a Kaupapa Māori framework and used interviews, surveys, reliable literacy measures, and research-based literacy instruction to explore reading acquisition for this particular cohort. Thus, the purposes of the study were (a) to glean an in-depth understanding of the literacy and language practices that potentially shaped the participants English reading–related variables, (b) to examine the range of English reading-related skills for this cohort, and (c) to determine the effects of the intervention on their English reading skills.

Eight students were divided and matched with a pair according to their reported pre-test phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge scores, and then randomly assigned to either an intervention (n = 4) or treatment control (n = 4) group. The intervention programme was carried out over a six week period and comprised 12, 30 minute lessons that integrated phonological and alphabetic based decoding skills within the

[1] Hereafter either the noun ‘Aotearoa’ or ‘New Zealand’ is used to denote the wider context of this study.

shared reading approach. The duration of the treatment control programme was also carried out over a six week period and comprised 12, 30 minutes lessons that integrated semantic, syntactic, and visual graphophonic sources of information to recognise words. The results indicated the breadth and depth of English reading skills in year 1 level 2 Māori-medium contexts are diverse and the children had a positive attitude and sense of efficacy towards reading. A comparison of the test results between the intervention and treatment control group demonstrated that a shared reading intervention that focused explicitly on phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge is effective in raising letter-naming knowledge, pseudoword decoding, phonemic awareness, and invented spelling. The results are discussed in light of theoretical assumptions about reading acquisition that underlie word-base and text-base approaches to word recognition.

Overall, this study supports the development and reform of training and professional development opportunities in phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge to better support, inform, and educate Aotearoa reading teachers. This study contributes to the knowledge of English reading acquisition that validate the depth and breadth of early cognitive and linguistic differences to increase equitable English reading outcomes in level 2 Māori-medium contexts.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Māori students in Aotearoa primary education (years 1 to 8) continue to be over-represented in English reading difficulty statistics and research shows this need not be the case (Nicholson, 2003). Children with reading difficulties become adults[2] with reading skills below those needed to participate fully in Aotearoa society unless they receive an effective reading intervention. The ability to read competently is significantly related to "capitalizing on the power of education" (Honig, 1996, p. 1) in order to enjoy quality of life and good health outcomes (Durie, 2001).

In 2013 there were 113, 684 years 1 to 8 Māori students engaged in either English-medium (*n* = 104, 468) or Māori-medium[3] (*n* = 9, 216) educational contexts (Education Counts, 2014). This figure shows Māori students made up 25% of the total primary school population. This study, however, focuses in on, the early cognitive English literacy knowledge and skills of Māori-medium students, in particular phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge, which research has identified to be two powerful predictors of later reading achievement (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008; National Reading Panel, 2000).

Chapter One provides a brief background concerning English literacy acquisition within Aotearoa, in particular, level 2 Māori-medium and English-medium educational settings, and the role emergent literacy plays in the process of learning to read.

1.2 Māori-medium Education

Māori-medium Education (MME) is the umbrella term for various immersion and bilingual provisions that include: Kura Kaupapa Māori (KKM

[2] 43% of adults aged 16-65 in New Zealand have reading difficulties (Tertiary Education Commission, 2010).
[3] Māori-medium includes students who are taught the curriculum in the medium of te reo Māori (the Māori language) for at least 51 percent of the time.

primary), Wharekura (KKM secondary), Kura-a-iwi (tribal based), Rumaki (immersion), and Reo Rua (bilingual/partial-immersion) schooling options (Hohepa, 1998, n.d; Rau, 2005). Although significant developments in Māori-medium education have been achieved, the availability of these provisions is scarce or nil in many communities.

Māori-medium education is a structural intervention to regenerate Māori language and culture as well as to advance Māori educational achievement (Mead, 1996; Penetito, 2010). An aspiration that underpins Māori-medium education is Māori[4] enjoying educational success as Māori (Ministry of Education, 2013). The distinction between immersion and bilingual within Māori-medium education is the level of immersion in the heritage language[5] (te reo Māori). May, Hill, and Tiakiwai (2004) signal an important caveat, "for a programme to be deemed bilingual, the key is that both languages [Māori and English] must be used as a media of instruction and thus to deliver curriculum content" (p. 66). The educational goal for Māori-medium education is to achieve full Māori-English bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy[6].

However, largely due to the colonisation processes that: 1) interrupted the intergenerational transmission of te reo Māori; 2) influenced the wider social, historical, and political bilingual context of Aotearoa; and 3) shaped the positioning of Māori-medium educational contexts (Barnard, 2007), teaching and learning academic English in Māori-medium education consequently has been a controversial and under researched issue (Hill, 2010; Rau, 2005). Furthermore, level 2[7] Māori-medium contexts tend to operate on English-medium Education (EME) sites. As a result, level 2

[4] As at 1st of July 2013, of the 9, 605 students enrolled in Māori-medium primary education, 96% identified as Māori (Education Counts, 2014).
[5] Māori-medium primary programmes are divided into two levels according to the percentage of curriculum instruction delivered via the medium of te reo Māori. These are: level 1 immersion programmes that include 81-100% te reo Māori; and level 2 bilingual programmes that include 51-80% te reo Māori (Education Counts, 2014). May and Hill (2005) claim that level 1 and level 2 MME programmes are regarded as being comparable to additive bilingual programmes that promote bilingualism and biliteracy most effectively.
[6] Children need to participate in level 1 or level 2 MME programmes for a minimum duration of six years, ideally eight years, in order to achieve and benefit from full Māori-English bilingualism and biliteracy success (to function communicatively and academically) as advocated by May et al., 2004.
[7] Level 2 Māori-medium programmes on EME sites typically begin literacy instruction in the majority language, which is usually English as a first language (L1).

Māori-medium education students [8] English reading achievement is facilitated, measured, represented, and interpreted in English-medium educational terms (Rau, Whiu, Thomson, Glynn, & Milroy, 2001). Unfortunately, English-medium education reports illustrate persistent rates of underachievement for Māori readers (Rau, 2005). The proportion of English reading achievement statistics related specifically to Māori students in level 2 Māori-medium contexts is yet to be identified separately from English-medium national and international reports.

Level 1[9] Māori-medium education programmes have attracted the most attention in national and international research, with a particular focus on the success of addressing the decline of te reo Māori (Baker, 2011; May, 2001). What is becoming of concern in Māori-medium contexts is enabling Māori students to learn academic English successfully. The paucity of action research studies that are avaliable on the issue of Māori-medium students learning to read and write in English, have focussed on: 1) preparing MME students for the transition to English-medium secondary contexts (Berryman & Glynn, 2003); and 2) exploring how years 7 and 8 Māori students in a MME bilingual context could benefit from being explicitly taught how to transfer their English literacy skills to the task of becoming literate in Māori (Lowman, Fitzgerald, Rapira, & Clark, 2007). Recently, Hill's (2010) ethnographic research found that English language instruction can play a part in MME in a way that does not detract from the priority of regenerating the Māori language. However, English reading acquisition in a year 1 level 2 Māori-medium context has yet to be clarified by research. Thus, this study will contribute to the significant limited pool of research on this theme.

The undergraduate profile of year 1 level 2 Māori-medium students are largely classified as incipient bilinguals[10] and possibly could have graduated from one of the diverse range of Aotearoa Early Childhood

[8] As at 1st July 2013, 4, 945 Māori and 370 non-Māori students were enrolled in level 2 MME primary contexts (Education Counts, 2014).
[9] Level 1 Māori-medium programmes typically begin literacy instruction in the target language, which is usually te reo Māori as a second language (L2).
[10] Incipient bilingual refers to the early stages of bilingualism where the first language is not yet strongly developed and the individual is beginning to acquire a second language (Tabors & Snow, 2003)..

Education (ECE) contexts. In 2001 Wylie, Thompson, and Lythe (2001) conducted a longitudinal study in the Wellington region of New Zealand that examined the continuing contribution of ECE to children's competencies at 10 years of age for a sample of 505 participants. The results indicated that the quality of ECE had enduring associations with future educational success and identified some key literacy competencies that had long term effects on children's reading scores at age 10 (Wylie et al., 2001). The key literacy competencies included being familiar with letter-sound relationships, the reciprocal relationship between oral and written language, and being exposed to quality teacher-student interactions in relation to print (e.g., shared reading) (Wylie at al., 2001; Wylie & Thompson, 2003).

In Aotearoa, formal school and reading instruction begins on or soon after a child's fifth birthday, although school is not compulsory until the age of six (Greaney & Arrow, 2012). At school entry, Rau et al., (2001) identified that MME seeks to cater for students who typically relate to one of the following language groups depicted in Table 1.

Table 1. Language Groups at School Entry in Māori-medium Programmes (Rau et al., 2001)

Language group	Description	Status
1	Children for whom Māori is their first and only language	Minority
2	Children who have mixed competencies in more than two languages	Minority
3	Children who have dual capacity in both English and Māori	Minority
4	Children for whom English is their first language but have some competency in the Māori language	Majority
5	Children for whom English is their first and only language and who will begin their Māori language learning at school.	Majority

The significance of these language groups in Table 1, presuppose Māori-medium students descend from a diverse language base and bring a diverse range of Literate Cultural Capital (LCC) to the process of English

reading acquisition. Literate Cultural Capital refers to the emergent English reading-related variables at school entry that are strongly linked to the language and literacy practices in the home and community environment that support the development of word recognition skills (Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011).

According to Tunmer, Chapman, and Prochnow (2006) differences in Literate Cultural Capital not accommodated for in the first year of school trigger disadvantages in later reading achievement. Current research in Aotearoa concerning Māori students' English reading achievement demonstrate that the majority of Māori children are more likely to enter school with fewer concepts about print, phonological sensitivity, and knowledge of letter-sound relationships because they are more likely to come from low-income homes (Tunmer, Chapman, & Prochnow, 2003, 2004; Nicholson, 2003). A contrasting view is that the Māori-English bilingual resource Māori students bring to their learning is the key to their reading success (Harris, 2009a). But perhaps most significant is the empirical evidence that suggests a strong corrrelation between phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge, and later reading achievement, irrespective of differences in Literate Cultural Capital (Juel & Minden-Cupp, 2000; Nicholson, 2002b; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2003).

1.3 English Reading Acquisition

Liberman and Liberman (1990) claim that up to 75% of children will learn to read in English. Why some children experience difficulties learning to read English has received substantial attention in reading research. The accumulation of research findings suggest a number of possible variables that can affect reading success. For example, changing demographics, socio-economic factors, and political changes are often explained as causal factors that influence reading difficulties (Limbrick, 2001; Nicholson, 2003; Tunmer et al., 2006). Evidence shows biological disorders such as

dyslexia[11] (Shaywitz, Morris, & Shaywitz, 2008; Tunmer & Greaney, 2010), ineffective reading instruction[12] (Au, 2000; McNaughton, 1995; Pressley, 2006; Tunmer et al., 2003), low levels of Literate Cultural Capital (Tunmer et al., 2006), and the quality of the curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1999) also lead to reading difficulties. Subsequently, many studies have corroborated the significant correlation phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge exert in preventing reading difficulties (Adams, 1990; Gillon, 2004; Henry, 2010; Juel, 1988; Moats, 2010; Nicholson, 2005; Pressley, 2006; Stanovich, 1986; Torgesen, 2002; Tunmer, Chapman, Greaney, Prochnow, & Arrow, 2013).

The 2011 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) covering 49 countries showed New Zealand's national approach to literacy produces inequitable outcomes between good and poor readers (Mullis, Martin, Foy, & Drucker, 2012). The majority of poor readers continue to be from low income families with an over-representation of Māori students. What is of major concern is the persistence of this inequitable achievement pattern as is reflected in the PIRLS 2001 (Mullis, Martin, Gonzalez, & Kennedy, 2003) and PIRLS 2006 (Mullis, Martin, Kennedy, & Foy, 2007) international reports. In 1998 the New Zealand government initiated a Literacy Taskforce consisting of educators to examine in-depth the major factors impacting on reading achievement and to make specific recommendations to improve reading instruction for children in their first four years at school to ensure the achievement of the long term goal, "by 2005, every child turning nine will be able to read, write, and do maths for success" (Ministry of Education, 1999, p. 4). This Taskforce was advised by a Literacy Experts Group that brought together academics who possessed a wealth of theoretical and research-based expertise in reading in order to balance and end the vitriolic debate about how best to teach reading that errupted and polarized New Zealanders in the 1990s (Limbrick, 2001). The first recommendation emphasised, "greater attention needs to be focused on the development of word-level skills and strategies in beginning reading

[11] Reading research experts suggest that between one and five percent of the population may have a biological disposition that results in reading difficulties (Stevenson, 2004; Velluntino, Scanlon, Sipay, Small, Pratt, Chen, & Denckla, 1996; Pressley, 2006).

[12] Pressley (2006) argues between 95 and 99 percent of all learners should be able to read with effective reading instruction that is based on scientific reading research.

instruction, including the development of phonological awareness" (Smith, 2000, p. 141; Tunmer et al., 2013, p. 2). Central to this recommendation marked a gradual shift from relying on multiple cues for processing unknown words and stressed the role phonemic awareness played in early literacy acquisition (Limbrick, 2001).

In response to the recommendations made by the Literacy Taskforce the New Zealand government developed and distributed a core professional literacy handbook, *Effective Literacy Practice (ELP) in Years 1 to 4* (Ministry of Education, 2003a) (Patel, 2010). Despite the large body of scientific-based research evidence that characterises any effective reading programme must include explicit and systematic instruction of the core elements of reading: phonolgical awareness, alphabetic principle, word recognition, fluency, vocabulary, and reading comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). The *Effective Literacy Practice* (Ministry of Education, 2003a) handbook appears to pay lip service to these fundamental components described above and largely advocates a meaning-driven approach to reading that encourages teachers to teach the core elements of reading implicitly on an ad hoc basis within the context of real reading, regardless of an individual's reading stage of development (Patel, 2010). An approach that is similar to that of ELP's predecessor, *Reading in Junior Classes* (Department of Education, 1985), provided 29 years ago. This implies no major changes to New Zealand's literacy policies were made.

Most recently, *Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1-8* (Ministry of Education, 2009b) and The *Literacy Learning Progressions* (Ministry of Education, 2010) were introduced as professional tools for teachers to support students to meet the reading and writing demands of *The New Zealand Curriculum (NZC)* (Ministry of Education, 2007) by the end of each year of school. For early readers, the progressions provide a reference point of the knowledge and skills students need to master to decode reliably and efficiently. These skills are classified as 'constrained skills' which are possible to master rapidly and include: alphabetic coding skills, phonological awareness, and fluency (i.e., automaticity) (Paris, 2005). Yet, *Literacy Learning Progressions* (Ministry of Education, 2010) aligns itself with

Effective Literacy Practice (Ministry of Education, 2003a; 2006) as the key resource to teaching and learning reading, which maintains its context-driven position and continues to encourage teaching constrained skills through implicit shared and guided reading approaches over explicit and systematic instruction (Patel, 2010).

The implicit shared reading approach encourages students to work out unknown words by orchestrating multiple sources of information such as, semantics, syntactics, illustrations, initial sounds, and comparing rime analogy patterns that are similar in recognisable words to the reader (McLachlan, Nicholson, Fielding-Barnsley, Mercer, & Ohi, 2013). Whereas, an explicit approach is favoured by research-based evidence and advocates teaching letter-sound correspondences and how to segment and blend sounds together to approximate a spoken word when reading (McLachlan et al., 2013). Although many students in Aotearoa have cracked the English code and learnt to read, an estimated 20% struggle to learn the conventions of written language through an implicit approach (Education Review Office, 2009a; Tunmer, Prochnow, Greaney, & Chapman, 2007).

Greaney (2010) draws attention to the fact that English-medium contexts in Aotearoa have no systematic literacy assessment tools to monitor students progress of mastering constrained skills at any point in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007) to inform instruction effectively. The absence of early literacy assessments that measure the fundamental skills of reading is particularly problematic as it parallels a 'wait to fail' approach that is likely to have detrimental effects for children who exhibit early reading difficulties (Greaney, 2010). The Education Review Office (ERO) (2009b) reported the range of informal and formal assessment tools to identify children's knowlege of letter names and sounds, phonological awareness, decoding, vocabulary, and oral language varied considerably across the 212 primary schools evaluated. However, 92% indicated students first formal assessment in the early years is after one year of school using Clay's (2005) Observation Survey (ERO, 2009b). The Observation Survey (Clay, 2005) is divided into six literacy tasks: letter identification, word reading, writing vocabulary, hearing and recording sounds in words, and text reading. The validity of the hearing and recording

sounds task has been criticized as an inadequate measure of phonological awareness (Greaney & Arrow, 2012).

Greaney and Arrow's (2012) study demonstrated that the hearing and recording sounds in words task risks weakness in phonological awareness being misdiagnosed or undetected, consequently leading to reading difficulties. The conception that these children will catch up to their peers with time and more of the same implicit instruction at first tier (e.g., in the classroom) or second tier (e.g., Reading Recovery) levels of intervention is not supported by research (Nicholson, 2003), which signals the notion of Stanovich's (1986) Matthew Effects derived from a biblical proverb. With respect to reading, the Matthew Effects explains that, the rich who have good phonological awareness will get richer whilst the poor who have poor phonological awareness will get poorer (Stanovich, 1986). Consequently, Tunmer et al. (2008) argue New Zealand's one-size-fits-all literacy strategy is feeding persistent reading difficulties, producing victims of educational neglect, and causing negative Matthew Effects.

However, Nicholson and Dymock (2011) argue the downward spiral of negative Matthew Effects need not be the case, particularly if higher dosages of explicit phonological reocding skills is combined with opportunities to practice reading and receive explicit feedback about the application of word-level skills through reading text. In support of this view Denton and Vaughn (2010) concede children experiencing reading difficulties benefit from systematic interventions that explicitly teaches phonological recoding skills and strategies in order of developing complexity in the context of real reading. Pressley (2006) advocates explicit teaching of systematic phonological recoding skills within the context of real reading can be compatible and discounts the notion of a 'skills and drills' approach to developing phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge.

The discussion to this point has signalled significant concern about the level of Māori students English reading achievement, the dearth studies on English reading acquisition in the early years of level 2 Māori-medium contexts, and that scientific-based research shows that interventions explicitly teacing phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge can be

successful in the context of real reading. Furthermore, May et al. (2004) emphasizes, an intervention that is relevant to Māori-medium aspirations, needs, and theoretical understandings about effective approaches to achieve bilingual language patterns requires strong consideration. Therefore, knowing more about the English reading-related skills for level 2 MME beginning readers and the potential effects of a shared reading intervention is desirable.

Chapter 2 will review literature concerning national and international research in the area of English reading acquisition, and the specific research questions for this study will be presented.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Success in reading is critical to academic learning and success (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). However, learning to read is a highly complex and cumulative process that has a long history of robust debate about the approach to developing word recognition skills. The perversity of the debate is whether words should be segmented into its phonological parts (phonological decoding), or whether text-base sources of information should be employed to recognise the word as a whole within context. An agreement amongst literacy researchers is that the aim of reading is to construct meaning from text, rather than simply to decode (Glynn, Wearmouth, & Berryman, 2006; Harris & Hodges, 1995; Plaut, 2005; Pressley, 2006). Yet, the prerequisite to gaining meaning from text is to decipher words which in turn relies on mastering the alphabetic code (Dymock & Nicholson, 2002; Luke & Freebody, 1999). Regardless of the approach to developing word recognition skills, Arrow and Tunmer (2012) argue that, "the most effective form of reading instruction begins with the reading related knowledge, skills, and experiences that each child brings to the process of learning to read" (p. 2).

The purpose of this chapter is to explore: (a) how children develop reading-related knowledge and skills; and (b) national and international research of effective word recognition instruction, in order to extrapolate key indicators of effective literacy practice and intervention programmes to develop skilled English readers in a year 1 level 2 Māori-medium context. Lastly, research questions for the current study will be presented.

2.2 The Simple View of Reading

Understanding the nature of skilled reading provides an understanding of what should be the foci of an effective beginning reading instructional programme to achieve skilled readers (Pressley, 2006). Many agree that the nature of reading requires the reader to orchestrate a variety of constrained (e.g., decoding) and unconstrained (e.g., linguistic

comprehension) processing skills and strategies to construct meaning from text (Pressley, 2006; Tan, Wheldall, Madelaine, & Lee, 2007). A model that conceptualizes the complexities of constrained and unconstrained skills, strategies, and knowledge involved in reading comprehension is the Simple View of Reading (SVR) (Gough & Tunmer, 1986). The SVR model is widely accepted by the reading research community (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012) and has shown to be a good predictor of reading comprehension particularly over the first four years of reading acquisition (Catts, Hogan, & Fey, 2003; Johnston & Kirby, 2006; Roberts & Scott, 2006; Stuart, Stainthorp, & Snowling, 2008). While there is a wealth of literature supporting the SVR model, there is very little literature known about the SVR model and its suitability in year 1 level 2 Māori-medium settings.

Gough and Tunmer (1986) argue that Reading Comprehension (RC) is the product of two cognitive elements: Decoding skills (D) and Linguistic Comprehension skills (LC). Within the SVR model, decoding skills is the ability to translate a sequence of graphemes (i.e., letters) into their corresponding phonemes (i.e., sounds) in order to pronounce and recognise the word in the reader's lexical memory accurately and fluently when reading continuous text or words in isolation (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012; Henry, 2010; Hoover & Tunmer, 1993, Perfetti, 1985; Pressley, 2006). Lexical memory refers to the reader's mental dictionary, where words are acquired or added to as they are learnt through oral or written language (Hart & Perfetti, 2008). An unskilled decoder who deciphers print slowly is decoding only, whereas, a skilled decoder deciphers words accurately, fluently, and automatically (Roberts, Christo, & Shefelbine, 2011). Skilled decoding frees up the readers short-term cognitive capacity to engage with meaning at a word, sentence, paragraph, and whole text level (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012; Pressley, 2006).

Linguistic comprehension is the ability to understand oral language and includes the processes by which the meaning of lexical information is obtained, as well the process by which sentences and discourses composed of phonology, semantics, and syntactic cues are synthesized and interpreted (Gough & Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Hoover & Tunmer, 1993; Wren, Litke, Jinkins, Paynter, Watts, & Alanis, 2000; Wren,

2000). The knowledge and skills required to comprehend text are more dynamic and viewed as being unconstrained because expanding readers vocabulary, grammatical sophistication, and knowledge of the world is a lifelong process (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012; Paris, 2005; Tunmer & Chapman, 2012a).

The SVR model proposes the relationship between the two continuous variables, decoding and linguistic comprehension, is multiplicative which is represented in the following algorithm D x LC = RC (Gough & Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Tunmer & Greaney, 2010). Thus, the SVR model strongly asserts the degree of reading comprehension is dependent on the degree of interaction between the readers decoding ability to translate print into oral language and the comprehension factor that then makes sense of the text (Catts et al., 2003; Eason & Cutting, 2009; Kamhi & Catts, 2012; Dymock & Nicholson, 2012; Pressley, 2006; Wren, 2000).

The multiplicative formula, RC = D x LC, proposes a framework for facilitating reading acquisition as well as diagnosing and analysing variation in reading (dis)abilities in order to design appropriate interventions and instructional programmes. The model in Figure 1 depicts a continuum of the different classifications of reading (dis)ability that can result from proximal causes of strengths and/or weaknesses in decoding, understanding oral language, or both (Tunmer & Greaney, 2010).

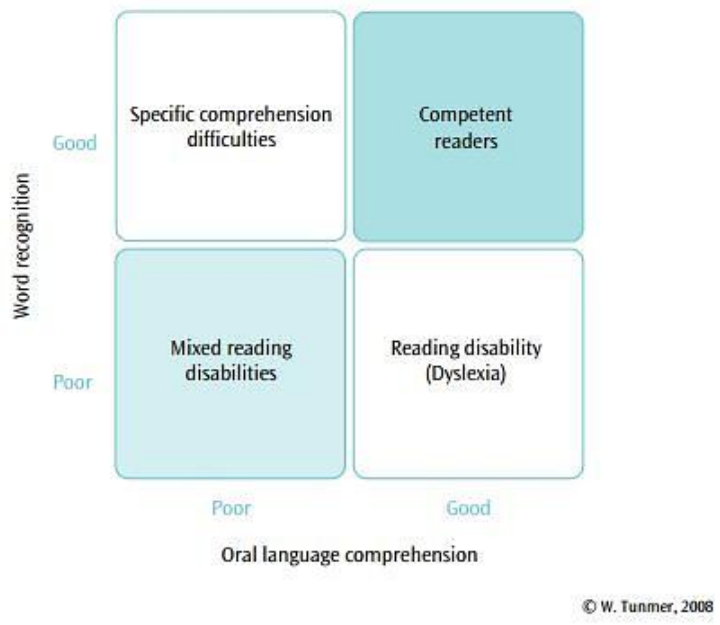

Figure 1. Simple View of Reading framework[13] for analysing reading difficulties[14]

For example:

- The competent reader, has an ability to recognise words and comprehend oral language;
- The poor decoder (or dyslexic[15]), has an inability to recognise words;
- The reader with specific comprehension difficulties, has an inability to comprehend oral language; and
- The poor reader (also known as mixed reading difficulties or garden-variety), has an inability to recognise words and comprehend oral language.

  (Clarke, Snowling, Truelove, & Hulme, 2010; Gough & Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Ministry of Education, 2008; Nation, 2005; Tan, et al., 2007; Tunmer & Chapman, 2012b; Tunmer & Greaney, 2010).

To accommodate for the diverse range of reading (dis)abilities Pressley (2006) makes a case for a balanced literacy perspective on

[13] *Note.* The two variables that differentiate the different classifications of reading (dis)ability are continuous (Tunmer & Greaney, 2010).
[14] From *About dyslexia* (p. 4), by Ministry of Education, 2008, Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Education. Copyright [2008] by W. Tunmer. Reprinted with permission.
[15] *Note.* A reader who has decoding difficulties does not always indicate dyslexia (van Lamoen, 2013)

reading instruction that combines the strength of decoding skills and meaning making sources of information when learning to read. Furthermore, Arrow and Tunmer (2012) argue a case for differentiated instruction that capitalises on the differences across the continuum of reading (dis)abilities and what beginning readers bring to the reading process.

Hoover and Gough (1990) confirmed the predictive validity of the SVR multiplicative formula in a longitudinal study that tracked 254 English-Spanish bilingual children from grades 1 through 4. Multiple yearly assessments were made of each student's development in cognition, language, and reading, employing multiple measures within each domain, and assessing both English and Spanish skill with respect to the latter two (Hoover & Gough, 1990). Results indicated that the correlation between decoding and linguistic comprehension accounted for .83 of the variance in reading comprehension. This implies that, "that skill in reading can be simply characterized as the product of skill in decoding and linguistic comprehension" (Hoover & Gough, 1990, p. 127). Although the validity of the SVR model in bilingual contexts suggests its suitability for year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context, the parallel between authentic Māori epistemology and pedagogy that empowers Māori aspirations for self-determination in reading achievement (Rau, 2004, 2005; Te Aika, 1997) and the SVR model is yet to be examined.

However, Stuart et al., (2008) deconstucted the Simple View of Reading to examine why The Rose Review (Rose, 2006) report recommended adopting the SVR model to guide the reconstruction of the searchlights model (orchestrating semantic, syntactic, and visual graphophonic cues to extract meaning from text) embeddded in the United Kingdom's reading curriculum. Stuart et al. (2008) found that regardless of the socio-cultural and educational context of individual readers, readers have to develop both decoding and linguisitic comprehension skills to become a competent reader.

There is considerable evidence supporting the idea that decoding and linguistic comprehension are interdependent intrinsic components for success in reading (Aaron et al., 1999; Chen & Vellutino, 1997; Dreyer &

Katz, 1992; Gottardo & Mueller, 2008; Hoover & Gough, 1990; Lee & Wheldall, 2009; Savage, 2006). However, the simplicity of the Simple View of Reading has been questioned by many researchers who argue SVR insufficiently captures the complexity of other cognitive related processing skills that could possibly account for variance in the reading process, for example, fluency, rapid automatised naming, vocabulary, and visual working memory (Adolf, Catts, & Little, 2006; Goswami, 2008; Kershaw & Schastschneider, 2012; Kirby & Savage, 2008; Kirby, Parrila, & Pfeiffer, 2003; Kuhn & Rasinski, 2011; Ouellete & Beers, 2010; Vellutino, Tunmer, Jaccard, & Chen, 2007). Advocates of the SVR model do not deny the complexity of other cognitive related processing skills involved in the reading process, but assert they subsume decoding and linguistic comprehension (Hoover & Gough, 1990; Wren, 2000; Kendeou, Savage, & van den Broek, 2009). Recent research highlights vocabulary knowledge has a critical role in reading comprehension and it has been suggested not only does the depth of vocabulary knowledge contribute to reading comprehension directly via linguistic comprehension (Tannenbaum, Torgesen, & Wagner, 2006), but the breadth of vocabulary knowledge also relates indirectly via decoding (Tunmer & Chapman, 2012b; Ouellette, 2006). For this reason a new Simple View of Reading has been proposed (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012).

In summary, the strength of the SVR model is that it identifies two core competencies, decoding and linguistic comprehension, that must be developed to achieve skilled readers (García & Cain, 2014; Gillon, 2004; Kendeou et al., 2009; Tunmer & Chapman, 2012b). Decoding is the aspect of SVR that the present study concerns itself with.

2.3 Emergent Literacy Skills

Emergent literacy signals the early period of literacy learning development that young children acquire between birth and the early years in primary school (6 years or under in Aotearoa) (Arrow & McLachlan, 2011; Girard, Girolametto, Weitzman, & Greenberg, 2013; Justice & Pullen, 2003;

Lonigan, 2004; Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Tracey & Morrow, 2012; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998).

From the perspective of socio-cultural constructivist understandings of human development and learning, particularly the theories of Vygotsky (1978) and Bronfenbrenner (1979), the concept of emergent literacy is percieved as a social practice, through which children engage with different contexts of literacy practice at home and in their communities (Glynn et al., 2006). During this period there are many opportunities for children to experience sociolinguistic interactions that are part of home and community life (Clay, 1966; Sonnenschein et al., 1996; Tolchinsky, 2004). These include for example, responsive interactions during pōwhiri (welcoming ceremony), whakawhanaungatanga (gatherings), meals, game and play activities, media viewing, outings, having books read to them, writing, and drawing (Baker, Sonnenschein, Serpell, Fernandez-Fein, & Scher, 1994; Pressley, 2006).

Research suggests that the interactions from these language experiences activate senses, feelings, and thoughts which in turn stimulates brain cognition and language development (Frijters, Barron, & Brunello, 2000; McCain & Mustard, 1999). In other words, “interaction mediates acquistion” (Ellis, 2008, p. 275). van Hees (2007) illustrates this connection: “language gives form to thoughts and cognition. Thoughts and cognition are expressed through language” (p. 10). Thus, sociolinguistic interactions impact on the immediate and long term cognitive and linguistic development and resources of young children. This highlights the fact that home and community contexts are potentially rich semantic spaces for young children to build, expand, share, think about, enact, evaluate, and negotiate their cognitive and linguistic comprehension capacity prior to attending school (Alexander, 2008; Edwards-Groves, Anstey, & Bull, 2013). Pressley (2006) argues rich linguistic interactions advantage the development of beginning reading skills. The reality of potential rich linguistic interactions is highly dependent on the quality of substantive interactions scaffolded by competent and responsive family and community members, irrespective of being a monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual speaker (Cummins, 2001; Edwards-Groves et al., 2013; Glynn et al., 2006; Pressley, 2006;

Sonnenschein, et al., 1996; van Hees, 2007; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, 2003).

Supporting this claim is a large body of research that illustrates substantial predictive relationships between emergent literacy skills and later reading achievement (Torgesen, 2002; Tracey & Morrow, 2012; Tunmer et al., 2004, 2006, 2008, 2013; Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011).

Each child's pathway of language and literacy acquisition in the emergent period is uniquely developed from a diverse range of cultural and linguistic abilities, skills, knowledge, and life experiences (McLachlan et al., 2013). Early cognitive, language, and emergent literacy skills and knowledge developed concurrently and interdependently, are regarded critical in developing the precursors needed to meet the literacy demands of the New Zealand Curriculum (De Temple, Dickinson, & Tabors, 2001; Ministy of Education, 2007, 2009b, 2010; McLachlan et al., 2013; Pressley, 2006; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998).

Research shows that the foundational knowledge of language composition needed at school entry are: oral language, speaking and listening comprehension; alphabet knowledge, the ability to identify letters of the alphabet; phonological awareness, an appreciation of the role that sounds play in words; vocabulary knowledge; and print concepts (Henry, 2010; McLachlan et al., 2013). Although, there is a large body of international and national research-based evidence illustrating the emergent literacy prerequisite skills that contribute to reading acquisition, particularly the role of phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge (Cullen, 2007; Foulin, 2005; Juel, 1988; Lesaux & Siegel, 2003; National Early Literacy Panel, 2008; National Reading Panel, 2000), the findings have not had a significant impact on the transition practices to literacy education in the early years of primary school in Aotearoa (Nicholson, 2009), particularly, for year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting.

In transitioning to school many Māori children and their whānau (families) face a critical period of language and literacy adjustment. Peters (2010) reports, there is a paucity of research about the multi-faceted transitions many Māori children and their whānau experience in their first

formal year of Māori-medium education, such as the interface: between home and school (e.g., unconventional to conventional forms of literacy practices), across different education settings (e.g., early childhood to primary), and across different language settings (e.g., immersion to partial-immersion, oral to written language modes, and te reo Māori dialects), including the implications each of these considerations has for skilled English reading acquisition to happen in year 1 level 2 Māori-medium settings. Many researchers agree partnerships that affirm connections between whānau, the learner, and teachers/school at the interface is paramount to learning achievement (McLachlan et al., 2013; Peters, 2010; Smith, 2012; van Hees, 2004) because simply being immersed in good models of written and oral language will not ensure competency in beginning reading skills (Gibbs & Nicholson, 1999).

The multi-faceted transitions many year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context experience draws attention to the possible variations of bilingual and multilingual patterns of language use and the complexity of language circumstances and resources that reflects one's identity, culture, and world views (van Hees, 2007). This is important because "language is culture, culture is language" (van Hees, 2007, p. 66), and "language constructs realities" (Janks, 2010, p. 60). The bilingual realities demand consideration in any teaching and learning context, particularly in expanding reading acquisition. Bialystok (2013) argues that participation in bicultural and bilingual communities of literacy practice means that bilingualism plays an important role in the acquisition of emergent literacy skills and consequently reading in English, "but the effect of that factor [bilingualism] is neither simple nor unitary" (Bialystok, 2007, p. 45). The argument is the languages that early bilingual students bring to their formal learning is a key linguistic resource (Bialystok, 2001) and an intrinsic component linked to developing English reading skills for future reading achievement despite the variation of (bi)literacy-related differences at school entry.

The term Literate Cultural Capital reflects the variation of literacy-related wealth acquired in the home or community environment. Tunmer et al. (2006) have conceptualised the key Literate Cultural Capital reading-related variables into the following four categories: phonological sensitivity,

grammatical sensitivity, receptive vocabulary, and letter-name knowledge. Studies have shown these four Literate Cultural Capital variables have a strong influence on early literacy development (Foulin, 2005; Henry, 2010; Tunmer et al., 2006). Tunmer et al.'s (2006) argument is that the interaction of Literate Cultural Capital at school entry and New Zealand's current literacy education practice are major contribuiting factors to social and cultural differences in entry level pre-reading skills and later reading achievement.

Tunmer et al. (2006) examined the validity of the Literate Cultural Capital construct in a seven year longitudinal study that tracked 76 children in English-medium contexts within New Zealand from school entry (5 years old) through year 7 (12 years old). Data was collated on a range of reading-related measures (phonological awareness measures; onset-rime segmentation, sound matching, syntactic awareness measures; oral cloze, word-order correction tasks, and receptive vocabulary, letter identification and verbal working memory) at the beginning of year 1 (mean age = 5 years, 1 month) and a range of reading-related measures (pseudoword decoding, context-free word recognition ability and reading comprehension) at the end of year 7 (mean age = 11 years, 9 months). Results indicated that Literate Cultural Capital accounted for 55.3% of the variance in year 7 reading comprehension performance. This was after controlling for the effects of extraneous variables (socio-economic status, ethnicity, and verbal working memory). This implies that the degree of Literate Cultural Capital at school entry can be the point of difference between developing skilled readers or poor readers.

Tunmer et al.'s (2006) analysis of data showed that Māori participants entered school with low-levels of Literate Cultural Capital and consequently were at least one year behind in reading age in year 7. The results infer inadequate levels of Literate Cultural Capital at the outset of formal instruction, further impeded by educational neglect are strong precursors feeding persistent reading difficulties for Māori students. Some of Aotearoa researchers criticize that the profiling of Māori learners in Tunmer et al.'s (2006) study provokes deficit thinking and pathologises Māori learners later reading achievement by feeding the notion that factors

in the home have impacted negatively on the strength of individuals Literate Cultural Capital at school entry (Berryman & Bishop, 2011; Bishop, 2008; Harris, 2008, 2009b; Keith, 2002). Glynn et al. (2006) and McNaughton (2002) argue, Māori students' reading potential at school entry is realised when matched with high expectations of achievement, effective knowledge of language and literacy acquisition and assessment, and socio-cultural responsive pedagogy.

A critique of Tunmer et al.'s (2006) study gives an insight into the education system performance in Aotearoa by highlighting inequitable literacy outcomes Māori children experienced over seven years. The approach to literacy in Aotearoa primary schools appears to rely heavily on children bringing strong levels of Literate Cultural Capital to their learning and ignores or marginalises Māori readers' key bilingual resource to reading. The persistance of inequitable literacy achievement patterns for Māori children is evident in the results from the PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study) 2011 (Mullis et al., 2012) data report. A key finding of PIRLS revealed there was no significant changes in the reading achievement patterns for Māori between the PIRLS 2001, 2006, and 2011 studies (Mullis et al., 2003, 2007, 2012), as predicted by Tunmer et al. (2004). The international data reports strongly infers the current education system in Aotearoa has not and does not respond adequately to the English literacy learning needs of Māori students.

The negative representation of Māori students' achievement demonstrated in the international reports is the source of much concern (Nicholson, 2009; Rau, 2005) and suggests the prime factor influencing academic disparities appears to be in the architectural structure and discourse of New Zealand's literacy education policies and pedagogy of oppression (G. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2013; Bishop, Berryman, Tiakiwai, & Richardson, 2003). Berryman and Bishop (2011) claim the explanation of structural power is embedded in the patterns of power imbalances such as dominance and subordination inherent in New Zealand's education system as a result of its colonial origins. In support of this view Freire (1972) argues, literacy is socially and politically construed. For example, those in dominant positions in society have the power to

influence and control educational literacy policies, which in turn can influence, control, and maintain the status quo of literacy practices, learning achievements, attitudes, values, and beliefs in society (Baker, 2011).

A critical point to further examine from these reports is how the PIRLS assessments have measured the distinctive funds of emergent (bi)literacy knowledge, experiences, and practices Māori learners bring to their school learning (Harris, 2009A; McNaughton, 2002; Peters, 2010; Phillips, McNaughton & MacDonald, 2004; Schwinge, 2008). This highlights a constant site of struggle many Māori experience: through whose lens do we view and validate knowledge?

Research shows the continuation of individual differences in literacy-related skills in young children's first year of school and beyond, can be accounted for by the method of teaching reading skills (Elliot, 2005; Hales, 2006; McNaughton, 2011). Thus, the historical and present situation draws attention to the need for: effective levels of professional knowledge in beginning reading programmes (McNaughton, 2002); how to support struggling readers (Nicholson, 2009); agentic pedagogy (Bishop, 2011); and an overhaul of national infrastructural reading policies and practices to prevent English reading difficulties for year 1 bilingual learners in level 2 Māori-medium contexts.

2.4 Word Recognition Skills

Many agree word recognition is oligatory for skilled reading (Roberts et al., 2011). Scarborough (2003) claims word recognition is most early readers However, the development of word recognition skills has been the focal point of a persisting conflict that is well rehearsed and described as the "reading wars" (Connor, Morrison, & Katch, 2004) or the "great debate' (Chall, 1967) between approaches to literacy that emphasize the development of phonological recoding skills and those that do not, such as the multiple cues model embedded in the whole language approach (Nicholson, 2009). Tunmer and Nicholson (2011) believe the source of conflict stems from competing paradigms relating to two interrelated

cognitive concepts: the cognitive developmental process in learning to read, and facilitating the acquisition of reading skills.

In Aotearoa the multiple cues approach has shaped literacy instruction and assessment both at the first tier (i.e., classroom instruction; Ministry of Education, 2003a, 2003b, 2006; Rau, 1998) and second tier (i.e., reading recovery; Clay, 1985, 1993) intervention levels and continues to be given primary importance. The multiple cues approach advocates text-based sources of information such as: semantic (M), syntactic (S), and visual graphophonic (V), preceding passage context, and activating prior knowledge to generate hypotheses about the text yet to be encountered (Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011). The multiple cues model perceives word-level cues as a final resort to confirm and self-correct predicitions (Clay, 2013).

Many researchers contend the multiple cues theory fails to recognise that phonological awareness and alphabetic coding skills are of primary importance in beginning reading development and the continued adherence to this theory continues to produce the status quo of poor readers due to its ineffective strategy to recognise words (Pressley, 2006; Shankweiler & Fowler, 2004; Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011). For example, when beginning readers encounter unfamiliar words in text they are enouraged to skip the difficult word and read on to the end of the sentence, and then to go back to the beginning of the sentence and try again, followed by cross-checking their predictions with integrated sources of information (MSV): Does it make sense? Does it sound right? and Does it look right? (Routman, 1991, p. 226b). In contrast to the multiple cues approach, scientific evidence indicates word-level (i.e., grapheme-phoneme cues) analysis should precede contextual (i.e., semantic or syntactic cues) analysis in recognising words (Pressley, 2006). The argument is, the multiple cues instructional philosophy that has dominated New Zealand's beginning reading programmes in the last three decades, plays an important role in producing inequitable outcomes for poor readers (Tunmer et al., 2013). Simply put, poor readers are currently faced with inequitable opportunities to participate and further develop their reading skills unless a balanced literacy approach to reading based on scientific research is made (Nicholson, 2009; Pressley, 2006).

Skilled word recognition is often described as the ability to identify the pronunciation and meanings of words automatically and effortlessly in lexical memory (Ehri, 2005a, 2005b; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Perfetti, 2007; Roberts et al., 2011; Wren, 2000). This definition of word recognition parallels the definition of decoding presented earlier in this chapter. The parallel in definitions challenges the simplicity of the SVR model due to the degree of ambiguity in how decoding is conceptualised (Kirby & Savage, 2008; Ouellette & Beers, 2010): decoding accuracy (e.g., letter-level phonological processing) or decoding fluency (e.g., automaticity). Furthermore, it is argued the discrepancy relating to the semantics of decoding combined with how decoding is measured can significantly influence the effects of reading comprehension reported in studies (García & Cain, 2014).

Clarity was sought by examining whether decoding accuracy and decoding fluency contributes to reading comprehension as separate components of SVR or are inclusive of decoding ability (Kirby & Savage, 2008). Tan et al. (2007) found the significant contribution decoding ability has towards reading comprehension is the level of accuracy needed to develop fluency and automatic word recognition. Tan et al.'s (2007) finding resonates with Tunmer and Chapman's (2012b) findings that fluency is not a separate component of SVR but a critical component of decoding. This perspective further suggests that decoding ability develops in a continuum:

- phonological awareness: understanding that words are composed of distinct sounds;
- alphabetic principle: applying systematic correspondence between spoken and written forms of words;
- word-specific orthographic knowledge: understanding spelling patterns and their relationship to syllabic units in speech; and
- fluency: developing automaticity in word recognition.
  (Adams, 1990; Chall, 1983; Ehri, 1985; Henderson, 1990; Henry, 2010; Nicholson, 2005; Tracey & Morrow, 2012).

A review of the literature suggests the development of teaching and learning decoding skills can be divided across years of instruction at school

as depicted in Figure 2 (the American grades k-8 relate to Aotearoa primary school years 1 to 9):

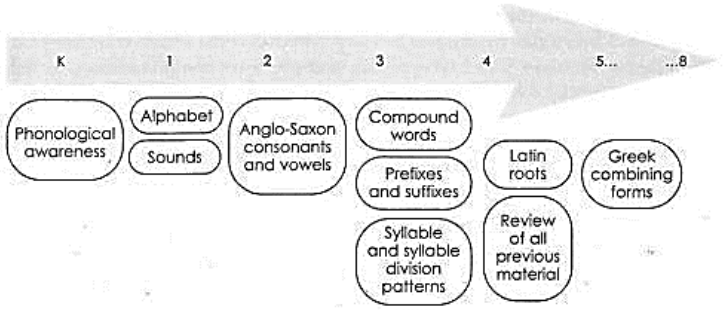

Figure 2. Continuum of decoding instruction[16]

In contrast to the multiple cues approach to word recognition, the decoding continuum indicates skilled decoding is primarily associated with word-level cues: word origin and word structure (see Figure 2) (Henry, 2010; Pressley, 2006). This finding is consistent with brain imaging studies that suggest reading is primarily a phonological process (Turkeltaub, Gareau, Flowers, Zeffiro, & Eden, 2003). The continuum suggests that beginning readers must learn word-level decoding strategies before they can recognise words accurately and fluently as competent readers. Explicit links between oral (e.g., phonology) and written (e.g., morphology and orthography) form of words links to the significance of further enhancing beginning readers metalinguistic abilities (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008; Cazden, 1974; Henry, 2010; Kamhi & Catts, 2012; Lee, 1996; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). Metalinguistic ability invokes deliberate control processing where readers consciously apply their cognitive understanding of how words are formed in order to manipulate the structural features to decode (Tunmer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988). The significance of metalinguistic awareness is that it is closely related to one of the cognitive advantages of bilingualism (Cummins, 2008; Gillon, 2004; Hill, 2010; May et al., 2004).

[16] From *Unlocking literacy: Effective decoding & spelling instruction* (2nd ed.) (p. 9), by M. K. Henry, 2010, Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes. Copyright [2010] by M. K. Henry. Reprinted with permission.

Cummins' (1979) theory of language interdependence proposes that there is a Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) between languages. Cummins (2011) illustrates a visual representation of the interdependence theory referred to as the Iceberg Model (see Figure 3). The two icebergs are separate above the surface which reflects the understanding that the visible aspects of first (L1) and second languages (L2) appear to function in isolation (e.g., pronunciation and fluency). However, beneath the surface, there is a common area where the two languages are fused together. Which means, although the two languages are visibly different in outward conversation the two languages do not function separately. Rather, the associations between concepts and skills (e.g., word recognition) that are common across both languages operate and interact through one central cognitive processing system (Baker, 2011; Cummins, 1980).

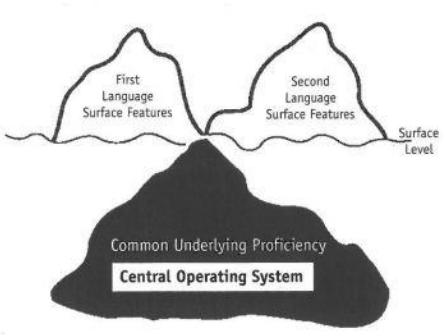

Figure 3. Iceberg model[17]

The interdependence theory proposes explicit cognitive/academic language instruction (e.g., phonological awareness) and literacy-related skills and knowledge (e.g., word recognition) easily transfers from one language to another (Cummins, 2008). This implies a child who has been explicitly taught phonological-recoding skills in English does not have to be re-taught phonological-recoding skills in Māori provided there is adequate exposure to Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)[18] in Māori

[17] From *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.) (p. 166), by C. Baker, 2011, Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters. Copyright [2011] by J. Cummins. Reprinted with permission.
[18] CALP is specific to decontexualised language of the curriculum which is needed to participate in bilingual classroom discourse. Cummins (2000) proposes CALP takes 5 to 7 years to develop in L2.

and vice versa. This exchange suggests that the connection between skilled decoding instruction and the interdependence theory are key considerations for the development of word recognition skills in year 1 level 2 Māori-medium contexts.

Tunmer et al. (1988) investigated the role metalinguistic abilities played in the initial stages of learning to read in a two year longitudinal study that tracked 118 English speaking children in Western Australia from the beginning of grade one (mean age = 5 years, 8 months) through end of grade two (*n* = 92). Data was collated on a range of literacy-related measures such as: reading skills (letter identification, concepts about print, and ready to read word test), metalinguistic abilities (phonological awareness, syntactic awareness, and pragmatic awareness), receptive vocabulary, and concrete operational thought at the beginning of grade one. At the end of grade one participants reading skills and metalinguistic abilities were reassessed on the above measures as well as their reading achievement using the *Interactive Reading Assessment System (IRAS)* (Calfee & Calfee, 1981) subtests: real word decoding context-free, pseudoword decoding, and reading comprehension. The participants were reassessed on the three *IRAS* subtest measures at the end of grade two. Participants were obtained from 11 first grade classrooms that used a combination of language experience and phonics methods in their reading instruction programmes.

Results indicated that metalinguistic ability, particularly phonological and syntactic awareness, played important roles in the acquisition of phonological-recoding skill than in the development of text-level processes. At the end of grade one, the multiple regression analysis showed the product of phonological awareness and letter identification was a stronger predictor of decoding than the two variables, phonological awareness and letter identification, independently. Whereas, intercorrelations analyses revealed receptive vocabulary (measured using the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test*) (Dunn, 1965) was not significant in the development of metalinguistic abilities, decoding, and reading comprehension. Tunmer et al. (1988) concludes that first graders who possessed phonemic awareness

and letter-name knowledge were most certain to make progress in learning to decode.

A similar pattern of findings were reported in a recent three year longitudinal study conducted by Tunmer and Chapman (2006) within 16 New Zealand English-medium urban schools from a range of socio-economic areas. The study tracked 152 new entrant children (mean age = 5 years, 1 month) who had entered school for the first time at the beginning of a new school year (beginning of year one) through to the end of year two. The aim of the study was to investigate the relationships among metalinguistic abilities, learning strategies, and beginning reading development in English. Data were analysed from a range of reading-related measures administered toward the end of year one (mean age = 5 years, 9 months), at the middle of year two (mean age = 6 years, 5 months), and at the end of year two (mean age = 6 years, 10 months). These included measures of: metalinguistic abilities (phonological sensitivity, phoneme segmentation, and grammatical sensitivity; oral cloze and word-order correction tasks), oral language skills (listening comprehension), learning strategies (ability to use letter-sound patterns and ability to use sentence context: percent relative contextual gain and priming by context), and reading achievement (context-free word recognition and reading comprehension).

At the middle and end of year two, results indicated phoneme segmentation correlated more highly with the ability to use letter-sound patterns than did oral cloze and word-order correction tasks. Furthermore, from the end of year one to middle and end of year two, the letter-sound patterns learning strategy exerted a stronger influence than the sentence context strategy in relation to reading development and the reciprocal causation between these two factors. Whereas, both metalinguistic ability measures, phonological and grammatical sensitivity, independently influenced the ability to use sentence context, however, phonological sensitivity showed to be more of a stronger influence. In addition, when extraneous oral language variables and autoregressive context-free word identification effects were controlled, both metalinguistic ability measures

made independent contributions to variance in reading achievement at the end of year two.

Tunmer and Chapman (2006) summarise that metalinguistic abilities play an important role in developing word recognition skills, in particular, phonological sensitivity. In contrast to the multiple cues approach to recognising unfamiliar words, Tunmer and Chapman's (2006) study suggests that beginning readers should be encouraged to decode unfamiliar words by using letter-sound patterns as the primary word recognition strategy and then to use sentence context secondary, but only to confirm their hypothesis about what the unfamiliar word might be, based on information from their initial decoding attempts. However, research that investigates the development of word recognition skills for early readers in a level 2 Māori-medium setting is desired.

Henry (2010) signals an important caveat to interpreting the continuum of decoding instruction: fluency and automaticity are not synonymous. The need for fluency is well supported by the literature and refers to the speed of decoding text. Whereas, automaticity is the immediate recognition of a word's pronunciation and meaning (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012; Henry, 2010; National Reading Panel, 2000). Ehri (2005b) shows to traverse from fluency to automaticity readers need many opportunities to practice orchestrating their decoding skills, strategies, and knowledge. Research shows frequent encounters of successfully sounding out a word increases the connection between the spelling patterns of the word and the word in lexical memory (Adams, 1990; Ehri, 1987, 1992). This means that when a reader's eyes encounters a word by sight, the word's pronunciation and meaning is triggered in the reader's memory automatically (Ehri, 1992). Ehri (2005b) argues it is inaccurate to limit the term 'sight word' to only high-frequency or irregularly spelled words. The key understanding of sight word recognition is that words come to be read automatically as single units with no pauses between word parts (Ehri, 2005b).

Recent studies reporting the notion that automaticity plays a fundamental role in facilitating comprehension of text shows the efficiency

of this ability depends on the quality of knowledge a reader has about words and specific lexical information, or what Perfetti (2007) calls lexical quality (Perfetti & Hart, 2001; Vellutino et al., 2007). Lexical quality refers to the reader's ability to draw on their knowledge of phonology and alphabetic orthography to execute precision in mental forms of representation (i.e., phonological and orthographic variations) and flexibility in representations of semantics (e.g., differentiate cases of multiple word meanings and/or homophonic pair selection) (Calfee & Drum, 1986; Cunningham, Nathan, & Raher, 2011). Lexical quality implies the critical construct of phonology is the overall understanding of a language's sound systems i.e., words constitue a sound structure (Gillon, 2004; Goswami, 2008; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). Whereas, alphabetic orthography refers to the alphabetic spelling system used by the English language (Moats, 2000; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). Subsequently, the phrase semantics in lexical quality, is used to refer to the qualities of a word's meaning that gives it its purpose in lexical memory (Hart & Perfetti, 2008).

This means the degree of lexical quality has a direct and cummulative effect on the variance of decoding ability (Perfetti, 2007). The central claim of Perfetti's (2007) study emphasizes that high lexical quality advances skilled decoding, causing positive Matthew Effects (Stanovich, 1986) and sophisticated reading skills (Perfetti, 2007). Whereas, low lexical quality impedes skilled decoding which in turn triggers a pattern of poor reading acquisition or negative Matthew Effects (Stanovich, 1986) and persistent reading difficulties (Perfetti, 2007). Research shows that poor decoding skills is the most salient impediment in learning to read for many poor readers (Juel, 1988, 1991; Pressley, 2006). In short, the rich who have good decoding skills get richer whilst the poor who have poor decoding skills get poorer (Stanovich, 1986).

An instructional implication of Perfetti's (2007) study is that the acquisition of explicit phonological, orthographic, and semantic knowledge is imperative to developing high-levels of expertise in automatic word recognition. In fact, findings strongly suggest that automatic word recognition is one of the strongest predictors of reading achievement, particularly in the first three years of learning to read (Adams, 1990; National

Early Literacy Panel, 2008; National Reading Panel, 2000; Nicholson, 2003; Scarborough, 2003; Vellutino et al., 2007).

2.5 Development and Assessment of Word Recognition Skills

According to Ehri (2005b), the key to understanding the development of word recognition skills, is knowing how beginning readers learn to recognize written text accurately and automatically.

Ehri (2005b) has distinguished five phases to identify significant stages that occur as children develop word recognition skills as follows: pre-alphabetic, partial-alphabetic, full-alphabetic, consolidate alphabetic, and sight-word (see Figure 4).

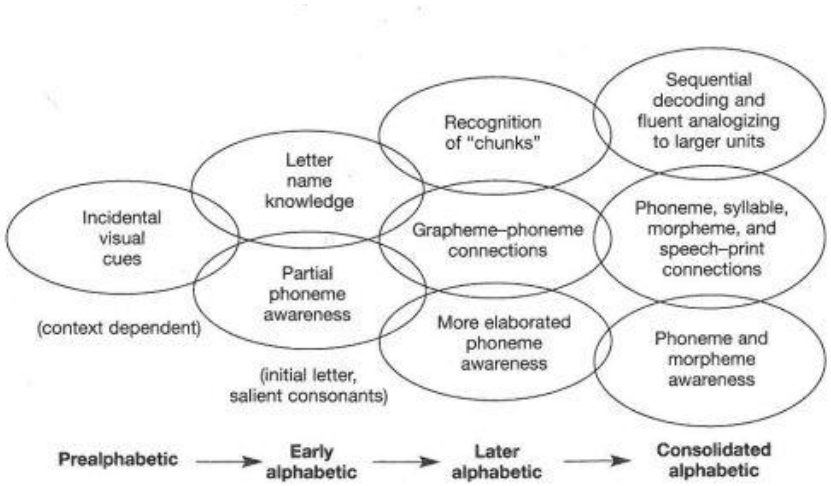

Figure 4. Decoding development continuum[19]

The pre-alphabetic phase (see Figure 4) is also refered to as logographic, environmental, and visual cue reading (Ehri, 1991). The predominant strategies at this phase involves immersion, exposure to print, and remembering selected visual characteristics that includes a word to recognise a word, for example, McDonalds in the context of its logo, or predicting based on the context and initial letter cues to guess unfamiliar

[19] From *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers* (2nd ed.) (p. 11), by L. C. Moats, 2010, Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes. Copyright [2010] by L. C. Moats. Reprinted with permission.

words (Goodman, 1976). At this phase children know little about the alphabetic principle or its application to reading words and this eventually leads to reading difficulties for many beginning readers unless they become aware of phonological segments in spoken words.

The partial-alphabetic phase (depicted as early-alphabetic in Figure 4), involves developing an awareness of the relationship between alphabetic letters and phonological segments, known as the alphabetic principle. At this phase children understand they can begin to use this awareness as a strategy to decode words but often only form connections between the initial and final sounds. They still experience difficulties decoding unfamiliar words as they are yet to acquire full knowledge of the alphabetic principle, especially medial vowels, and the ability to segment word pronunciations into all its phonemes (Ehri, 2005b).

The full-alphabetic phase (depicted as later-alphabetic in Figure 4), involves phonological-recoding (Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011), the ability to translate, segment, and blend letters and letter patterns into phoneme, onset-rime and syllable forms to recognise unfamiliar words. The significance of the interaction between the alphabetic principle and phonological awareness during this phase is that it increases the reader's degree of lexical quality (Perfetti, 2007) that leads them to automatically recognise words.

The consolidated alphabetic phase (see Figure 4) involves the retention of sight words in memory increasing as readers process recurring letter patterns or word-parts as chunks or wholes, for example, rime, syllable, and morphemes (e.g., prefixes, root words, and suffixes). Reading by analogy (parts of words the reader already knows) is a sophisticated decoding strategy that requires onset-rime segmentation and blending skill (e.g., reading *brick* by knowing how to read *kick*) that leads to efficient and accurate decoding of unknown words and automaticity (Chard & Dickson, 1999; Goswami, 1986).

The sight word phase, involves the reader decoding and comprehending the word automatically (Ehri, 2005b; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; Pressley, 2006). Automatic sight word recognition leads to

tremendous advantages for the reader as in this phase decoding requires little effort, thus there is substantial short-term capacity remaining for comprehension (Pressley, 2006).

An analysis of these phases reveals phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, and knowledge of the alphabetic principle are the most significant factors that underpin word recognition ability (Aaron et al., 1999; Ehri, 1998; Goswami, 2005, 2008; Moats, 2001; Roberts et al., 2011; Tunmer et al., 2008; Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011). Furthermore, a large body of research shows word recognition skills must be consciously and explicitly taught, that many students do not acquire decoding skills simply through mere exposure to spoken and written language (Foster-Cohen, 2004; García & Cain, 2014; Ministry of Education, 2009a; Tunmer et al., 2008; Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011).

Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, and Willows (2001) conducted a meta-anlysis to evaluate the effectiveness of systematic phonics interventions on decoding and word recognition ability, compared to unsystematic interventions using 66 treatment-control comparisons derived from 38 experiments. Systematic phonics instruction deliberately teaches children systematically and sequentially the alphabetic principle, that is, the correspondences between graphemes and phonemes that link to the spelling of their pronunciations. The systematic approach then teaches readers how to apply their grapheme-phoneme knowledge as a strategy to decode unfamiliar words by sounding out the letters and blending the sounds. Unsystematic instruction is to teach grapheme-phoneme relationships in context as the need arises which is fundamental to the whole language approach. Ehri et al.'s (2001) meta-analysis showed that the systematic phonics instruction developed beginning readers word recognition skills more effectively in comparision to unsystematic instruction and produced better reading results overall.

2.6 Phonological Awareness

Phonological awareness is the conscious ability to understand explicitly that words consist of a sound structure (Castles & Coltheart, 2004; Gillon, 2004). Phonological awareness refers to the ability to percieve and manipulate smaller elements of sounds within the single word level of spoken words via aural discrimination only (Goswami & Bryant, 1990; Goswami, 2008; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005).

Research shows the sequence of phonological development is conditioned largely by speech and language acquisition factors (Goswami, 2006) and develops in a continuum, with the larger word parts (e.g., syllable) more easy to learn and identify than the smallest unit of sound in a word (i.e., phoneme) (Adams, Foorman, Lundberg, & Beeler, 1998a, 1998b). The phonological structure can be divided into a hierarchical manner to represent the differing levels of complexity: word awareness, syllable awareness, onset-rime awareness, and phonemic awareness levels (see Figure 5).

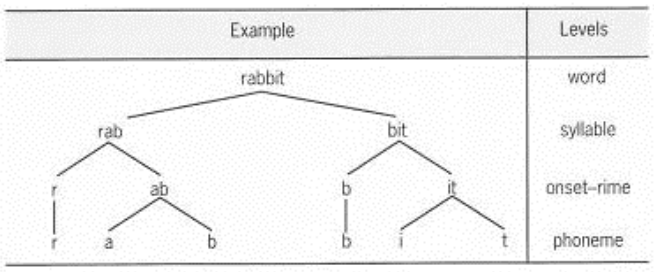

Figure 5. Different levels of phonological awareness[20]

This means when a one syllable consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) word is divided into onset-rime, for example, the word /kæt/, the onset consists of the first consonant /k/ and the rime /æt/ is the vowel and the following consonant. If /kæt/ was to be further divided into smaller sound elements such as phonemes, there would be three individual sounds such

[20] From *At the cutting edge: The importance of phonemic awareness in learning to read and spell* (p. 27), by T. Nicholson, 2005, Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research. Copyright [2005] by T. Nicholson. Reprinted with permission.

as, /k/ /æ/ /t/ (Dymock, 2013; Wagner et al., 2003). One of the complexities of phonological awareness is that each tier includes developmental processes, for example, at the phonemic awareness tier, analytic (substituting initial and final phonemes) skills requires more complex and sophisticated phonological awareness than synthetic skills (phoneme identity) (Hulme et al., 2002; Nicholson, 2005). The progression of phonological awareness and instruction depicted in Figure 6, suggests children usually develop synthetic skills before analytic skills (Nicholson, 2005; Ouellette & Hayley, 2013). However, being phonologically aware means having analytic and synthetic knowledge and skills at all four levels of complexity (Chard & Dickson, 1999).

Step	Phonological task	Example
1	Syllable awareness	Let's clap the syllables in RABBIT.
2	Rhyme awareness	Which word does not rhyme with the others? HOT CAT POT
3	Phoneme identity	Which picture starts with /s/? Which picture starts with /g/?
4	Blending	Turtle talk: Find the B-A-G.
5	Deletion: initial final	 Say CAT without the /k/. Say CAT without the /t/.
6	Segmentation	What are the three sounds in DOG?
7	Substitution	Point to the MOP. Instead of the /m/. start a new word with /p/.

Figure 6. Progression of phonological awareness and instruction[21]

Many concede to prevent confusion of comprehending phonological-related terms that are often used interchangeably in research, that it is critical that associated terminology such as: phonology, phonics, phonological awareness and phonemic awareness are defined (Chard & Dickson, 1999; Gillon, 2004; Walsh, 2009). Phonology refers to the study

[21] From *At the cutting edge: The importance of phonemic awareness in learning to read and spell* (p. 38), by T. Nicholson, 2005, Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research. Copyright [2005] by T. Nicholson. Reprinted with permission.

of language that focuses on understanding the governing speech-sound production. Phonics refers to teaching the relationship between sound and symbol in an alphabetic orthography (Adams et al., 1998b). Phonological awareness is a broader aspect of the metalinguistic development continuum that encapsulates an understanding that spoken words are composed of segments of sound, for example, syllables, onset-rime, and phoneme. Each sound structure is positioned at different points along the metalinguistic development continuum. Thus, phonemic awareness is a sub-set of phonological awareness. The role of phonological and phonemic awareness is critical to early word recognition and spelling development because it aids readers to access orthographic representations of words such as: mapping graphemes to phonemes, and analogy patterns and their meanings (Blachman, Tangel, Ball, Black, & McGraw, 1999; Gillon, 2004; Nicholson, 2005).

Research shows measures that include a combination of appropriate simple and complex phonological skills within each tier should be employed to effectively identify and monitor the development of students' phonological awareness within the first year at school (Chard & Dickson, 1999). This is because the student's results of the combined measures give greater predictive validity in reading acquisition than one measure alone of the phonological development continuum (Ehri et al., 2001; Yopp, 1988). Many agree that the more complex the phonological awareness measure, the stronger correlation of complex decoding skills was found (Rachmani, 2011; Stahl & Murray, 1994).

Lonigan, Burgess, and Anthony (2000) conducted a longitudinal study in the United States of America that tracked two groups of preschool children to investigate the predictive significance between oral language, print knowledge, and phonological sensitivity aspects of emergent literacy and future reading ability. Group one consisted of 96 children (mean age = 3 years 4 months, *SD* = 9.41) who were followed from early to late preschool. The second group consisted of 97 children (mean age = 5 years, *SD* = 5.41) who were followed from late preschool to into kindergarten or first grade. The study showed that phonological awareness was a significant and strong predictor of future decoding skills, particularly for children in group two. A

strength of this study was that it employed a variety of phonological awareness tasks that measured the different levels of linguistic complexity, for example, rhyme oddity, alliteration oddity, blending sounds, and deleting sounds. The findings reinforce that letter knowledge and phonological sensitivity had stronger correlations with later reading achievement than concepts about print and pre-alphabetic skills (Lonigan et al., 2000).

Hulme et al. (2002) conducted a short-term study in England to ascertain conclusive evidence about the relative importance of the different levels of phonological complexity as individual predictors of reading ability. The participants involved 72 reception and year one primary children with an age range from 5.14 to 6.34 years (mean age = 5 years, 6 months) during the initial assessment period that was spread over a seven month period. The final assessment period ranged from seven to 14 months. The results showed that phonemic awareness is a stronger predictor of reading ability than other phonological skills such as onset-rime skills. These findings support other related studies that show the predictive power of phonemic awareness accounts for 50% of variance in reading ability at the end of first grade (Adams et al., 1998a; Blachman, 1991; Juel, 1991; Wagner, Torgesen, & Rashotte, 1994).

2.7 Phonemic Awareness

Research shows phonemic awareness to be a powerful predictor of successful reading acquisition because it helps children understand the alphabetic principle (Goswami, 2005; Lonigan et al., 2000). Phonemic awareness refers to the ability to manipulate phonemes in spoken words (Liberman, Shankweiler, Fischer, & Carter, 1974; Mraz, Padak, & Rasinski, 2008). Without phonemic awareness, phonics instruction is not meaningful, as children do not hold the letter to sound knowledge necessary to decode words (Lyon, 1998; Torgesen, 2002). Evidence shows that early and explicit phonemic awareness instruction significantly helps children to progress towards independent decoding, particularly for children learning to read languages with orthographic inconsistencies like English (Goswami, 2008, Velluntino, Scanlon, Small, & Fanuele, 2006).

A phoneme is the minimal sound unit that can map to distinctive visual symbols, known as graphemes, in words (Goswami, 2005; Moats, 2010), and can change the meaning of a word (Dymock, 2013). In the English language there are 42-46 phonemes that are represented by 26 letters (or 52 visual features i.e., lower and uppercase letters) of the alphabet (Ehri, Deffner, & Wilce, 1984). The 42-46 phonemes can combine to form syllables and over 500, 000 words (Dymock, 2013; Ehri et al., 2001). The ability to map or recode phonemes to their corresponding graphemes (also refered as phonological recoding skill) is the critical ingredient in learning to read and spell (Nicholson, 2005; Shaywitz, 1996).

The acquisition of phonemic awareness is rapid when the phonological structure of a language follows a consistent 1:1 mapping between letter and sound (Goswami, 2005, 2008). The difficulty of the English language is that it is based on the alphabetic principle with deep orthographic variables (Nicholson, 2005; Goswami, 2008; Gunderson, D'Silva, & Chen, 2011). This means a single letter or letter chunks can have multiple pronunciations (Goswami, 2005; Moats, 2010). Research shows the orthographic depth and inconsistent grapheme-phoneme mapping of the English language can explain the differences in English reading difficulties for both L1 and L2 speakers of English (Gunderson et al., 2011; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005; Ziegler, Perry, Ma-Wyatt, Ladner, & Schulte-Körne, 2003).

Because there are no breaks in speech signalling where one phoneme ends and the next one begins, part of the difficulty in acquiring phonemic awareness is being able to distinguish, or parse, the separate phonemes in the pronunciation of words so that they can be matched up to graphemes. Rather, phonemes are blended into one another and are coarticulated (Ehri et al., 2001, Moats, 2010). Adams et al. (1998b) describe this elusive element of the phoneme further by drawing attention to the fact that listening comprehension directs attention to the meaning and force of spoken utterances as a whole word, rather than attending to individual phonemes as they produce or listen to speech. In addition, phonemes are acoustically variable in that the pronunciation of phonemes between speakers can be varied (Adams et al., 1998a).

Harris (2009a) conducted a study in Aotearoa that investigated the role Māori-English bilingualism plays in the development of phonological and phonemic awareness in both English and Māori languages. Harris (2009) tracked 11 Māori children (age range = 4 years, 10 months to 10 years, 4 months) in a composite years 1 to 6 level 4[22] Māori-medium setting situated within a English-medium context for one year. All participants had previously attended te kōhanga reo[23]. Qualitative data were collected using a range of measures such as, classroom observations; video- and audio-recorded conversations with key personnel, participants, parents, grandparents, and siblings; examination of school policy documents; journal writing; and home visits. Quantitative literacy-related assessments included: *The Preschool and Primary Inventory of Phonological Awareness* (PIPA) (Dodd, Crosbie, McIntosh, Teitzel, & Ozanne, 2000), and *Running Records* (Clay, 2000). Harris (2009a) developed a phonological awareness task in Māori that paralleled PIPA (Dodd et al., 2000) to measure the participants phonological awareness in Māori.

The thematic analyses indicated that all 11 participants awareness of the CV syllable structure in Māori, dominated their attempts to segment words into phonemes across both Māori and English languages. Findings showed that for the seven early readers of this study, the Māori CV syllable structure was a significant linguistic strength that they automatically transfered to phonologically recode CVC English words as CV-C rather than C-VC. In relation to the *Running Records* (Clay, 2000) measure, these early readers were not yet recognising words in-context and comprehending text according to their age norms. Whereas, the older readers from 9 through 11 years of age were decoding and comprehending text according to their age norms.

Harris' (2009a) study showed that CALP takes longer to develop for children who are having to master the academic register of a second

[22] Level 4 Māori-medium education has recently been reclassified as level 4 Māori language in English-medium education (Education Counts, 2014). Although the level 4 partial-immersion level of 12-30% te reo Māori has remained the same. To achieve the educational aims of Māori-medium education effectively, bilingual/immersion programmes require a minimum level of 50% immersion of te reo Māori curriculum instruction.

[23] Te kōhanga reo is a total immersion Māori language nest designed to regenerate the status of te reo Māori.

language with inconsistent orthographic variables, at the same time as having to learn new curricular content in that language. Furthermore, the idea that the development of syllable awareness precedes the development of phonemic awareness is a prevalent theme located in the scarce cross-linguistic studies available on the development of phonological and phonemic awareness for bilingual learners (Goswami, 2006).

Many agree that phonemic difficulties is the core factor for the majority of children who experience English reading difficulties (Adams, 1990; Adams et al., 1998b; Graves, Juel, & Graves, 2004; Juel, 1988, 1991; Lyon, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 2003; Milina, 1994; Phillips, Clancy-Menchetti, & Lonigan, 2008; Shaywitz, 1996; Stanovich, 1986). Thus, explicit teaching of phonemic awareness that prompts children's attention to the minimal sound structure of words is key to grasping the alphabetic principle in order to decode and encode successfully (Gunderson et al., 2011; Moats, 2010).

Juel (1988) conducted a longitudinal study of phonemic awareness that has led to many further studies on the effects of phonemic awareness instruction. Juel (1988) followed 54 children from grade one (6 to 7 years) through four (approximately 10 years) in one American school with a large population of minority children from a low socio-economic community. One aim of this study was to investigate whether children who identified through standardised reading achievement tests as poor readers on grade one entry, remained poor readers and writers throughout their first four years of school. Another aim was to investigate what skills poor readers needed to develop and prevented them from improving to experience reading success.

Juel's (1988) findings showed that poor readers had little phonemic awareness at school entry and struggled with letter-sound correspondence despite a year of phonics instruction, leading to a vicious cycle of low achievement. Without being able to decode, poor readers faced difficulty identifying words which limited their vocabulary development as well as growth and sense of enjoyment and success in reading and writing. Consequently, poor readers found the experience of reading challenging and therefore tended to read less frequently than average and good readers who benefited from positive Matthew Effects. Furthermore, this study

showed there was .88 probability that a poor reader at first grade would be a poor reader at fourth grade. Juel's (1988) study highlights insufficient phonemic awareness and related word-level processing skills impairs decoding, prevents word recognition, and leads to reading difficulties.

Ehri, Nunes, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh, and Shanahan (2001) conducted a meta-analysis which examined the effect phonemic awareness instruction had on children learning to read. Fifty-two studies were evaluated that contributed to 96 cases comparing the outcomes of treatment (phonemic instruction intervention) and control groups. Results indicated that phonemic awareness instruction that explicitly taught beginning readers the mapping of letters to phonemes and how to use their alphabet knowledge to manipulate phonemes were more effective. The findings show that phonemic awareness consistently exerts a strong influence on word recognition ability and reading achievement for all classifications of reading (dis)abilities (Ehri et al., 2001). Furthermore, the analysis of effect sizes indicated that phonemic awareness instruction had a significant impact on beginning readers acquiring phonemic awareness (*d* = 0.86). The effect of phonemic awareness instruction for beginning reader's phonemic awareness acquisition, word recognition ability, and reading performance in a level 2 Māori-medium setting, however, is yet to be examined.

2.8 Development of Phonological and Phonemic Awareness

The development of phonological awareness can be achieved using a variety of activities that promote the explicit understanding of a word's sound structure to aid children's ability to decode and encode print (Gillon, 2004). Research strongly supports phonological instruction that is explicit and systematic in its approach and that promotes the application of the children's skills in a variety of contexts, rather than a skills and drills approach (Phillips et al., 2008). Children can develop beginning levels of skill at the complex level of the phonological continuum, whilst also working towards mastery at the simple levels (Phillips et al., 2008). Thus, to cater for the diverse phonological needs and abilities, research advocates that

phonological interventions should include activities that develop a variety of phonological skills levels via word, syllable, onset-rime, and phonemic awareness rather than focusing on one phonological construct exclusively (Nicholson, 2004).

Children's ability to detect words that rhyme is not necessarily a skill that children can readily master, but is one way of measuring children's onset-rime awareness (Phillips et al., 2008). To develop rhyme awareness research shows it is important children understand the construct that for words to rhyme the words need to share an ending or rime that has the same sound. To determine words that rhyme, children need to isolate the onset from the rime and to hear if the endings of the words compare. This process involves initial phoneme segmentation and the ability to manipulate the sound structure of words. The development of rhyme awareness can be achieved through language games and shared books that use rhyme (McLachlan, 2010; Henry, 2010). Rhyming is a valuable step to acquiring phonemic awareness as it encourages the development of acquiring letter-sound associations to decode words (Adams et al., 1998a).

An analysis of the phonological tier indicates phonemic awareness tends to expand on the knowledge of larger phonological sound structures such as syllable and rhyme awareness (refer to Figure 6). To develop phonemic awareness research shows it is important to direct children's attention to the existence of individual phonemes within words and how to manipulate phonemes in words (Adams et al., 1998a). Research recommends blending phoneme activities should precede activities that develop segmenting and substituting phonemes in words. Nicholson (2005) and Adams et al., (1998a) recommends *Turtle talk* or *Troll talk* as an effective strategy for slowing down the pronunciation of individual phonemes in words for children to develop blending skills. This process involves the teacher slowly segmenting the phonemes in a word. The aim is for the children to hear each phoneme and understand that they can then blend the phonemes to identify the word.

2.9 Alphabet Knowledge

While phonemic awareness is a necessary prerequisite to reading an alphabetic system successfully, it is not sufficient on its own (Badenhop, 1992; Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002; Nicholson, 2003, 2005; Shankweiler & Fowler, 2004). Alphabet knowledge and phonemic awareness function in a complementary way for beginning readers and writers to decode and encode words (Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1991). Alphabet knowledge is the product of letter-naming and letter-sound knowledge, letter-form recognition, ability to print letters, and rapid letter naming all merged together (Bradley & Stahl, 2001; Piasta & Wagner, 2010). An alphabetic writing system like English is dependent on alphabet knowledge which in turn underpins the alphabetic principle. The alphabetic principle reflects the understanding that graphemes represent phonemes which blend together to form words (Nicholson, 2005; Moats, 2010). Thus, in combination with phonological awareness, children need to learn the alphabetic principle to successfully read (Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1991; Foorman et al., 2003; Ministry of Education, 2003a). Without alphabetic knowledge, the reciprocal translation from print to sound makes word recognition an extremely difficult task (Adams, 2003; Scarborough, 2003; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2003; Young-Suk, Foorman, Petscher, & Zhou, 2010).

Burgess and Lonigan (1998) point out that letter-naming knowledge tends to develop earlier than letter-sound knowledge. In support of this view Adams (1990) suggests the scope of alphabet knowledge begins with children learning the names of the letters, followed by its associated graphic representation, and lastly the sounds. Letter-name knowledge is an essential emergent literacy skill that is categorised by Whitehurst and Lonigan (1998) as an inside-out skill that supports the development of early decoding and spelling. Furthermore, letter-name knowledge is considered a strong predictor of beginning reading achievement until children have reached the ceiling level for alphabet naming, then letter-sound knowledge becomes a better predictor (Adams, 1990; Foulin, 2005). Letter-name knowledge appears to be causally related to early literacy development in three ways:

1) Letter-name knowledge acts as a bridge towards understanding the alphabetic principle, as reflected in children's invented spellings (e.g., KLR for colour);
2) Letter-name knowledge acts as a precursor to more general letter-sound knowledge because many of the individual letter names also represent a constituent sound (e.g., the first phoneme of the letter-name /bi/ is /b/); and
3) Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity particularly when children are exposed to alphabet texts and games that increase an awareness of the relationship between letter names and their sounds in words (e.g., "s" is for snake) (Tunmer et al., 2006).

Piasta and Wagner (2010) conducted a recent meta-analysis of alphabet learning to examine the effects of alphabet instruction on both alphabet knowledge and other emergent literacy outcomes. Most of the 63 studies analysed included multiple instructional components (n = 53). Forty-four of those 53 studies typically included alphabet instruction in combination with phonological training. Whereas, ten studies had a sole focus on alphabet instruction which either targeted: letter-names only (n = 3), letter-sounds only (n = 4), or both letter-names and letter-sounds (n = 3).

Results showed that interventions targeting alphabet knowledge combined with phonological awareness exerted a greater influence in increasing children's familiarity with letter forms, names, corresponding sounds, and subsequent emergent reading skills. In contrast, interventions that primarily focused on alphabet knowledge had a non-significant transfer effect on phonological awareness, emergent reading, or developmental spelling skills. The lack of transfer may be due to a number of possible idiosyncratic factors of individual studies for example, intervention design, duration, and intensity. However, Piasta and Wagner's (2010) meta-analysis infers alphabet knowledge does not readily transfer to decoding

and encoding as beginning readers need to be taught explicitly how to apply their alphabet knowledge in conjunction with phonological awareness to recognise words.

2.10 Development of Alphabet Knowledge

The role alphabet knowledge plays in the process of beginning reading development is well established, however, information on how to effectively impart alphabet knowledge is greatly needed (Piasta & Wagner, 2010). Adams (1990) claims children's ability to rapidly learn the letter-names of the alphabet can be achieved through singing the Alphabet song. This is because the phonological module, the part of the brain which processes the distinct sound elements that consitute language, is highly attuned to patterns of rhyme, rhythm, and pitch which makes songs easier to recite than a monotonous list (Adams, 1990; Shaywitz, 1996).

An alphabet recitation activity that Justice, Chow, Capellini, Flanigan, and Colton (2003) employed in an emergent literacy intervention involved children singing the alphabet song whilst pointing to the letters on their alphabet cards, followed by several alphabet games, such as having the children use their alphabet cards to find the letters in their names. The results indicated a robust growth in the participants' alphabet knowledge after 6 and 12 weeks respectively (Justice et al., 2003).

2.11 The Combination of Phonological Awareness and Alphabet Knowledge

Research shows phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge are key components of emergent literacy and strong predictors of future reading achievement (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998; Nicholson, 2003). Both components have a critical role to play, but individually are insufficient in developing the acquisition of the alphabetic principle. Early attainment of phonological skills and alphabet knowledge are therefore critical at a year 1 level (Juel, 1991).

There is a paucity of research in an Aotearoa context that specifically examines the combination of phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge of year 1 students let alone year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting. However, Nicholson (2003) conducted a five year longitudinal study in New Zealand to investigate the alphabet knowledge, phonemic awareness skills, and receptive vocabulary of 111 children at the beginning of year 1 (mean age = 5.26 years), at the end of year 1 (*n* = 94, mean age = 5.9 years), at the end of year 2 (*n* = 78, mean age = 7.0 years), and at the end of year 5 (*n* = 46, mean age = 9.9 years). Participants were assigned to two different groups according to the decile rating and socio-economic (SES) background of the school they each attended.

At school entry the data illustrates a wide range of scores for both groups. The high-SES group had a stronger receptive vocabulary and achieved higher scores than the lower-SES group in all measures: alphabet knowledge (uppercase and lowercase letters), phonemic awareness, invented spelling, and pseudoword reading. A similar pattern of findings were reported at the end of year 1. Furthermore at the end of year 1, the partial-correlation analysis showed alphabet knowledge was a stronger predictor of the *Burt Word Reading Test* (assesses reading words in isolation) (Gilmore, Croft & Reid, 1981). Whereas, at the end of year 2, the partial-correlation analysis now showed phonemic awareness was the stronger predictor of the *Burt Word Reading Test* (Gilmore et al., 1981) Year 1 and year 2 partial-correlations analysis revealed receptive vocabulary (measured using the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test*) (Dunn & Dunn, 1981) was not significant in predicting reading success.

The children's word recognition, reading comprehension, spelling, and writing progress were assessed until the end of year 5. The study showed that the Aotearoa schools in the study privileged children who entered school with high levels of emergent reading related skills (i.e., alphabet knowledge, phonemic awareness, and phonological recoding), but did not effectively meet the needs of children who presented lower levels of emergent reading related skills on school entry. Nicholson (2003) concludes that alphabet knowledge and phonemic awareness in years 1 and 2 respectively, are strong predictors of future reading achievement.

However, a contrasting view point of what constitutes essential factors to future reading achievement in year 1 has been questioned by a literacy research project conducted in Aotearoa and supported by the Ministry of Education (Phillips, McNaughton, & MacDonald, 2001). The aim of the project was to accelerate reading achievement levels of new school entrant children from minority groups (e.g., children from Māori and Pacific Islands backgrounds) in attempt to reduce the growing disparity between New Zealand children who are successfully learning to read and those who are achieving poorly as is reflected in international reading performance reports since 1991 (Elley, 1992; Mullis et al., 2003, 2007, 2012; Tunmer et al., 2004, 2008, 2013; Wagemaker, 1992).

The intervention involved providing professional development for contributing early childhood education teachers and new entrant primary teachers. This intervention was based on the knowledge that teacher expectations and knowledge are key variables to picking up the pace of year 1 student literacy achievements. The study hypothesized that once a child is at school, teacher expectations are more significant in accelerating reading achievement than the influence of Literate Cultural Capital in year 1 literacy programmes.

Phillips et al. (2001) reported that their findings showed participant's who had low literacy knowledge at school entry made progress in alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness. However, their findings further indicated that their text based reading and writing ability after one year of school was very low. This suggests that the professional development intervention had negative transfer effects to word recognition ability and spelling for year 1 students, as well as posing students at risk of experiencing reading difficulties. Ironically, the inability to decode print leads to substantial and significant differences in word recognition and overall literacy achievement after three and four years of literacy instruction as noted in a later study conducted by the authors (McNaughton, Phillips, & MacDonald, 2003).

Despite the claims of the original study, the Education Policy Response Group at the College of Education at Massey University

(Chapman, et al., 2003) contest the validity of the research findings by pointing out several serious limitations, for example, no data was gathered to show entry characteristics between the intervention and control groups did not lead to systematic differences between children, teachers, and schools, and the absence of a clear control group lowered the level of confidence that any difference in outcomes between the new entrant intervention group, non-intervention group, and baseline groups is due to the intervention rather than chance. Therefore, it is argued the findings of this sudy are not supported by strong nor possible evidence of effectiveness, and are seriously misleading (Chapman et al., 2003; Harker, 2003; Nash, 2003).

A similar pattern of reading achievement for year 1 students was reported in a mixed longitudinal and cross-sectional study conducted by Phillips et al. (2004) in 12 Aotearoa schools. Phillips et al. (2004) examined shifting teachers' beliefs about practices concerning language, literacy, and learning to enable new entrant children to acquire expertise in reading in their first six months at a decile one school. The cross-sectional design involved all 343 participants to form baseline comparions groups across three phases: at the beginning of year 1 (new-entrant intervention group, age 5 years, *n* = 108), after six months at school (non-intervention group, age 5 years, 6 months, *n* = 135), and after one year at school (baseline group, age 6 years, *n* = 100). The three groups were assessed to compare the effects of the intervention results with the baseline comparison group data and non-intervention group data over the first year of school. Assessments included: *Observation* Survey *(concepts about print, letter identification, hearing and recording sounds in words, writing vocabulary, and word recognition)* (Clay, 1993), *Burt Word Reading Test* (Gilmore et al., 1981), *Tell Me* (RETELL; Learning Media, 1998), and the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT)* (Dunn & Dunn, 1997) to measure emergent literacy knowledge and skills.

The intervention design was an intensive professional development course of ten half-day sessions over 20 weeks. The intervention involved 73 teachers drawing on socio-cultural and co-construction views of learning, language, and literacy to inform ways in which teachers can manage the

mismatch between participants' home and school literacy practices to enhance effective literacy progress within the typical four instructional approaches: 1) Instructional (guided) reading; 2) Reading to (shared reading); 3) Re-creative (shared) writing; and 4) Instructional (guided) writing. Phillips et al. (2004) noted these four particular literacy programmes omit to include explicit and systemic decoding skills, rather these skills are left to be initiated by the teacher incidentally during reading or composing text. Therefore, the methodologies underpinning the four approaches to the teaching of literacy in this study is the authors' perception of what constitutes a valid approach to language, literacy, and learning.

The results showed literacy practices and programmes based on socio-cultural and co-constructivist views can aid student's ability to achieve national expected levels for alphabetic and phonological knowledge. However, it is important to note, phonological knowledge measured in Phillips et al.'s (2004) study is defined as the students' ability to hear and record sounds in words using Clay's (1993) *Observation Survey* sub-test, *Hearing and Recording Sounds (H&RS)*. Tunmer et al. (2013) argue that the *Observation Survey* (Clay, 1993) is not an adequate measure of phonological awareness or alphabetic coding skills. A critique of the *Observation Survey* (Clay, 1993) sub-test, *Hearing and Recording Sounds* (H&RS), is that H&RS fails to identify where the participants' phonological knowledge is positioned on the continuum of phonological awareness and the students' phonological processing ability. Consequently, the findings from this study concerning the participants' emergent literacy skills are limited in scope. Although the participants had achieved national expected levels for alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness, it appeared participants were not able to positively transfer this knowledge effectively to recognise words as the risk analysis of *Burt Word Reading Test* (Gilmore et al., 1981), indicated that the degree of experiencing word recognition difficulties for this particular cohort is moderately high. The instructional implication of this study demonstrates that the multiple cues approach dominant in the socio-constructivist view of language and literacy learning is an ineffective approach to word recognition.

A similar pattern of findings was reported in a study that examined literacy practices and language development in the medium of Māori in years 0 to 1 level 1 Māori-medium contexts (McNaughton, MacDonald, Barber, Farry, & Woodard, 2006). The findings from both studies highlight the differences between the deeper features of oral and written language acquisition and further suggests the theory of how one learns to decode is not equivalent to how one acquires oral language (Casinader, 2014; Tunmer et al., 2007). Although these New Zealand Ministry of Education funded research projects have been worthy attempts to address effective literacy practice for Māori students, they have nonetheless invited criticisms because of scientific design flaws and ambitious claims (Nicholson, 2009).

2.12 Shared Reading Approach

Shared Reading is one of the four approaches to reading in years 1 to 8 reading programmes in Aotearoa (Ministry of Education, 2003a, 2006). The Shared Reading approach was designed by Holdaway (1979) based on his investigations of how to develop competence in written English for the influx of culturally and linguistically diverse populations in Aotearoa primary schools of that period. Thus, Holdaway (1979) examined how fluent readers in their first year of school acquired literacy skills in their home environments. Holdaway's (1979) findings indicated that a bedtime story cycle consisting of substantial rich sociolinguistic interactions scaffolded by competent and responsive family members had positive effects on early readers' development of written language and its reciprocal relationship with oral language (see section 2.3). Therefore the shared reading experience was replicated into the Aotearoa classroom context to teach children the reading process (Holdaway, 1982). Systematic and explicit linguistic interactions and deliberate acts of teaching (e.g., immersion, modelling, scaffolding, specific feedback, prompting, explaining, and opportunities to practice) underpins the effectiveness of the Shared Reading approach to exemplify how to become good readers for children to emulate (Cambourne, 1988; Morrow, 2009; Parkes, 2000).

There is a growing body of research, particularly in early childhood settings, that demonstrates positive correlations between the shared reading approach and emergent literacy skills: concepts about print, alphabet knowledge, and phonological awareness (Justice, Pullen, & Pence, 2008; McGinty, Breit-Smith, Fan, Justice, & Kaderavek, 2011; McLachlan & Arrow, 2010; Piasta, Justice, McGinty, & Kaderavek, 2012; Sim, Berthelsen, Walker, Nicholson, & Fielding-Barnsley, 2013; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Yet, little is known about whether a modified shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge can be the vehicle for year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context to develop essential cognitive reading-related skills in order to read with success.

2.13 Efficacy of Emergent Literacy Interventions

The studies reviewed in this section have been chosen according to several criterion:

1) The study was done in English.
2) The study was recent (i.e., no older than 2000).
3) The participants were of a similar age to the children in the current study (i.e., the children had recently entered their first formal year of schooling and had received a minimal amount of formal reading instruction before the intervention).
4) The intervention included explicit teaching of phonological awareness or alphabet knowledge, or a combination of the two.

A summary of each study is provided in Table 2 and a discussion follows.

Table 2. New Zealand Studies Relating to Phonological Awareness and Alphabet Knowledge Interventions

Author/s and Year	Participants	Intervention focus	Findings
Tunmer & Chapman (2002)	• N = 152 • Mean age = 5 years 1 month	• Phonological recoding • Alphabetic principle	Word-based (WB) strategies/code-emphasis approach performed better in reading achievement and reading related skills, as well as having greater reading self-efficacy and academic self-concept than a text-based (TB) approach to word-recognition.
Tunmer, Chapman, & Prochnow (2003)	• N = 143 • Mean age = 5 years 1 month	• Phonological awareness • Rhyme and analogy • Phonics	Significant gains in reading achievement seen during the approximately 40 week systematic phonological-based intervention. Positive effects of the intervention increased in follow up data two years after the intervention.

Ryder, Tunmer, & Greaney (2008)	• N = 24 • Age range = 6 – 7 years	• Phonemic awareness • Phonemically based decoding strategies • Alphabetic coding skills	Struggling readers can make significant progress in phonemic awareness, decoding, context-free word recognition, and reading comprehension skills with intervention. Positive effects of the intervention were maintained for context-free word recognition accuracy and word recognition accuracy in-context skills in follow up data two years after the intervention.
Greaney & Arrow (2012)	<u>Phase 1</u> • N = 26 • Age range = 6 years to 6 years 8 months <u>Phase 2</u> • N = 15 • Mean age = 5 years 4 months	<u>Phase 1</u> • Regular class reading instruction during their first 12-20 months at school <u>Phase 2</u> • Alphabet knowledge • Phonemic awareness • Phonological-recoding based skills for word recognition in-context	Students with low levels of Literate Cultural Capital at school entry can make significant progress in foundational literacy-related skills with intervention. Explicit phonological-based instruction had positive transfer effects to the development of phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge.

A longitudinal study by Tunmer and Chapman (2002) tracked the long-term effects of a whole language approach to teaching reading for new school entrant children in Aotearoa. All 152 participants (mean age 5 years 1 month) were asked what word recognition strategies they employ for unfamiliar words in text. Depending on the participants response to this question, participants were assigned to either a word-based (WB) strategies group or a text-based (TB) strategies group. The WB group consisted of 73 participants and the TB group 48 participants. The participants were initially assessed towards the end of year 1 for phonological processing ability (pseudoword decoding and phoneme segmentation) and contextual faciliation (decoding 80 irregular words in isolation and in-context, context-free word recognition accuracy, reading comprehension, and instructional reading level). Two years later the participants were reassessed on the above measures, and reading self-efficacy.

The findings showed the WB group performed significantly higher on all measures relating to reading achievement, reading-related skills, and academic self-perceptions. The findings further indicate the importance the alphabetic principle has in effective word recognition strategies and later reading achievement.

Tunmer et al. (2003) retrospectively studied the efficacy of a phonological awareness and alphabetic coding intervention on a group of new school entrant children in Aotearoa. Furthermore, they investigated whether a modified literacy programme could reduce inequitable outcomes between Māori and European children. The 143 participants (mean age = 5 years, 1 month) were selected from seven target schools in New Zealand from a range of socio-economic areas. Eighty participants were assigned to an intervention group and compared with the 63 participants from Tunmer and Chapman's (2002) longitudinal study conducted three years earlier in the same seven target schools. The intervention involved professional development for the new entrant teachers and utlised three supplementary teaching materials. The intervention was split into: a phonological awareness programme (i.e., initial and final sounds), a rhyme and analogy programme (i.e., onset and rime, rhyme, initial sounds, and grapheme-phoneme relationships), and a phonics programme (i.e., manipulation of

word segments). Each intervention was intergrated into the year 1 literacy programme by the classroom teacher over 40 weeks. The phonological awareness programme was taught in Term One (10 weeks), the rhyme and analogy programme was taught in Term Two (10 weeks), and the phonics programme was taught in Terms Three and Four (20 weeks). All participants were assessed four times: at the beginning (pre-intervention), middle and end of year 1, and at the end of year 2 (post-intervention). The measures were systematically administered at age appropriate testing points and included: letter identification, phonological awareness (onset-rime segmentation, sound matching, and phoneme segmentation), decoding, orthographic analogies, invented spelling, conventional spelling, reading isolated words, reading level, and reported word identification strategies.

The results showed the phonological awareness and alphabetic coding programme was highly effective in raising the levels of literacy skills of the 80 participants involved in the intervention and this growth was not only maintained but had increased when reassessed at the end of year 2. The results also showed that the intervention had a positive effect in producing equitable outcomes between Māori and European participants. However, the effect of this finding was limited by the small sample size of Māori participants (*n* = 24) in comparison to the sample of European participants (*n* = 110) in Tunmer et al.'s (2003) study. The pattern of progress between Tunmer and Chapman's (2002) longitudinal study and Tunmer et al.'s (2003) retrospective study are parallel.

Ryder et al. (2008) examined the effectiveness of an intervention that focused on explicit instruction in phonemic awareness and phonemically based decoding skills for New Zealand children presenting early reading difficulties. The 24 participants (age range = 6- and 7- years) were selected because of their low context-free word recognition ability. Twelve closely matched pairs were formed. Each pair was randomly assigned to an intervention or control group. For the intervention the 12 participants were divided into four teacher-aide directed small instructional groups of three. In addition to the participants' regular classroom literacy programme, the phonemic awareness and alphabetic coding skills based intervention group

were involved in four 20 to 30 minute withdrawal lessons per week for 24 weeks. The participants were assessed on their emergent literacy knowledge and skills three times: at pre-test (prior to intervention), at post-test (immediately after the 24 week intervention was completed), and post-intervention (two years after the intervention). The participants were tested on five meaures: phonemic awareness (phoneme segmentation, phoneme blending, phoneme deletion, and phoneme substitution), phonological decoding, context-free word recognition accuracy, word recognition accuracy in-context, and reading comprehension. Two years later the participants were reassessed on the context-free and in-context word recognition measures.

Ryder et al.'s (2008) findings showed the intervention group outperformed the control group on all measures at post-test. In addition, as Ryder et al. (2008) had hypothesized, the intervention showed significant effects on improving the phonological awareness skills, decoding ability, and context-free word recognition skills of struggling readers. The findings indicated the positive effects of the intervention were maintained and had positive transfer effects to word recognition accuracy in-context. Furthermore, two year follow-up data showed the participants of the intervention group were within normal range on both measures. This study suggests a phonemically based word level skills and strategies intervention during the early stages of reading acquisition is an effective means of accommodating the needs of differences in Literate Cultural Capital at school entry and improving future reading achievement.

A recent pre-test post-test study conducted by Greaney and Arrow (2012) aimed to investigate the assessment and teaching of phonological-based skills and strategies within a year 1 class in Aotearoa. The study involved two phases: 1) regular classroom support (RCS) (control group), and 2) the intervention. Twenty-six participants (age range = 6 years to 6 years 8 months) who were predominantly Māori and Pasifika and had RCS between 12 to 20 months were assessed once on the following measures: *Observation Survey* (letter name knowledge, concepts about print, sight word recognition, writing vocabulary, and hearing and recording sounds in words) (Clay, 2005); *Burt Word Reading Test* (Gilmore et al., 1981),

phonological ability: detecting rhymes, counting syllables, matching initial sounds, counting phonemes, comparing word lengths, and phoneme-grapheme relationships (Adams et al., 1998a); phoneme segmentation ability (Tunmer et al., 1988); and phonological decoding ability (Richardson & Di Benedetto, 1985). Fifteen participants (mean age = 5 years, 4 months) were involved in the phonological-based intervention and were assessed on the same measures as the control group as well as letter sound knowledge and letter writing ability. The participants in the intervention group were assessed on their emergent literacy knowledge and skills three times: pre-test (prior to intervention), post-intervention (immediately after the 10 week intervention was completed), and post-test (at age 6 years).

The intervention programme consisted of 30 minute semi-structured in-class lessons on a daily basis for four days per week in Term Two (10 weeks) to both the whole class and small groups of participants by the regular classroom teacher. The phonological-based intervention learning tasks included: alphabet knowledge (letter names and sounds), letter writing, phonemic awareness activities (rhyme, syllable counting, phoneme blending, initial phoneme deletion), linking phonemic awareness to spelling, linking phonological-based recoding skills for word identification during context reading and writing. These phonological-based tasks were explicity taught as supplementary tasks to the participants regular literacy programme.

The findings of the pre-test data for the intervention group indicated that they had low levels of important literacy-related knowledge on all measures prior to the intervention. On completion of the ten week programme the post-intervention findings showed greater increases in all measures of the intervention group, particularly in alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness. In addition, the intervention group out-performed the control group on all the *Observation Survey* (Clay, 2005) sub-test measures and phonological-based post-test measures.

Further examination of the post-test results for phonemic awareness ability indicated minor differences between the two groups in the *Hearing and Recording Sounds* sub-test of the *Observation Survey* (Clay, 2005)

measure. However, in the oral phonemic awareness tasks the intervention group showed higher levels of phonemic awareness compared to the control group. These findings suggest that the intervention group's level of phonemic awareness had positive transfer effects to context-free word recognition, word reading in-context, and decoding pseudowords in comparison to the control group. Nonetheless, the difference of results between the two phonemic awareness measures signals appropriate (oral) phonemic measures is necessary to map the degree of phonemic awareness variability and identify patterns of strengths and weakeness that is needed to plan appropriate first tier (classroom level) intervention tasks for students to benefit from, rather than inadequate phonemic awareness measures that risk weakenesses being undetected.

Greaney and Arrow (2012) argue relevant phonological-based assessments are essential to glean an in-depth understanding of year 1 students phonological awareness to design effective literacy instruction. In support of relevant and appropriate robust phonological assessment tools Harris's (2009a) finding concurs phonological-based assessment tools that measure the bilingual resource Māori students bring to their formal learning is needed to scaffold Māori-English bilinguals achievement in English reading acquisition.

The causal relationships of teacher effect and intervention effect of Greaney and Arrow's (2012) study are difficult to establish with certainty for several reasons. Firstly, the authors note because of the age variation of the intervention group, the final post-test assessment time point (at age 6 years) varied for each participant up to six months after the conclusion of the intervention, which during this time many of the participants had up to three different teachers post-intervention. Secondly, there was no data to show entry characteristics between the intervention and control groups did not lead to systematic differences post-test. Thirdly, the small sample size of the control group (n = 26) compared with the intervention group (n = 15) lowers the level of confidence that any difference in outcomes between the two groups is due to the intervention rather than chance, which draws attention to the fact that the findings are not supported by meaningful

evidence of effectiveness as no robust statistical analysis tests were reported to show statistical significance or effect size of the results.

2.13.1 Findings of meta-analysis.

The design of most research studies include possible implications that have the potential to exert influence on the effect size. Whereas, a meta-analysis study considers the weight of evidence from synthesising a large number of studies on a specific topic (e.g., phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge) to assess whether an effect exists and what significance the effect has (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Nicholson, 2005).

The National Reading Panel (NRP) was convened in 1997 by the director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) in consultation with the Secretary of Education in the United States, and the NRP Alphabetics sub-group conducted a meta-analysis of 52 studies to determine effective research-based approaches to teaching children to read (Ehri et al., 2001). NRP found explicit instruction in phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge are both strong predictors of future reading success and produced greater reading outcomes in year 1 classrooms (NRP, 2000; Ehri et al., 2001). This finding is supported by later research (Foorman et al., 2003; Foulin, 2005; Nicholson, 2003).

Snow et al. (1998) highlight phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge are prerequisites to acquiring the alphabetic principle. Moats (2010) argues that, understanding the alphabetic principle is critical for early reading success. The importance of phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge on reading achievement is also supported in the National Early Literacy Panel (NELP) meta-analysis findings of approximately 500 studies (NELP, 2008).

2.13.2 Summary.

All the interventions reviewed that included explicit teaching of phonological awareness or alphabet knowledge, or a combination of the two, had positive effects on emergent reading skills.

Many agree there is a limited pool of research that investigates what works best for supporting year 1 Māori students English reading achievements in both English-medium and Māori-medium contexts (Cath, 2005; Nicholson, 2005; May et al., 2004). However, none of the studies reviewed were conducted within a year 1 level 2 Māori-medium context. Furthermore, there is much debate of who defines what consititues a valid research design to demonstrate significant benefits for Māori readers. Noticeably a Kaupapa Māori methodological framework that defines the parameters of research design, process, and approaches is absent from many of these studies, and so is the voice of Māori children and their families in regards to legitimising their emergent language and literacy experiences.

Therefore, there is a need for a study designed for, by, and with Māori to examine the potential effects of a shared reading intervention on the English reading skills of year 1 level 2 Māori-medium students that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge, both which have been identified as powerful predictors of reading acquisition, to accrue benefits to Māori readers and to preclude anyone involved in the research from being disadvantaged.

2.14 Objectives for Research

The argument presented in this thesis is that phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge are two key ingredients to reading acquisition and future reading achievement. A review of the relevant literature predicts a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge will have a positive effect on the reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context.

Based on the literature reviewed in this chapter, the research questions for this study are:

1. What literacy and language experiences have shaped the Literate Cultural Capital of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?

2. What is the range of English reading skills in a sample of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?

3. Can a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge have a positive effect on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?

Details of the methodology that guided this investigation will now be described in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to describe the Literate Cultural Capital, the range of English reading skills, and to evaluate the effects of a shared reading intervention on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting situated within an English-medium educational context. This chapter details the methodological framework, setting, procedures, participants, data collection, and intervention design. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Selecting the most appropriate framework to guide a particular study requires careful consideration of the participants, the setting and the research questions (Creswell, 2009; Drew, Hardman, & Hosp, 2008). There are many methods to approach a research question and to systematically gather and interpret data (Cohen et al., 2011; Duke & Martin, 2011; Guthrie, 2010). The key principles underpinning the methodological approach and the research methods employed for this study are outlined below.

3.2 Kaupapa Māori Research Framework

The validity and ethics of research involving Māori communities has been a subject of debate over the past two decades (Hudson & Ahuriri-Driscoll, 2005). The effect for Māori communities has been a deep-rooted cynicism about "the ways in which knowledge about indigenous peoples was collected, classified and then represented in various ways back to the West, and then, through the eyes of the West, back to those who have been colonized" (L. Smith, 2012, p. 1). As noted by Merata Mita (1989), "we have history of people putting Māori under a microscope in the same way a scientist looks at an insect. The ones doing the looking are giving themselves the power to define" (p. 30). These processes have consequently misrepresented Māori cultural practices, experiences, and meanings that are now part of New Zealand's everyday myths believed by Māori and non-Māori alike (Bishop, 1999). To ensure the rights and values of Māori communities *is* recognized, respected and accurately represented

in the research process, this study is grounded in culturally responsive principles embedded in Kaupapa Māori Research (KMR) and the Initiation, Benefits, Representation, Legitimation and Accountability (IBRLA) model.

The objective of this study is to describe the Literate Cultural Capital, the range of English reading skills, and to evaluate the effects of a shared reading intervention on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting so that Māori students can access their literacy potential and experience reading success and its benefits from the outset of their formal learning. Therefore a KMR framework was employed to guide this study. KMR is a structural intervention which reclaims space for cultural practice that is explicitly 'by Māori, for Māori' while satisfying the rigour of research (Irwin, 1994; Pihama & Daniels, 2007; G. Smith, 1997; L. Smith, 2012). The strength of this approach is that it empowers Māori to define the directions for the priorities, policies, and practices of research for, by and with Māori, with the eventual outcomes being of direct benefit to Māori whānau (families), hapū (sub-tribe), and iwi (affiliated tribal group) (L. Smith, 2012).

KMR rejects deficit theorising and pathologising terms persisting in New Zealand's current educational discourses as a means of explaining and setting expectations of Māori students' education achievement levels (Bishop, 2008). For example, Harris (2009b) stated the use of terms commonly used in research relating to Māori children educational achievement such as, "*'gap', 'underachievement', 'disparity'* and *'at risk'* signal perceived deficiencies" (p. 12).

Harris (2008, 2009a) has reviewed literacy-related research performed in Aotearoa. As a result, Harris (2008, 2009a) has interpreted the way the authors of the studies she reviewed have constructed Māori children as deficit learners based on the authors' Western perception of Māori children lacking some essential element. For example, lacking Literate Cultural Capital at school entry because they come from low-socio-economic and culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Berryman and Bishop (2011) argue that, "if we see students as having deficiencies, then our practices will address deficiencies" (pp. 250-251). KMR challenges the notion of such deficit expectations. Additionally, KMR challenges the

parameters defined by a colonial lens, which tend to ignore the fact that deeply-embedded economic and power relations are major contributing factors to the state of educational outcomes in Aotearoa (G. Smith, 1997).

G. Smith (2003), who has written extensively about Kaupapa Māori initiatives in an educational context, draws from this framework a set of transformative elements. They comprise six key tenets, derived from traditional Māori principles, which are fundamental to guiding culturally safe and responsive research practices (Berryman, SooHoo, & Nevin, 2013; L. Smith, 2012). These concepts are:

- Tino Rangatiratanga – The principle of self-determination;
- Taonga Tuku Iho – The principle of cultural aspiration;
- Ako Māori – The principle of culturally preferred pedagogy;
- Kia piki ake i ngā raruraru o te kāinga – The principle of socio-economic mediation;
- Whānau – The principle of extended family structures; and
- Kaupapa – The principle of collective vision/philosophy

(G. Smith, 2003, pp. 8-11)

These terms are used widely in the general lexicon of KMR discourse. Many of these terms have developed a wide range of literal and metaphoric meanings (Keegan, 2012). In the following sections I have attempted to demonstrate how these specialised concepts are critically woven into the fabric of this study.

Tino rangatiratanga

Rangatiratanga means chiefly control, or self-determination to seek meaningful control over one's destiny (Bishop, 2008). This concept is fundamental to Kaupapa Māori methodology and central to guiding the aspirations of this study for year 1 Māori children to access their literacy

potential and enjoy reading success and its benefits in a level 2 Māori-medium setting.

Taonga tuku iho

This means 'the treasures handed down (from the ancestors)', or, the on-going transmission of cultural practices, aspirations and values. Taonga tuku iho provides a set of principles by which to live our lives and that guide relationships and interaction patterns (Bishop, 2008). This principle manifests in the study in the adoption of cultural values, such as manaakitanga (caring for participants), kaitiakitanga (mentorship), and mana motuhake (respect for the individual participants), as well as passing on the essential cognitive reading-related skills and strategies to the next generation within a shared reading intervention. Within the principle of taonga tuku iho the participants' cultural identities and socio-economic realities are embraced and validated. In other words, the participants can be themselves.

Ako Māori

Ako means to learn as well as to teach (Pere, 1994). Metge (1984) affirms that the acquisition of knowledge and the processing of and imparting of knowledge are positioned simultaneously, emphasizing the reciprocal nature of learning. The shared reading intervention in this study created a context for teaching-learning practice where the researcher and participants could enter into learning conversations based on their reading skills in a reciprocal manner. This principle values the process of knowledge-in-action for the purposes of teaching-learning interactions, appropriate to Māori pedagogy (Applebee, 1996; Bishop, 2008).

Kia piki ake i ngā rarurau o te kāinga

This concept translates as rising above or overcoming problems at home or in the community (Keegan, 2012). The concept is manifested in the present study because for various reasons, whānau have consciously enrolled their child in this level 2 Māori-medium context and granted permission for their child to participate in this study. The strength of this principle reaches into each participant's home and mediates the importance of whānau participation in the intervention and semi-structured interviews (Bishop & Glynn, 2000). This principle recognises whānau have agency to make positive changes in their child's language and literacy achievements with a domino effect into the community (Bishop, 2008).

Whānau

Whānau means family, and "subsumes other related concepts including: whanaunga (relatives), whanaungatanga (relationships), whakawhanaungatanga (the process of establishing and maintaining relationships), and whakapapa (literally, the means of establishing relationships)" (Bishop, 2008, p. 443). Whānau-of-interest (collaborative relationships directly involved in the orchestration of the present study) is another related term to whānau and research. Within a Kaupapa Māori framework, relationships matter and continue beyond the conclusion of the study (L. Smith, 2012).

In the context of this study, whānau refers to the extended family structures and networks; a collective group of people (e.g., Māori community) working collaboratively towards a common aim of improving literacy acquisition practices for year 1 Māori students. A significant strength of this concept is the wairua (spiritual) and ngākau (emotional) elements of connectedness and engagement within the Māori community (i.e., participants, parents/caregivers and key people of the school) which is at the heart of this research.

Whanaungatanga: This concept mediates the ethical complexities of a Māori researcher working within a Māori context, also termed as the

'insider researcher' approach (L. Smith, 2012). L. Smith (2012) states that "insider research has to be as ethical and respectful, as reflexive and critical, as outsider research. It needs to be humble because the researcher belongs to the community as a member with a different set of roles and relationships, status and position" (p. 140). I have many strong connections to the school in which this study was conducted (the description of these connections has been purposefully omitted from this thesis to respect the confidentiality of this Māori community). Therefore, the virtues of manaakitanga and tūtohutanga (sensitivity) are paramount in managing the relationships inside and outside the research.

Whakawhanaungatanga: Relationships were established with whānau and maintained throughout the data collection process, both during and after the intervention. My relationships with the community/whānau involved are ongoing.

Whānau-of-interest: Continuing with the metaphoric sense of whānau, this concept relates to collaboration with both my non-Māori supervisors and Māori elders in this study. Glynn (2013) asserts that collaborative participation within this notion concerns "reclaiming and restoring traditional Māori ways of working with others to generate new meanings and new understandings, but with control and decision-making processes remaining squarely within a Māori worldview" (p. 47). The value of the kaitiakitanga (mentoring) resulting from these relationships and interaction patterns is grounded in a Māori perspective and maximises the potential for collective benefits for Māori (Berryman, 2013; Smith, 2012).

Kaupapa

In a linguistic study of 'Kaupapa', the key term embedded in KMR, Keegan (2012) highlights its diverse meanings, including 'a plan or framework for consideration'. Equally, Pihama (2010) states that, "the multiple layers of meaning within te reo Māori means that the term 'Kaupapa' has many possibilities" (p. 6). Keegan (2012) suggests that determining the intended meaning of 'kaupapa' as employed in the context of a particular study is essential to achieving a shared understanding for and with the

intended audience. For the purposes of this study, the concept Kaupapa is defined as a collective vision and philosophy that is grounded in Māori knowledge, and which provides impetus and direction to the multi-dimensional shapes of struggle Māori are engaged in within the dominant educational discourse in society (Bishop & Glynn, 1999; Pihama, 2010, Pihama, Cram, & Walker, 2002; G. Smith, 1997; 2003; personal communication, July 3, 2013; L. Smith, 2012).

KMR is the main framework that guides this study, and is augmented by the IBRLA model as a means of mediating the intersection of power relations between Māori and mainstream elements.

3.3 IBRLA Model

Bishop (1996) identifies five key issues of power that Kaupapa Māori research should address namely: Initiation, Benefits, Representation, Legitimacy and Accountability (see Table 3). The IBRLA model evaluates power sharing relationships by reflecting essential critical questions for establishing, conducting and interpreting research (Bishop & Glynn, 1999). Bishop (1995) asserts that the objectives of this model align with the dual purposes of Kaupapa Māori education which is to, “redevelop an education system rooted within Māori aspirations, preferences and practices and to challenge the mainstream education system” (p. 58). How these considerations have been satisfied in this study are summarised in Table 3 and will now be described.

Table 3. IBRLA Framework to Establish, Maintain and Evaluate Power-Relationships in this Study (Bishop, 1996)

Component		Ethical Considerations to reflect upon	Expectations
I	*Initiation*	• Who will initiate the research and how will Māori be involved? • What were the goals of the research? • Who set the goals? • Is the programme towards subtractive bilingualism (assimilation) or towards additive bilingualism? • Who decides on the methods and procedures for this research?	• Māori will lead and initiate the research interactions. • Participants have the right to give informed consent. • Participants' have the right to decline and withdraw.
B	*Benefits*	• Who will benefit from the research? • Will there be any benefits for Māori? • If so, what will be the benefits for Māori?	• The goal of the research is to accrue benefits to Māori.
R	*Representation*	• Whose interests, perspectives, needs, concerns and aspirations are represented in and driving the research? • Whose voice is heard in designing, delivering and evaluating the programme? • How will Māori perspectives and aspirations be represented in the research?	• Māori perspectives and aspirations will be accurately represented in the research findings (use of information).
L	*Legitimation*	• How will Māori perspectives and aspirations be legitimated? • Who is going to evaluate the effects of the intervention? • What happens to the results? • Who defines what is accurate and valid? • Who theorises the findings? • Who interprets their significance?	• The validity and legitimacy of the research findings will be determined by Māori.
A	*Accountability*	• Who is the researcher accountable to? • How will the research data be stored and shared? • Who is to have access to this data? • Who has ownership of the research, language and cultural knowledge being shared?	• The research findings will be transparent, pono (honest) and accessible to Māori • Arrangements for participants to receive information.

Initiation

Bishop (2005) asserts that the concept of initiation concerns "how the research process begins and whose concerns, interests and methods of approach determine/define the outcomes" (p. 112). Initially this study was initiated by engaging in a Māori-self-analysis of who I am. Understanding of my identity reflects my literacy and language experiences which have emerged from being positioned as a 'learner', 'mother', 'teacher', and belonging to a whānau. Emerging from these positions and experiences is a common element of literacy injustice that continues to be endured for a vast majority of Māori. Conversations with whānau indirectly and directly involved with the setting of this study, and whānau-of-interest showed that they also shared similar views. Simply put, literacy injustice is totally unacceptable. Consequently, I accepted the challenge to engage in transformative praxis in attempt to rectify this injustice and provide an intervention that enables Māori students to achieve literacy success. Therefore, the determination to make a distinctive difference for Māori students to advance their literacy knowledge and skills initiated this study.

Benefits

The fundamental aim of this concept is to be critically aware of who stands to benefit (Bishop, 2005). The goal of this study is to accrue benefits to Māori and to preclude anyone being disadvantaged. There are a number of Māori groups and individuals who 'benefited' in a variety of ways from this study, including the participants, the researcher's whānau, hapū, iwi, and University. Notwithstanding the complex issue of benefits in an intervention study in which there is a treatment control group who does not receive the intervention, there is always the question, *is it ethical to deny the intervention to the treatment control group?* However, the direct benefits, if any at the time, were not known until after the post-data collection period.

Representation

This concept aims to ensure Māori knowledge, cultural practices, language, interests, perspectives, needs, concerns, and aspirations are legitimately represented in and driving the study (Bishop & Glynn, 1999). In the present study representation was met by returning interview transcripts to the participants for their confirmation of the representation of their ideas. Further, kanohi ki te kanohi 'face to face' negotiation took place to ensure their views were accurately represented. Quantitative data was critically evaluated and responsive to the interests of the whānau of this study, and of Māori in general, as well as to the interests of non-Māori populations. The intention of this study is to ensure that Māori 'have a voice', that they have a sense of autonomy over issues that are of concern to them.

Legitimation

Hill (2010) argues that, "this concept attempts to challenge the ideology of cultural superiority that has pervaded much previous research involving Māori, to ensure power-sharing processes are employed, and that Māori epistemologies are legitimized" (p. 108). In this present study, collaborative and negotiated discussions of the findings as they appeared were sought between the researcher, key people of the school, whānau-of-interest, and whānau, to ensure an accurate and valid understanding of the research data. KMR embraces and validates those Māori perspectives.

Accountability

Imperative to the notion of 'by Māori, for Māori' is the issue of Māori having control over the entire research process: that is, the procedures, the evaluations, the text constructions and ways of distributing new knowledge are determined by Māori. From this perspective, the researcher is accountable to the participants, the Māori community, and the professional research community (Hill, 2010).

In this study, I honored the fact that these participants' were withdrawn from their formal education for a period of time to participate in this study. Essentially, within a sharing of power between the classroom teacher, associate principal, principal, and researcher, I negotiated a final report of each participant's emergent literacy knowledge, skills, and learning during the study, as part of my accountability back to each participant and their whānau. This process draws attention to the intent of kaua e takahia te mana o te tangata (do not trample on the mana or dignity of a person) (L. Smith, 2005), and honors and respects the mana of the school, the classroom teacher and the participants' achievements. The reports were issued to participant's parents/caregivers upon completion of the semi-structured interviews. Any remaining reports were posted to participants' parents/caregivers homes. Furthermore, communication between the key people of the school, whānau-of-interest, iwi, and the researcher was maintained at all times to honour my accountability within this study.

After the completion of this thesis, arrangements will be made for a summary report to the contributing primary school community. A digital copy of this thesis will be lodged permanently with the University of Waikato library.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was sought from The University of Waikato Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee. Approval was granted on 5 April 2012 (see Appendix A).

The use of KMR and IBRLA meant many ethical considerations were addressed and have been discussed above (i.e., cultural and social considerations, conflicts of interest, arrangements to receive information, access to participants, informed consent, and participants' right to decline and to withdraw). These ethical considerations are aligned in Table 3 alongside Bishop's (1996) framework presented earlier in this chapter and also addressed in the following ways.

To assure confidentiality, all participants, parents and caregivers, class teacher, and school will remain anonymous in all writing about the research. Pseudonyms P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, and P8 are used for each participant, Parent 1, Parent 2, Parent 3, and Parent 5 are used for each parent/caregiver interviewed, and the school is referred to as Kura A. All research materials and notes concerning this research are stored in a locked cupboard and I have sole access to this information.

With regard to potential harm to participants, written permission from the school Board of Trustees, principal, associate principal of the level 2 partial-immersion unit, class teacher of the participants, and informed consent from the participants' parents/caregivers allowed all parties the right to choose for themselves whether it would be in the best interest of the participants to be involved in the study (see Appendix B).

Concerning the procedures for resolution disputes, in the information letter (see Appendix B), the names and contact details of my supervisors were listed and any potential complaints or issues could be passed to either of these contact points for appropriate resolution.

3.5 Setting

The target population consisted of year 1 students enrolled in a level 2 Māori-medium setting situated within an English-medium contributing state primary school context in Aotearoa. A database of New Zealand schools identified a school, referred to as Kura A throughout this thesis, that met this criterion.

The data collection and interviews for this study took place within Kura A. The school is a large, suburban, decile 5 primary school, catering for students in years 1 to 6, and offering Māori-medium education (at a partial-immersion level of 51-80%) for children from years 1 to 6. The roll has 617 students, 37% of whom identify as Māori, 9% Pacific, 29% European, and 25% of other ethnic groups. The overall student population is culturally diverse with students of over 50 nationalities attending the school.

A component of Kura A is the level 2 (51-80%) partial-immersion unit which comprises three composite classes; a junior school class catering for years 1 and 2 students, a middle school class catering for years 3 and 4 students, and a senior school class catering for years 5 and 6 students. Under the leadership of an associate principal, each partial-immersion class is staffed by a full-time, fully registered classroom teacher, and a part-time kaiāwhina (learning assistant). Two of the three teachers are fluent in Māori and English, and one teacher's level of proficiency in te reo Māori is developing. The primary purpose of the kaiāwhina role is to support the development of te reo Māori in the classroom. All three classes work solely from *The New Zealand Curriculum: For English-medium teaching and learning in years 1-13* document (Ministry of Education, 2007).

Key features of the partial-immersion unit include all three classes starting the day together as a whānau, for karakia (prayer), himene (hymns), waiata (songs), and pānui (notices). This process is led by a tuakana (older) student. The three classes lead pōwhiri within the school as the need arises, to welcome new visitors and partial-immersion students to the school. They also support their local community in leading significant pōwhiri. The partial-immersion unit meets once a week for kapa haka (Māori cultural performance). The essential curriculum learning areas are planned for independently by each class teacher and within their identified mainstream syndicates.

3.6 Process of Access to Participants

Kanohi kitea was the initial point of access to participants, which involved presenting myself and the idea of the research to the community before sending out consent letters (L. Smith, 2005, 2012). Brief kanohi ki te kanohi discussions of the research intentions was shared separately with Kura A's principal, associate principal and year 1 teacher in the level 2 partial-immersion unit (referred to as key people of the school throughout this thesis). Each was then given an introductory letter that provided details of the research project and a consent form to accept partnership in the study

(see Appendix B). On receipt of the approved consent, the teacher identified all the year 1 students who could be potential participants.

3.7 Participants' Selection Process

The following criteria were applied for selection of participants:

They were children:

1. enrolled as year 1 students, and
2. enrolled in a level 2 Māori-medium education setting situated within an English-medium primary school context.

Eight students met these criteria. Their parents were approached for consent (see Appendix B) and this was given. I offered each participant's parents/caregivers the opportunity to email, phone or informally meet with me to discuss the contents of my research and to have any queries clarified. This offer was not taken up.

Although parents/caregivers of all eight potential participants agreed to their child participating in the study, it was deemed important to respect the individual participants by seeking their agreement. To help each participant make their decision in an informed manner, details of the research were provided in age-appropriate language (see Appendix B). Voluntary participation and the freedom to withdraw at any stage can be difficult for year 1 students to grasp. After the initial explanation, therefore, I sought the consent of the participants on an on-going basis.

Participants

At the time of administering the pre-assessment measures the eight participants' ages ranged from 5 years 0 months through to 6 years 7 months. Three participants were male and five were female. All participants identified as New Zealand Māori. Two participants also identified as Samoan. The diverse language base the participants brought to their first

year of formal primary school learning came from the following language groups as presented in Table 4, which are modified from the five language groups discussed by Rau (2005):

1. Children for whom Māori is their first language but have some oral competency in the English language,
2. Children for whom English is their first language but also have some oral competency in the Māori language, and
3. Children for whom English is their first language and only language and who will begin their Māori language learning at school.

Most of the participants had previously attended one of the diverse range of Aotearoa's chartered and licensed Early Childhood Education (ECE) contexts including; te kōhanga reo, early childhood centre or kindergarten as presented in Table 4.

In addition to the eight participants, four parents/caregivers participated in a semi-structured interview with me. One parent/caregiver was male and three were female. All parent/caregiver participants identified as New Zealand Māori. One parent/caregiver participant also identified as Cook Island Māori and One parent/caregiver participant also identified as Samoan. All four parents idenitified as being L1 speakers of English and second language learners of Māori.

Table 4. Participant's Details

Participant	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Language		ECE[a] Background
				Group*	Home	
P1	5.11	M	Māori/ Samoan	2	English/ Māori/ Samoan/ Tongan	Childcare centre[b]
P2	5.03	F	Māori	2	English/Māori	Childcare centre[b]
P3	5.08	F	Māori/ Samoan	2	English/Māori Samoan	Te kōhanga reo and Kindergarten[b]
P4	5.11	F	Māori	2	English/Māori	Childcare centre[b]
P5	5.05	F	Māori	2	English/Māori	Childcare centre[b]
P6	5.07	M	Māori	3	English	Unknown
P7	5.08	F	Māori	2	English/Māori	Te kōhanga reo
P8	6.09	M	Māori	1	Māori/English	Te kōhanga reo

Note. P = participant.

* Language Group refers to the three modified patterns of language used in the participant's homes as discussed by Rau (2005);

1. Children for whom Māori is their first language but have some oral competency in the English language,
2. Children for whom English is their first language but also have some oral competency in the Māori language, and
3. Children for whom English is their first language and only language and who will begin their Māori language learning at school.

[a] All ECE settings are licensed and guided by *Te Whāriki: He Whāriki Mātauranga mō ngā Mokopuna o Aotearoa: Early Childhood Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 1996).

[b] English was the predominant medium used in these settings, with minimal exposure to te reo Māori. For example, waiata (songs), phrases and commands, and kai karakia (blessing of food).

3.8 Overview of Research Design and Purpose of Study

The research design used in this present study takes into account the complexity of the topic, the context, and relationships. An overview of how the research design will be presented is illustrated in the diagram below (see Figure 7). The methods employed to systematically gather and interpret data will now be discussed in the following sections.

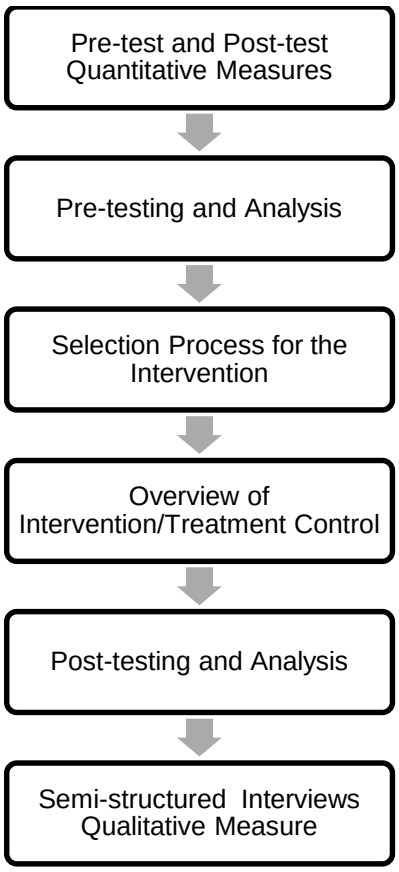

Figure 7. Overview of research design.

Mixed Methods

Mixed methods are an appropriate means of investigating the context and complexity of social phenomena. When used in isolation both quantitative and qualitative methods are limited in scope, lacking the capacity to adequately reflect inclusiveness, cultural diversity, and epistemological pluralism (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). They can overlook the significance of the diverse ways people come to know about the transmission and production of knowledge, and what constitutes as meaningful knowledge in their worlds (Berryman et al., 2013; Biermann, 2011). A mixed methods approach using both quantitative and qualitative methods intentionally legitimizes and respects multiple ways of knowing and valuing, that catalyzes broader, deeper and inclusive understandings of complex social and human phenomena (Greene, 2007, 2012). Importantly for the purposes of this study, mixed methods seek to enhance social justice

and uncover inequities in access to education (Mertens, 2013), with specific regard to Māori experiencing successful educational outcomes in reading.

Quantitative methods offer essential tools for analyzing trends and, in particular, disparities in areas such as education initiatives for Māori. Quantitative analyses are used to guide policy and plan strategies in the education sector, and to monitor the impact of government policies on the education of Māori and non-Māori (Chamberlain, 2008). It is important to note, however, that any tools and measures used in analysis need to be critically examined to ensure that they are as responsive to the interests of indigenous peoples and minority ethnic groups as they are to the interests of the numerically dominant population/s. When employed critically, quantitative methods can work cooperatively within a Kaupapa Māori research framework, to facilitate Māori self-determination in education research (Robson, Purdie, Cram, & Simmonds, 2007).

Qualitative methods are often used for the study of social phenomena and give a voice to the perspectives and perceptions of its participants in context. Qualitative research method encompasses a wide range of methods including observations and semi-structured interviews (Muijs, 2004).

The aim of this study is to describe the Literate Cultural Capital, the range of English reading skills, and to examine the effects of a shared reading intervention on the reading skills of Year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium educational context. An experimental pre-test and post-test treatment control group design was chosen to for this study to test the hypothesis that year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting can benefit from an intervention that promotes phonological-recoding processing skills and alphabet knowledge. Eight year 1 students were closely matched with a pair, resulting in four matched pairs that were then randomly assigned to an intervention or treatment control group. The purpose of this design was to collect empirical data to assess the effects of the intervention and allow outcomes of the intervention and treatment control groups to be compared. Pre-test and post-test measures used in

this study will now be discussed followed by the group selection process, the intervention, post-testing and analysis, and semi-structured interviews.

3.9 Pre-test and Post-test Quantitative Measures

Pressley, Graham, and Harris (2006) claim that studies which include diverse measures to assess the impact of an intervention, including its impact on how readers process text and illuminate how the intervention works are of significant value. Therefore, measures of receptive vocabulary, letter identification, decoding, phonological sensitivity (as measured by level of phonemic awareness), context-free and in-context word recognition accuracy ability, reading comprehension, and reading attitude were employed. The measures selected were those that measured the value of emergent literacy skills. The majority of measures employed for this study are not normed for Aotearoa or level 2 Māori-medium education (Rau, 2008), nevertheless, they were selected because of their widespread usage in similar studies, their reliability and the fact they have been shown to be purposeful (Dickinson & Tabors, 2001; Nicholson, 2005; Ryder, Tunmer, & Greaney, 2007; Tagoilelagi-LeotaGlynn, McNaughton, MacDonald, & Farry, 2005). Details of these eight measures are summarized in Table 5. They are now described in the order in which they were administered during both pre- and post- intervention unless otherwise stated.

Table 5. Assessment Measures

Measure	Reading Skill	Maximum Score
Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test	Receptive Vocabulary	
Letter Identification	Letter-name identification total	54
	Upper case	26
	Lower case	26
	Letter-sound identification total	54
	Upper case	26
	Lower case	26
Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skill	Pseudoword Decoding total	50
	List A	20
	CVC words	
	List B	20
	Words with vowel variations, digraphs	
	and blends	
	List C	10
	Multi-syllable words	
Gough-Kastler-Roper Phonemic Awareness	Phonemic awareness total	42
	Phonemic blending	7
	Deletion of initial phoneme	7
	Deletion of final phoneme	7
	Phoneme segmentation	7
	Substitution of initial phoneme	7
	Substitution of final phoneme	7
Invented Spelling	Phonetically correct spelling total	72
	Conventionally correct spelling total	18
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability[1]	Word recognition accuracy in-context	100
	Reading comprehension	44
Burt Word Reading Test	Context-free word recognition accuracy	110
Reading Attitude and Reader Profile	Attitude towards reading	

Note. The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1-8 (Ministry of Education, 2009) and The Literacy Learning Progressions: Meeting the Reading and Writing Demands of the Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2010) formally begin after one year at school. [1]*The Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (1999) fluency in-context component was not a focus of this study *as fluency levels for each participant was not at an age* appropriate text level.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT)

Receptive vocabulary was measured using the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT)* (Dunn & Dunn, 2007). In this test each participant is presented with a series of four colorful pictures. The administrator says a word, for example '*sleeping',* and the participant needs to point to the picture that best illustrates the word. *PPVT* (Dunn & Dunn, 2007) was employed because research shows a relationship between oral vocabulary and phonological awareness (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2003). Because vocabulary was not explicitly taught in the intervention or control groups this measure was not administered again in the post-testing. The information collated served as baseline data, rather than data to show growth from one period of time to another. The split-half internal reliability estimates for this measure ranges from .89 to .97 for the age groups (Dunn & Dunn, 2007).

Letter Identification

Clay's (2005) letter identification task was modified to assess each participant's alphabet knowledge (split into upper-case and lower-case letter-naming, and upper-case and lower-case letter-sounds) because alphabet knowledge is one of the strongest predictors of reading acquisition (Nicholson, 2002b). The data gathered gives an indication of the participant's ability to distinguish the identity (i.e., name and sound) of the letters in the English alphabet.

Upper-case and lower-case letter naming: Participants were presented with 26 upper-case and 28 lower-case letter forms of the English alphabet in random order, two of which lower-case letters appeared in varying fonts for letters *a* and *g*. The administrator masks the letters and reveals the letters line by line so the participants can focus on each line separately. The participants were asked to respond to the letter by identifying the letter name. Scoring is based on the number of items identified correctly by name. The maximum possible score is 54.

Upper-case and lower-case letter sounds: Administration procedures replicated the upper-case and lower-case letter naming measure, the sole difference being participants were asked to respond to the letter by

identifying the sound the letter makes. Scoring is based on the number of items identified correctly by sound. The maximum possible score is 54.

The letter identification task has an internal consistency of Cronbach's α = .95 and split half reliability of α = .97 (Clay, 2005).

Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills

Decoding ability was measured using the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975). The reason for including this measure was, "many researchers believe that an especially good measure of decoding ability is pseudoword reading – that is, being able to read letter combinations that have structural characteristics of real words but are not real words" (Pressley, 2006, p. 170). This measure assesses each participant's knowledge of letter-sound relationships and syllabification.

Fifty pseudowords are presented to the participants who are asked to read aloud the, "funny sounding names of children who live in Mars". The three lists of pseudowords were presented in order of increasing difficulty. The first 20 items presented in List A are simple consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) patterns (e.g., *buf*, *cos,* and *dit*). The next 20 items in List B are more complex single syllable pseudowords that use vowel variations, digraphs and blends (e.g., *fute, cho, thade,* and *fler*). The last 10 items in List C have multi-syllable words (e.g., *cosnuv, prefute,* and *vomazful*) (Juel, 1988). Two practice items with corrective feedback were given followed by 50 test items with no corrective feedback. The administrator masks the list of words and reveals one word at a time for the participant to read aloud. Testing continues until ten successive words are read incorrectly or not attempted. The administrator records all attempts but scores only correct responses based on the number of items pronounced correctly. The test reliability (Cronbach's alpha) is .96 for first grade (Griffith & Klesius, 1990; Juel, 1993; Juel, Griffith, & Gough, 1986).

Gough-Kastler-Roper Phonemic Awareness Test

The *Gough-Kastler-Roper (GKR) Phonemic Awareness Test* was developed by Roper (1984) at The University of Texas in Austin. Specifically designed for children (Nicholson, 2005), this oral test consists of six subtests, each measuring the participant's ability to manipulate phonemes by blending, deleting, segmenting, and substituting sounds. Each subset is presented in order of increasing difficulty from simple to complex phonemic tasks. Each subtest consists of seven items, giving a maximum score of 42 (Roper, 1984).

Phoneme blending subtest requires the participant to repeat a word that is presented as isolated sounds by the administrator (e.g., "say /k/ /æ/ /t/"). The administrator then asks the participant the question, "What word is /k/ /æ/ /t/?" The participant is required to blend the sounds together to produce the word, /kæt/.

Deletion of first phoneme subtest requires the participant to repeat a real word that was presented orally by the administrator (e.g., "say /kæt/"), followed by a request to say the word without the initial phoneme (e.g., "now say /kæt/ without the /k/", answer = /æt/).

Deletion of last phoneme subtest requires the participant to repeat a real word that is presented orally by the administrator (e.g., "say /kæt/"), followed by a request to say the word without the final phoneme (e.g., "now say cat without the /t/", answer = /kæ/).

Phonemic segmentation subtest requires the participant to repeat a word (e.g., "say /kæt/"), followed by the task of segmenting the word into its individual phonemes (e.g., "what are the sounds in cat?" Answer = /k/ /æ/ /t/).

Substitution of first phoneme subtest requires the participant to repeat a real word that is presented orally by the administrator (e.g., "say /kæt/"), followed by a request to change the initial sound to another, and pronouncing the new word (e.g., "now, instead of /k/, start the new word with /f/", answer = /fæt/).

Substitution of last phoneme subtest requires the participant to repeat a real word that was presented orally by the administrator (e.g., “say /kæt/”), followed by a request to change the final sound to another, and pronouncing the new word (e.g., “now, instead of /t/, end the new word with /p/”, answer = /kæp/).

The total score is based on the number of correct responses for each subtest. The *GKR Phonemic Awareness Test* (Roper, 1984) has reliabilities greater than r = .70 for all subtests (Nicholson, 2002a, 2004; Juel, 1988).

Invented Spelling

The *Invented Spelling Task* designed by Tunmer and Chapman (1995) is used as a measure of exhibiting phonemic awareness. Eighteen words are dictated individually to each participant. Each word is pronounced singly, again in the context of a sentence to clarify comprehension, and then repeated before requesting the participant to write the word. Points are awarded for phonetic equivalence to the test words, ranging from one to four. The maximum possible score is 72 points. Tunmer et al. (2003) reported that the internal reliability estimate for this measure is α = .94.

The results of this measure were compared with the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) and letter identification measures to obtain a clear diagnosis of the participant’s knowledge of grapheme-phoneme relationships.

Word recognition accuracy in-context and reading comprehension

The *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (Neale, 1999) is an individually administered, standardized test of reading ability. It consists of six graded passages read aloud by the participant followed by comprehension questions, and assesses three aspects of reading: rate, accuracy and comprehension. The *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (Neale, 1999) feature norms, including reading ages for children aged 6 to 12 years. The test-retest (parallel-forms) reliabilities are .98 for accuracy and .95 for comprehension (Neale, 1999).

The accuracy and comprehension subtests of the *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (Neale, 1999) were used to assess each participant's word recognition accuracy in-context and reading comprehension ability. Participants were asked to read aloud the first passage. A practice passage and questions relating to the text are presented to the participants to read with corrective feedback, followed by the first passage and questions relating to the text without corrective feedback. The administrator records all reading errors on a recording sheet. The errors provide the basis for deriving the reading accuracy score. Testing continues until 16 consecutive errors have occurred in the one passage. The comprehension questions for the ceiling passage are not given if the number of errors exceeded 16. A series of questions relating to the passage were presented to each participant to assess their level of reading comprehension. The reading comprehension score are based on the total number of correct responses to these questions

Burt Word Reading Test

Context-free word recognition accuracy ability was measured by the standardised *Burt Word Reading Test*, New Zealand Revision (Gilmore et al., 1981). Participants are presented with a list of 110 words of increasing difficulty. Their task is to decode each word aloud. Testing continues until 10 successive words are read incorrectly or not attempted. Scoring is based on the number of correct responses. Tunmer et al. (2006) report a Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 reliability coefficient of .97.

Reading Attitude and Reader Profile

The *Reading Attitude and Reader Profile* measure developed by Dymock (1997) was used to measure the participants' attitude towards reading. The reason for administering this non-standardized measure was because Walker (2012) claims, "a positive attitude towards reading plays a key role in reading engagement" (p. 145). Participants are asked 11 questions regarding their attitude towards reading and nine multi-choice questions regarding how they feel about reading. This measure was not administered again in the post-testing as informal anecdotal notes were

recorded and examined to gage the participant's level of engagement and attitude during the shared reading sessions.

3.10 Pre-testing and Analysis

All eight measures were individually administered to each participant in the English-medium. Pre-test data gathered were used to build a detailed profile of each participant's ability to process text, their emergent literacy skills, and their literacy knowledge. A rapport between the administrator and participants was further established during the administration of the measures.

The information these measures revealed was evaluated to determine who would benefit from the research. This immediately positioned the responsibility and control of participants' knowledge, on me as a Māori researcher to ensure the data benefits the participants directly. Essentially this critical reflection is captured in the following whakatauakī (Māori proverb):

He tangata i te whakautu whakanakonakotia;

Te tangata i te whaka utu kore ko koia kia tātahi

The teacher, who investigates and uses assessment data wisely,

benefits the learner (whānau);

The teacher who does not investigate and uses assessment data wisely,

is cheating the learner (whānau).

3.11 Selection Process for the Intervention

Following the pre-test evaluations (see Table 6) the eight participants who met the selection criteria, based according to their identified language group (see Table 4), letter identification (see Tables 7 and 8), and phonemic awareness ability (see Table 9), were closely matched with a pair, resulting

in four matched pairs. Each participant's identification was then placed into a hat. The first participant randomly drawn from the hat was assigned to the intervention group (i.e., shared reading group with explicit instruction). The matched pair was then assigned to the treatment control group (i.e., shared reading group with implicit instruction). The participants were distributed approximately equally across the intervention and treatment control groups. This procedure resulted in four participants selected for the intervention group and four participants selected for the treatment control group (see Table 10).

Participants and their pre-test scores were sorted into the following categories to find their closest matched pair:

Language Group: As is presented in the participants' selection process section of this chapter (see Table 6).

Letter-Name Identification: Upper-case and lower-case scores were each categorized as follows: 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, and 21-26/28 letter names identified correctly (maximum score is 26 for upper-case and 28 for lower-case).

Letter-Sound Identification: Upper-case and lower-case scores were each categorized as follows: 0-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, and 21-26/28 letter sounds identified correctly (maximum score is 26 for upper-case and 28 for lower-case).

Phonemic Awareness: Scores for the six subtests of the *GKR Phonemic Awareness Test* (Roper, 1984) were each categorized as follows: 0-2, 3-5, and 6-7 (maximum score per subtest is 7).

Table 6. Participants' Pre-reading Ability

Reading Skill (Maximum Possible Score)	Participants							
	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8
Letter-name Identification (54)	42	2	27	46	44	44	14	24
Uppercase (26)	20	1	15	23	22	23	7	15
Lowercase (28)	22	1	12	23	24	21	7	9
Letter-sound Identification (54)	46	0	17	39	44	34	4	16
Uppercase (26)	24	0	8	20	25	19	2	11
Lowercase (28)	22	0	9	19	20	15	2	5
Phonemic Awareness (42)	18	0	6	2	16	15	3	13
Phoneme blending (7)	5	0	2	1	5	4	1	4
Deletion of initial phoneme (7)	6	0	0	1	4	3	0	0
Deletion of final phoneme (7)	2	0	0	0	3	4	2	6
Phoneme segmentation (7)	3	0	3	0	3	3	0	1
Substitution of initial phoneme (7)	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	2
Substitution of final phoneme (7)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note. P = participant.

Table 7. Letter-name Identification Criteria for Randomly Selecting Matched Pairs

Reading Skill Score Number of *letter-names* correctly identified	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-26
Ranking	Low	Low-medium	Medium	High-medium	High
Lower case	P2	P7 P8	P3	P6	P1 P4 P5
Uppercase	P2	P7	P3 P8	P1	P4 P5 P6

Note. P = participant.

Table 8. Letter-sound Identification Criteria for Randomly Selecting Matched Pairs

Reading Skill Score Number of *letter-sounds* correctly identified	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-26
Ranking	Low	Low-medium	Medium	High-medium	High
Lower case	P2 P7 P8	P3	P6	P1 P4 P5	
Uppercase	P2 P7	P3	P8	P4 P6	P1 P5

Note. P = participant.

Table 9. Phonemic Awareness Ability Criteria for Randomly Selecting Matched Pairs

Reading Skill Score Number of *phonemic awareness* tasks correctly identified	0-2	3-5	6-7
Ranking	Low	Medium	High
Blending	P2 P3 P4 P7	P1 P5 P6 P8	
Deleting first phoneme	P2 P3 P4 P7 P8	P5 P6	P1
Deleting last phoneme	P1 P2 P3 P4 P7	P5 P6	P8
Phoneme segmentation	P2 P4 P7 P8	P1 P3 P5 P6	
Substitution of first phoneme	P1 P2 P3 P4 P5 P6 P7 P8		

Substitution of last phoneme	P1
	P2
	P3
	P4
	P5
	P6
	P7
	P8

Note. P = participant.

Table 10. Matched Pairs

Intervention	Treatment Control
P7	P2
P8	P3
P4	P5
P1	P6

Note. P = *participant.*

3.12 Overview of Intervention and Treatment Control

The English language was chosen as the medium of instruction for both the intervention and treatment control groups. This decision was based on the fact that the participants' formal literacy programme was delivered in the medium of English, the availability of English-medium resources to teach and assess participant's emergent literacy skills, and that the dominant basic interpersonal communication language skills of the participants was English.

Both the intervention and treatment control groups were separately withdrawn from their classroom programme for each session to a quiet learning space within the school that could accommodate the number of

participants, myself, and learning objectives. The learning space was booked in advance for each session.

I worked with the intervention group first, followed by the treatment control group immediately after. The shared text used per two 30 minute sessions per week was identical for both the intervention and treatment control groups. Although meaning-making is pivotal to reading, explicit comprehension strategies were not a specific focus for this particular intervention. Emergent literacy foci for the respective groups will now be detailed (see Table 11).

Table 11. Emergent Literacy Focuses Across All Lessons

Intervention	Treatment Control
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity	Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge
Phonological and Phonemic Awareness Activities - Syllables - Rhyme - Phoneme blending - Initial phoneme deletion - Final phoneme deletion	Semantic, syntactic and visual (MSV) awareness activities - Conventions about print
Exploring the illustrations	Exploring the illustrations
Linking phonological-recoding skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies	Linking semantics, syntactic and visual (MSV) skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies
Cross-checking strategies - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense?	Cross-checking strategies - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?
Linking phonological-recoding skills to context free word recognition accuracy	Context free sight word recognition
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation	Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared and Independent writing and illustrations modeled on the text - Shared text was available for students to replicate the shared reading experience.

3.13 Intervention

Following group selection, a six week withdrawal intervention was undertaken that involved two 30 minute shared book lessons a week, totaling 12 lessons. The aim of the intervention was to further strengthen the relationship of phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge as essential cognitive prerequisites to emergent English reading skills (see Appendix C).

3.14 Outline of Intervention Lessons

Resources were purchased, booked, and designed for this small group to teach the following phonological-recoding skills and the alphabetic principle. Each lesson began with reciting the learning map. The foci of these lessons (see Table 11) will now be outlined.

Relating sound to print

Foulin (2005) states that letter-name knowledge is a good predictor of reading acquisition. To support the development of letter name and letter sound knowledge, each child was given a lap top to access a YouTube link that integrates the alphabetic principle in a song (Jenkins, 2009). Participants were encouraged to sing along. The alphabetic principle consists of three concepts:

1. Letter-name knowledge,
2. Letter-sound knowledge, and
3. Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity (Tunmer et al., 2006).

Letter and picture bingo cards containing pictures of common objects (e.g., apple, butterfly) were also used to enhance awareness of the alphabetic principle. For example, participants placed counters on any

pictures that matched with the given letter sound (e.g., “cover a picture that begins with /v/”).

Phonological and phonemic awareness activities

Letter and picture bingo cards containing pictures of common objects (e.g., apple, butterfly) were used to teach phonological and phonemic awareness. For example, for *syllable awareness,* picture aids were used for participants to clap the syllables in each word the picture identified.

For phonemic awareness participants were required to hear, identify, and manipulate sounds in words in the following oral activities as a whānau (see Appendix D).

Hearing rhyming words required the participants to listen for which words rhyme. A definition of words that rhyme was given followed by an example. A series of eight two worded tasks were then said aloud to the participants. They were asked to repeat them before responding as to whether the words rhymed or not. Participants were randomly asked, “How do you know?” as a way of measuring individual participants understanding. This applied to both correct and incorrect responses.

Phoneme blending required participants to listen to a series of eight specific sounds and blend them together to make a word. For example, “/m/ /æ/ /t/. What word is /m/ /æ/ /t/?” (Answer = /mæt/).

Initial phoneme deletion required participants to repeat a word, and then say the word without the first sound. For example, “say /mæt/. Now say mat without the /m/. This was repeated for a series of eight words”. (Answer = /æt/).

Final phoneme deletion required participants to repeat a word, and then say the word without the last sound. For example, “say /mæt/. Now say mat without the /t/”. (Answer = /mæ/). This was repeated for a series of eight words.

Segmenting phonemes required participants to repeat a word, then to break the word into its distinctive units of speech (phonemes). For example, “say /mæt/. What are the sounds in mat?” (Answer = /m/ /æ/ /t/).

Substituting initial phoneme required participants to repeat a word, then delete its first sound and replace it with a new sound. For example, “say /mæt/. Now, instead of /m/, start the new word with /k/”. (Answer = /kæt/).

Substituting final phoneme required participants to repeat a word, then delete its final phoneme and replace with a new phoneme. For example, “say /mæt/. Now, instead of /t/, end the new word with /p/”. (Answer = /mæp/).

Exploring illustrations

Each session covered each page of the shared text. Participants looked and discussed the illustrations. Prompts were used to connect the text to participants’ experiences and to predict something of its meaning and structure for example, “I’m thinking about what day it is in this story?”, “The illustration is giving me a good idea”, “Where are the bubbles going?”, and “What problem do you think the character faces?” Predicting was encouraged and attention was drawn to beginning letter sounds of illustrated subjects for example, “what can you see on this page?”, “What letter will you expect ‘bubbles’ to begin with?”, and “What syllables can you hear in the word ‘bubbles?”.

Linking phonological-recoding skills to word recognition in-context

The participants were encouraged to use their phonological-recoding skills to assist with word identification. Word-level decoding skills for example, segmenting and blending CVC patterns, were modeled within the shared book approach to assist the participants to use their phonological-recoding skills for word identification during context reading. Predictions were followed by evaluating cross-checking strategies.

Cross-checking strategies

Development of cross-checking strategies was encouraged to evaluate predictions of unknown words via word level strategies. For example, when phonological-based attempts to decode unknown words were made, participants were encouraged to ask:

- Does it sound right?
- Does it make sense? and
- Does it look right?

(Routman, 1991, p. 226b)

Once participants' had cross-checked their attempts, they were then expected to re-read the sentence for meaning.

Linking phonological-recoding skills to context-free word recognition

Five high frequency sight words were selected from the shared text. Students were encouraged to analyze these words by their phonological-recoding skills to assist their ability to decode. Irregular words (e.g., the) were explained to the participants as, "you just need to know them". The focus was to develop a sight vocabulary, which is a key factor in enabling emergent readers to automatically recognize words thus freeing cognitive processing to concentrate on meaning.

Following the shared text, students' actively learnt the list of five basic sight words derived from the text on individual flash cards as a whānau, before pairing into their tuakana-teina (reciprocal peers) roles to support one another's automaticity development of basic sight words. Peers were expected to revise previous session high frequency words too. The five words were added to their kete (woven basket) of high frequency words. Each participant was supplied with a small kete to store their basic sight words and to refer to as a concrete resource.

Dolch Word List One (Dolch, 1936; Lanternfish Language Arts, 2007) was also used to develop automaticity and increase the number of known high frequency words. Unknown Dolch words (Dolch, 1936; Lanternfish Language Arts, 2007) were decoded by segmenting and blending the phonemes or syllables.

Linking phonemic awareness to spelling

To develop phoneme-grapheme awareness, five target CVC words were dictated individually. Participants were encouraged to write the letters for the sounds that they hear in order. Their responses were recorded in their workbooks. Corrective feedback was given.

3.15 Treatment Control

Alongside the intervention group, I also worked with their matched pairs in a shared reading group (treatment control group). The treatment control group continued to receive their regular instruction of an implicit shared reading approach by the researcher that was modeled by the participants' classroom teacher. A decision was made to use the researcher rather than the class teacher to reduce any variations due to teacher differences. The treatment control group was also involved in two 30 minute shared book sessions a week over a period of six weeks; totaling 12 withdrawal lessons (see Appendix E). The focus of this approach was learning to read by reading, with an emphasis on utilising contextual cues for meaning (including decoding unfamiliar words), automatic recognition of high frequency words, and letter-sound cues. Sensitivity to the semantic, syntactic and visual constraints of sentence contexts (also known as grammatical awareness) dominates the instruction for this approach as one of the essential cognitive prerequisites to emergent English reading skills.

3.16 Outline of Treatment Control Lessons

Resources were purchased, booked, and designed for this small group to teach reading by integrating the three sources of information: semantic (M), syntactic (S) and visual graphophonic (V) (Ministry of Education, 2003a). The lesson was divided into its emergent literacy foci (see Table 10). These will now be described.

Relating sounds to print

Each session had a single letter focus reinforced through the selected text to aid the development of:

1. Letter-name knowledge, and
2. Letter-sound knowledge

(Ministry of Education, 2003b)

Semantics, syntactic, and visual graphophonic skills cues awareness activities

The purpose of the introduction brief was to help the students relate the text to their experiences and to predict something of its meaning and structure. The purpose for reading the text was also shared with the students. Introducing the text was also achieved by exploring the text illustrations before reading.

Discussions took place around different aspects of visual sources of information including concepts about print for example, text direction, capital letter at the start of a sentence, full stop at the end of a sentence, and punctuation marks. The aim was to develop an awareness of the essential Concepts About Print (CAP) that aid meaning.

Exploring the illustrations

Exploring the illustrations for the treatment control group replicate the procedures of the intervention group. The sole difference being participants were not asked questions of the following nature, “what syllables can you hear in the word ‘bubbles’?”

Linking semantics, syntactic, and visual graphophonic skills to reading in-context

The first reading of the shared text focused on participants’ enjoyment and understanding of the text. Participants were encouraged to join in on the first reading. I purposefully paused at specific moments to encourage participants to predict what may happen next and to share their responses briefly.

Participants were encouraged to use their semantic, syntactic, and visual skills to predict meaning leading to word identification for example,

1. look at the beginning letter sound of an unknown word as a clue to decoding that word,
2. combine knowledge of beginning letter-sound relationships with picture cues, and
3. use cross-checking strategies (grammatical awareness) to confirm predictions.

These aspects were modeled within the shared book approach to assist the participants to use their MSV skills for meaning and word identification during context reading.

Cross-checking strategies

Development of cross-checking strategies was encouraged to evaluate predictions of unknown words via illustrations and meaning. For example, when attempts to decode unknown words were made, participants were encouraged to ask:

- Does it make sense?
- Does it look right? and
- Does it sound right?

(Routman, 1991, p. 226b)

Context-free sight word recognition

Five high frequency sight words were selected from the shared text. Students were encouraged to analyze these words by relying primarily on their knowledge of beginning letter-sound relationships, and memory to assist their ability to decode. Sounding out was a final option. The focus was to develop a sight vocabulary, which is a key factor in enabling emergent readers to automatically recognize words allowing cognitive processing to concentrate on meaning.

Students actively learnt the list of five basic sight words derived from the text on individual flash cards as a whānau, before pairing into their tuakana-teina roles to support one another's automaticity development of basic sight words. Peers were expected to revise previous session high frequency words too. Similar to the intervention group, the five words were added to their kete of high frequency words that the students could refer to as a concrete resource.

Post reading activities

Examples of post reading activities consisted of retelling the story in the participants' tuakana-teina roles, dramatizing episodes of the story and

shared or independent writing modeled on the text. The shared text was available for students to replicate the shared reading experience with their tuakana or teina.

3.17 Post-testing and Analysis

At the conclusion of the intervention and treatment control groups shared reading sessions, quantitative post-data were collected from the eight participants for the nine measures of English reading skills (letter-name awareness, letter-sound awareness, pseudoword reading, phonemic awareness, phonetically correct spelling, conventionally correct spelling, word recognition accuracy in-context and context-free, and reading comprehension) that were assessed.

The pre-test post-test data served the purpose of analysing the effects of the intervention by conducting a simple and complex analyses of covariance as well as a paired-sample *t*-test statistical analysis. Effect size of statistically significant terms is reported using Cohen's *d* (Cohen, 1988) to determine the strength of significance as will be discussed in Chapter 4.

Each participant's post-test information was summarized and reported back to their parents/caregivers. As mentioned previously the reports were issued to participants' parents/caregivers upon completion of the semi-structured interviews. Any remaining reports were posted to participants' parents/caregivers homes

3.18 Semi-structured Interviews Qualitative Measure

The primary purpose of semi-structured interviews used in this study was to develop whakawhānaungatanga with the participants' parents/caregivers. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews provided space to 'live and breathe' the ethical principles embedded in this study (see Table 3), and an option for whānau to further exercise their agency. Semi-structured interviews are appropriate in a KMR study as it validates kōrero (personal language) as data (Newton, 2010). Additionally, semi-structured

interviews can generate rich narrative kōrero and glean an in-depth understanding of participants' position of their literacy education (Cohen et al., 2011). Newton (2010) draws attention to the significance of contextual and relational central to understanding others' perceptions. Therefore, semi-structured interviews can validate more precisely the possible meanings of participants' informal and formal (bi)literacy and (dual)language development at school entry to progress further. The approach taken to semi-structured interviewing was focused on flexible conversations to achieve a collaborative understanding opposed to merely extracting information. This point draws attention to co-constructing knowledge from kanohi ki te kanohi conversations between partners of equal status. Accordingly, the ability to establish interpersonal relationships based on trust, honesty and humility is pivotal between the Māori researcher and the participants to achieve rich material that reflects the sense of what the interviewee believes (Carruthers, 1990; Newton, 2010).

Initial attempts to contact parent/caregivers for semi-structured interviews prior to the selection of the intervention and treatment control groups were unsuccessful. It was decided to leave the semi-structured interview component of the study until after the post-data was collected and summarized for each participant. Parents/caregivers who expressed an interest in participating in a semi-structured interview were then sent a text message:

> "*Tēnā koe, thank you for allowing [participant's name removed] to participate in my research. Are you available for a 15 min discussion about her preschool literacy experiences next Friday 14/09 at [school name removed] between 11:00-3:00p.m.? Please txt me back a time that suits & I will meet you at the front office on Friday. Ngā mihinui, Whaea Kylie Te Arihi".*

I have a strong awareness of my position in this study and how the related power relations affect research processes and outcomes. The aim of sending a text message was to minimize the negative effects of power in our relationships. The intent of aroha ki te tangata (a respect for the people), by text messaging provided parents/caregivers an informal/less threatening context that allowed them the authority of decision-making in regards to a suitable time to meet or not to meet (Smith, 2005). I received replies from seven of the parents/caregivers. Four of these parents/caregivers participated in a semi-structured interview with me.

Burnard (2005) explains semi-structured interviews are the most common form of qualitative interviews. Furthermore, he suggests semi-structured interviews are conducted in which the interviewer:

1. refers to a sheet containing important areas to be covered, and
2. uses a sets of questions but is prepared to incorporate further questions into the interview in order to capture elaboration

(Burnard, 2005, p. 5) (see Appendix F)

According to Newton (2010) "the success and validity of an interview rests on the extent to which the respondent's opinions are truly reflected; the interviewee's "voice", communicating *their* perspective" (p. 4). In this study, participants were given autonomy over the interviewing process where they were able to withdraw from the study or edit their transcripts to ensure their voice was legitimately represented.

3.19 Summary

In this chapter, a synthesis of Kaupapa Māori Research methodological framework that guided the research was outlined. An evaluation of how the IBRLA model mediated the intersection of power relations between Māori and English-medium elements were described. A rationale was provided for the ethical considerations and principles that

underpin the design of this study. These ethical principles draw attention to the significance of cultural concepts and values that were woven into the contextual and relational aspects of this study. Additionally, how KMR and IBRLA ethical principles shaped the way this study was established, conducted and how data was interpreted and described. The data for the study presented in this thesis was collected through both quantitative and qualitative methodology. Appropriate pre-test and post-test literacy measures that assessed the reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context were conducted. A semi-structured interview approach was considered essential in gaining an insight into the perceptions and values of literacy education for whānau this study relates to.

The findings of the data analysis will be presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effects of a shared reading intervention on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context. This chapter presents the results of the data collected in this study to answer the three key research questions.

1. What literacy and language experiences have shaped the Literate Cultural Capital of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?

2. What is the range of English reading skills in a sample of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?

3. Can a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge have a positive effect on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?

This chapter initially presents the themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews, reading attitude, and reader profiles to contextualise this study. Then moves onto describing and presenting the data collected from the eight participants for the 10 measures of English reading skills (receptive vocabulary, letter-name awareness, letter-sound awareness, pseudoword reading, phonemic awareness, phonetically correct spelling, conventionally correct spelling, word recognition accuracy in-context and context-free, and reading comprehension) that were assessed. Followed by two analyses of covariance and a paired-sample *t*-test statistical analysis to measure the interaction effects of the intervention and treatment control groups data between pre-test and post-test. Effect size of statistically significant terms is reported using Cohen's *d* to determine the strength of significance.

4.2 Semi-structured Interview

The primary aim of the semi-structured interview was to develop whakawhanaungatanga (partnerships) with the participants parents and to ensure their voices, Māori knowledge, cultural practices, language, interests, perspectives, needs, concerns, and aspirations are legitimately represented in the context of this study. The secondary aim was to gain an insight into the contexts and nuances of language and literacy experiences that shaped how level 2 Māori-medium participants are positioned in year 1, as well as wider influences on the development of participants Literate Cultural Capital.

4.3 The Procedures for Analysing Qualitative Data

In order to answer the research question, "What literacy and language experiences have shaped the Literate Cultural Capital of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?", qualitative data derived from the four individual semi-structured interviews were firstly analysed individually to preserve the integrity of responses. The qualitative data were then subject to a content analysis coding scheme, by highlighting similar passages of text to determine themes (Bryman, 2012; Cohen et al., 2011).

Four key themes emerged from the transcribed data that contextualise the intervention. These themes are: emergent literacy experiences, exposure to more than one languages in home and community environments, language shift, and accessing bilingual pathways.

Emergent literacy experiences

All parents reported English as the dominant oral and written language in the nuclear home. The interviews showed that participants were exposed to an environment that supported emergent literacy such as: interpersonal ako experiences with parents, siblings, grandparents and others; their physical environments included literacy materials from storybooks, puzzles, board and card games, paper-based writing material to digital-based literacies; and attending predominantly English-medium

early childhood education settings. All parents read to their children on a regular basis and reported to having a strong tradition of reading at bedtime as well as reading for pleasure. This claim was supported in the participants' reading attitude profile. Parent 2 expanded on this by sharing, "we do a lot of reading...puzzles and stuff were always accessible for them to do". This claim was supported by P2 interrupting the interview with, "Whaea Kylie, we went to the [public] library". Furthermore, Parent 5 shared that his child, "has a library of books at home mostly in English, there are some books in Māori but she enjoys her books and being read to every night".

There was a clear commitment by all parents to ensure their child acquired competent English emergent literacy skills. Parent 1 commented, "I don't want [P1] to be disadvantaged in English". Parent 3 reported that, "at home we helped [P3] to write her name and her phone number...her [P3] older siblings read to her and play games". In support of this claim P3 reported, "my mum teaches me how to read [English] words". Parent 2 expressed concern and frustration that despite providing P2 with a supportive emergent literacy environment in the home, her child is having [English] alphabet and word recognition difficulties:

> She sleeps with books and everything but she just doesn't know how to read or grasp any letters and stuff. She is having a real problem with that. I thought she would be quite quick cause she was good at writing and she did her name and stuff like that, um..., yeah. I really didn't think that we would encounter from that she's having issues.

Furthermore, Parent 2 regarded attending an early childhood centre as a positive step towards a successful transition into primary school and stated that:

> I thought she was ready for school because she enjoyed reading, writing, singing, puzzles, art, and that. She speaks well and is always involved with what is happening and

> seemed to be on par with her peers [at her childcare centre] and appeared ready for school. She just seems to have trouble with recognising letters and words.

Parent 1 considered that attending an early childhood centre strengthened P1's literacy experiences and preparation for school. She discussed this in more depth by stating, "[childcare centre] provided a good literacy programme of reading, singing etc…"

In summary, the kōrero strongly suggests the participants of the parents interviewed appeared to be immersed and supported in communicative emergent literacy interactions.

Exposure to more than one language in their home and community environments

A theme that emerged strongly in the semi-structured interviews is that Māori parents are first language speakers (L1) of English and second language learners (L2) of Māori. L2 oral language patterns in the home extended from basic to conversational levels of proficiency. Three of the four parents interviewed were aware of their limitations to support their children's L2 Māori language development at home. Parent 5 reported that the exposure to te reo Māori for P5 is high, as extended family members attend te kōhanga reo and kura reo (marae-based Māori language immersion courses). He added:

> P5's mother's level of proficiency in te reo Māori is at a conversational level. She is part-time studying [a level 6 te reo Māori and tikanga Māori total immersion programme for 36 weeks] at [a recognised Aotearoa tertiary education provider].

Parent 5 further reported that, “she is happy to help reinforce the reo and to pass on te reo [Māori] skills as a primary source to her daughter and surrounding community for example, school and extended whānau”.

Three of the four parents reported other languages such as Māori Kūki 'Āirani (Cook Island Māori), Samoan, and Tongan were spoken in the home by adults to adults and children.

Parent 1 reported:

> I was raised by my grandmother, whose first language is Samoan. She could speak a little Māori so my first language is English and I can speak a little Māori and Samoan but I want to strengthen my level of Māori.

Parent 1 shared, “when visiting family [location name removed], only te reo Māori is spoken” and observed, “P1 struggles to respond in te reo Māori and gets frustrated”. Parent 1 expressed her concerns, “that P1 struggles with speaking and reading English and needs to strengthen one language first instead of doing both at the same time”. Parent 1’s partner is L1 Tongan and L2 English speaker, and is learning te reo Māori too.

In summary, each participant’s oral language circumstances and resources are diverse, complex, highly variable, and context dependent.

Language shift

All four parents reported that they are direct descendants of a generation of L1 speakers of te reo Māori. Due to the social, political, and historical colonisation processes of Aotearoa a language shift from te reo Māori to English occurred, with the outcome for all four parents being L1 speakers of English and second language learners of te reo Māori. The rate of the language shift occurred over two generations.

Parent 5 reported although both his parents are fluent speakers of te reo Māori, they chose to teach him and his siblings English for their

educational attainment and commented, “Whereas yeah, that’s a bit of a touchy subject”.

Parent 1 reported, “my father is fluent in Māori and was part of the generation that was punished for speaking te reo Māori”.

Parent 2 expressed her mum’s a fluent speaker of te reo Māori and shared:

> She moved to Gisborne and they sort of made fun of her, so she spoke Māori and she never spoke English and she didn’t learn to speak English properly. She talks kōrero Māori at home and to the whānau.

When posed with the question, “did she teach you at all?” Parent 2 responded, “No, we didn’t learn it at all”. When asked, “Is that why you have put P2 into partial-immersion?” Parent 2 replied, “Yeah trying to get the reo going again, yep”.

There was an inclination of kia piki ake i ngā raruraru o te kāinga (see section 3.2.4), that all four parents had autonomy to privilege the impact of the language shift they experienced by resisting against monolingualism and engaging in transformative practices such as a level 2 Māori-medium contexts to mediate English-Māori bilingualism in their children’s home, school, and community environments.

Accessing bilingual pathways

All parents reported the desire for their children to become literate in English and English-Māori bilingual speakers. Consequently, these parents have consciously thought about the transition from mainstream early childhood education to the level of Māori-medium immersion they desire for their children that will support their whānau aspirations. There appeared to be a need for parental knowledge about the rate of L1 and L2 language growth, patterns of language use, and bilingual and biliteracy development in both te reo Māori and English language.

Parent 1 reported, “I didn’t send [P1] to te kōhanga reo because it was too far away”. She expressed that P1 spent his first six months at school as a year 0 in English-medium whilst on the waiting list to be transferred over into the year 1, level 2 Māori-medium class.

Similar to Parent 1, Parent 5’s key reasons for choosing a childcare centre over te kōhanga reo were the centre’s opening hours fitted in with parents’ occupational hours and the centre was located close to home and workplace. As a result Parent 5 reported:

> I wasn’t confident in sending P5 to a total immersion school but still wanted her to learn some te reo Māori…that was the main reason we came over here was for this school. We specifically came for this school and te reo, we moved over here so we could get into the school.

Parent 5 reflected the transition to Kura A for P5 was simple due to already established relationships with teachers, “those were the sorta [sic] connections we have so yeah it was pretty simple for us to bring her here and it’s been good, been really good”.

In summary, all four parents recognise they have agency to support their child’s development of emergent literacy and language skills.

4.4 Reading Attitude and Reading Profile

An aim of the reading attitude and reading profile (Dymock, 1997) measures was to develop whakawhanaungatanga (partnerships) with the participants' and to glean an in-depth understanding of their reading-related experiences, interests, perspectives, needs, and practices.

In order to address the second research question, "What is the range of English reading skills in a sample of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?", quantitative and qualitative data derived from the reading attitude and reading profile (Dymock, 1997) surveys were firstly analysed individually to preserve the integrity of responses. The survey data was then subjected to a content analysis coding scheme, by highlighting similar passages of responses and text to determine themes (Bryman, 2012; Cohen et al., 2011).

The survey data indicated all eight participants appeared to have a positive attitude towards reading. Furthermore two key themes emerged from the participants' survey data. These themes are: reading as a social practice and word recognition difficulties.

Reading as a social practice

The theme reading as a social practice is supported by the following responses, taken from the reading attitude survey question, "What do you enjoy about reading?"

"When my mum reads stories to me" (P3[24]), and

"Reading with my friends" (P8).

The theme, reading as a social practice, is further supported by the following responses taken from the reading profile survey. Most participants (5 out of 8) said they felt really good about reading for fun at home, when their teacher reads out loud, and reading at school. Most participants (6 out of 8) said they felt really good when someone reads them a story at home

[24] *Note.* P = participant.

and all eight participants said they felt really good when they are asked to read out loud to the teacher.

Word recognition difficulties

The theme word recognition difficulties is supported by the following responses, taken from the reading attitude survey question, “What do you find difficult about reading?”.

“The words that my mum doesn’t say. Too much words” (P1[25]),

“My mum teaches me how to read words” (P3),

“The hard words” (P5),

“Hard letters and hard words” (P6),

“I find reading hard sometimes” (P7), and

“I don’t know what the words say” (P8).

In summary, all participants appeared to have a positive attitude towards reading, favoured reading as a social practice, and found recognising words the most difficult factor about reading.

4.5 Pre-test Quantitative Data

To address the research question, “What is the range of English reading skills in a sample of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?”, descriptive statistics for the eight participants on the ten measures of English literacy skills will now be presented.

Ten measures were conducted to assess each of the English reading skills of the eight participants. Three of these measures related to decoding skills: *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skill* (Bryant, 1975), *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (word recognition accuracy in-context) (Neale, 1999), and *Burt Word Reading Test* (Gilmore et al., 1981). Two measures assessed

[25] *Note.* P = participant.

alphabet knowledge: letter-name and letter-sound identification (Clay, 2005). Three measures related to phonological awareness: *GKR Phonemic Awareness Test* (Roper, 1984) and *Invented Spelling Test* (phonetically and conventionally correct) (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995). One measure assessed reading comprehension: *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (Neale, 1999). One measure related to receptive vocabulary: *PPVT* (Dunn & Dunn, 2007), which will be presented separately from the other nine measures.

Table 12 presents the scores for the first nine separate measures of English reading skills. The data in Table 12 shows the large range of English reading skills in this small sample of year 1 participants in a level 2 Māori-medium context. It can be seen that for seven out of nine measures, the range of scores starts from the lowest possible score, zero, and that all nine measures do not reach or even come close to reaching the maximum possible score. The pre-test data indicates the participants have stronger alphabet knowledge (letter-name identification: M = 30.63, SD = 16.62 and letter-sound identification M = 25.13, SD = 18.24) than phonemic awareness (M = 9.13, SD = 7.14).

Table 12. Pre-test Mean Scores for all Participants (*N* = 8)

Measures (Maximum Possible Score)	*M*	*SD*	Range
Letter-name Identification (54)	30.63	16.62	2-46
Letter-sound Identification (54)	25.13	18.24	0-46
Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skill (50)	0.00	0.00	0-0
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (word recognition accuracy in-context) (16)	1.00	1.93	0-5
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (reading comprehension) (4)	0.00	0.00	0-0
GKR Phonemic Awareness	9.13	7.14	0-18
Invented Spelling (phonetically correct) (72)	19.00	17.05	2-45
Invented Spelling (conventionally correct) (18)	0.75	1.04	0-3
Burt Word Reading Test (110)	3.63	5.15	0-14

4.6 PPVT Scores

As described in Chapter 3, PPVT (Dunn & Dunn, 2007) was administered to the eight participants in this study. PPVT (Dunn & Dunn, 2007) was employed to collate information on the receptive vocabulary of the participants to serve as baseline data (see Table 13). The results showed a raw score range of 59-114, a mean score of 90.88, and a standard deviation of 17.41 for this sample of year 1 level 2 Māori-medium students. A mean score of 100 and standard deviation of 15 is considered average on the standardised bell curve. Raw scores were converted into stanine scores to compare participant's individual performance with the results obtained by a national reference sample chosen to represent a year 1 cohort. The distribution of participant's standard scores suggests: one participant performed comparatively below average (stanine score of 3), five participants performed comparatively average (stanine score range of 4-6), and one participant performed comparatively above average (stanine score

of 7). The standard scores indicates the eight participant's receptive vocabulary performance ranges from below average to an above average level to support their decoding ability to gain meaning from print.

Table 13. Receptive Vocabulary Raw Scores and Stanines for all Participants (*N* = 8)

Participant	Raw Score	Stanine
P1	102	6
P2	59	3
P3	88	4
P4	114	7
P5	109	7
P6	84	4
P7	84	4
P8	87	4

Note. P = participant.

4.7 Effectiveness of Shared Reading Intervention

In order to address the third research question, "Can a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge have a positive effect on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context?", descriptive and inferential statistics will now be presented for the eight participants' that were randomly assigned into the intervention (n = 4) and treament control groups (n = 4).

Table 14 presents the pre-test and post-test mean and standard deviation scores for the intervention and treatment control groups on the nine measures of English reading skills. The descriptive data suggests some growth in all nine measures of English reading skills over the six week period for both groups. The higher pre-test mean scores for letter-name

and letter-sound identification (Clay, 2005) suggest these two measures may have been the easiest of the nine measures for the participants. In contrast, the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) appeared to pose considerable difficulty for the participants, with both groups pre-test mean scores being zero out of a possible 50. The *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (reading comprehension) (Neale, 1999) measure also appeared challenging for both groups, with pre-test and post-test mean scores sitting below two out of a possible four. The participants had a similar level of phonemic awareness, as is evident in both intervention and treatment control groups pre-test mean scores of 9.00 and 9.25 for *GKR Phonemic Awareness* (Roper, 1984), respectively.

To answer the third research question, statistical analysis was employed. The data was analysed using a one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to examine the interaction effects of the shared reading intervention that explicitly taught phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge. Initially, a simple one-way ANCOVA statistical analysis was conducted using both the intervention and treatment control groups pre-test data as the covariate to control for initial group differences on English reading skills (see Table 14). Separate analyses were conducted for each measure. When pre-test data is shown to covary with post-test data significant interaction effects is evident for the intervention group on four measures: letter-name identification, $F(1,5) = 8.63$, $p = .03$, GKR Phonemic Awareness, $F(1,5) = 39.09$, $p = .002$, Invented Spelling (phonetically correct), $F(1,5) = 20.38$, $p = .006$, and Invented Spelling (conventionally correct), $F(1,5) = 64.07$, $p < .001$.

Because both the intervention and treatment control groups pre-test scores for *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) and *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (reading comprehension) (Neale, 1999) were zero, a paired samples *t*-test statistical analysis was conducted to evaluate the impact of the intervention on participants' scores for both measures from pre-test to post-test (see Table 14). Results showed that the intervention group made significantly greater gains in the measure, Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills, $t(3.06) = 5.78$, $p = .01$.

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics, *t*-test, and ANCOVA Results using Pre-test Data as the Covariate for Intervention and Treatment Control Groups

Measures	Intervention (*n* = 4)				Treatment Control (*n* = 4)					
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test			
(Maximum Possible Score)	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*F*
Letter-name Identification (54)	31.50	15.09	49.75	5.68	29.75	20.37	35.25	19.75		8.63*
Letter-sound Identification (54)	26.25	19.60	51.25	3.78	24.00	19.71	35.75	22.68		3.01
Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills (50)	0.00	0.00	14.75	4.99	0.00	0.00	5.25	0.50	5.78*	-[a]
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (accuracy) (16)	2.00	2.45	7.00	5.77	0.00	0.00	0.50	1.00		1.38
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (reading comprehension) (4)	0.00	0.00	1.50	1.73	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.50	1.39	-[a]
GKR Phonemic Awareness (42)	9.00	7.78	29.25	2.21	9.25	7.63	9.25	8.46		39.09**
Invented Spelling (phonetically correct) (72)	18.25	15.92	54.25	2.06	19.75	20.56	22.25	21.48		20.38**
Invented Spelling (conventionally correct) (18)	0.50	0.58	5.00	0.82	1.00	1.41	1.00	1.41		64.07**
Burt Word Reading Test (110)	6.00	6.68	18.25	6.50	1.25	1.50	6.25	6.29		3.76

Note. -[a] *F* value cannot be computed because the standard deviation error of the difference is zero.
*p<.05. **p<.01.

To further examine the interaction effects of the shared reading intervention that explicitly taught phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge, a more complex one-way ANCOVA statistical analysis was conducted. The complex model consisted of using both the pre-test data and participants chronological age as the covariates to also account for the possible effects of difference in age between the intervention and treatment control groups (see Table 15). The more complex analysis of covariance confirmed significant interaction effects for the intervention group on three measures: Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills, $F(1,4) = 13.98$, $p = .014$, GKR Phonemic Awareness, $F(1,4) = 12.571$, $p = .024$, and Invented Spelling (conventionally correct), $F(1,4) = 50.32$, $p = .002$. In contrast, when controlling for the effects of within-in group variation explained by the pre-test data and participant's chronological ages, Letter-name Identification and Invented Spelling (phonetically correct) lose their significant difference for the intervention group. The treatment control group did not differ statistically on any of the nine measures from pre-test to post-test.

To determine the strength of the significant differences between the intervention and treatment control groups, an Effect size was required (Pallant, 2010). Cohen's *d* was used to measure the Effect size. Cohen's (1988) criteria for interpreting *d* is: small Effect size, $d = 0.2$, medium Effect size, $d = 0.5$, and large Effect size, $d \geq 0.8$. Thus, according to Cohen's (1988) criteria large Effect sizes were observed for four of the five measures, scoring: Letter-name Identification, $d = 1.73$, Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills, $d = 4.09$, GKR Phonemic Awareness, $d = 3.89$, and Invented Spelling (phonetically correct), $d = 2.94$. The Effect size for Invented Spelling (conventionally correct) could not be computed because the standard deviation error of the treatment control groups pre-test post-test difference was zero.

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics and ANCOVA Results using Pre-test Data and Participants' Chronological Age as the Covariates for Intervention and Treatment Control Groups

Measures	Intervention (*n* = 4)				Treatment Control (*n* = 4)				
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		
(Maximum Possible Score)	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*
Letter-name Identification (54)	31.50	15.09	49.75	5.68	29.75	20.37	35.25	19.75	1.65
Letter-sound Identification (54)	26.25	19.60	51.25	3.78	24.00	19.71	35.75	22.68	.151
Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills (50)	0.00	0.00	14.75	4.99	0.00	0.00	5.25	0.50	13.98**
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (accuracy) (16)	2.00	2.45	7.00	5.77	0.00	0.00	0.50	1.00	.140
Neale Analysis of Reading Ability (reading comprehension) (4)	0.00	0.00	1.50	1.73	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.50	.708
GKR Phonemic Awareness (42)	9.00	7.78	29.25	2.21	9.25	7.63	9.25	8.46	12.571*
Invented Spelling (phonetically correct) (72)	18.25	15.92	54.25	2.06	19.75	20.56	22.25	21.48	7.05
Invented Spelling (conventionally correct) (18)	0.50	0.58	5.00	0.82	1.00	1.41	1.00	1.41	50.32**
Burt Word Reading Test (110)	6.00	6.68	18.25	6.50	1.25	1.50	6.25	6.29	.772

Note. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Four of the nine measures: letter-sound identification (Clay, 2005), *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (word recognition accuracy in-context and reading comprehension) (Neale, 1999), and *Burt Word Reading Test* (Glimore et al., 1981), elicited no significant difference within pre-test and post-test measures between intervention and treatment control groups.

The two measures, letter-name identification (Clay, 2005) and *Invented Spelling* (phonetically correct) (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995), for which there was a significant difference using the simple model of covariance analysis are represented in Figures 8-9 using the data from Table 14. Whereas, the three measures, *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975), *GKR Phonemic Awareness* (Roper, 1984), and *Invented Spelling* (conventionally correct) (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995), for which there was a significant difference using the complex model of covariance analysis are represented in Figures 10-12 using the data from Table 15.

The data in Figure 8 indicates a small difference in the intervention and treatment control groups pre-test mean scores of 31.50 and 29.75 in the letter-name identification (Clay, 2005) measure, respectively. Post-test results showed the intervention group's mean score of 49.75 had nearly reached the ceiling level of 54.0, and outperformed the treatment control group's mean score of 35.25.

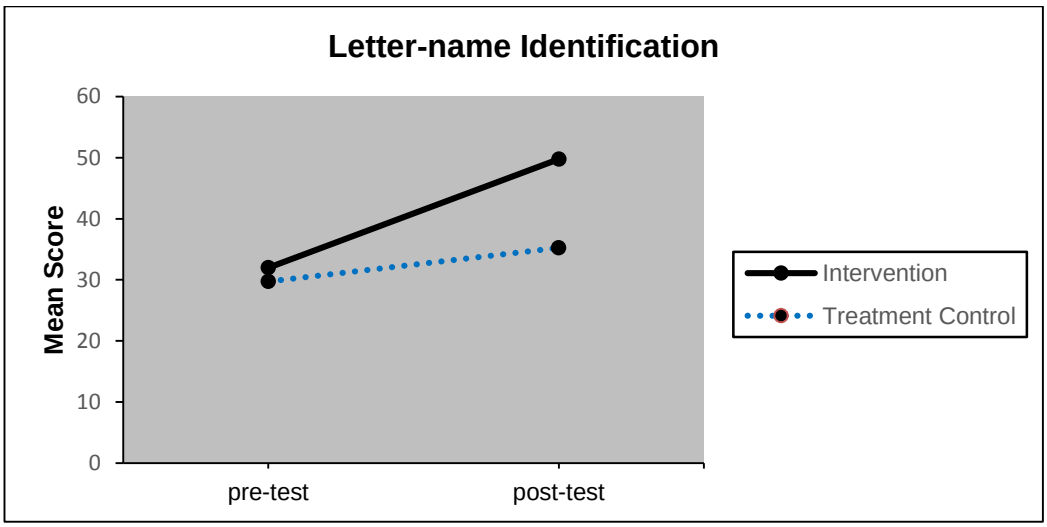

Figure 8. Mean scores (pre-test and post-test) for significant gains in letter-name identification (Clay, 2005) knowledge.

A similar pattern of performance was evident for the *Invented Spelling* (phonetically correct) (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995) measure. The data in Figure 9 shows that the intervention group's pre-test mean score of 18.25 had increased significantly to a post-test mean score of 54.25. The treatment control group's pre-test mean score of 19.75 had slightly increased to a post-test mean score of 22.25. These results suggest that the phonological-based intervention had positive transfer effects to spelling.

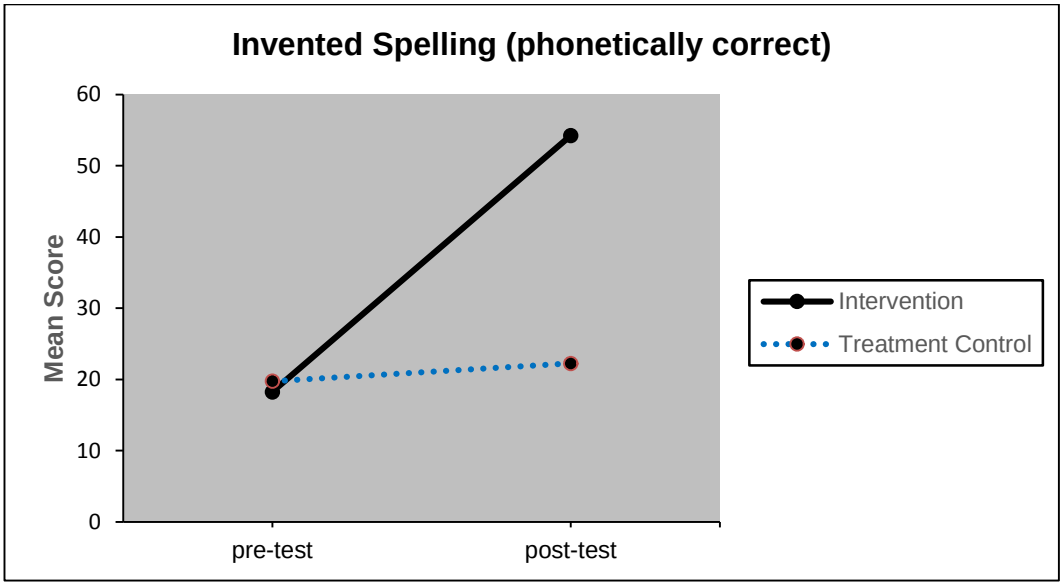

Figure 9. Mean scores (pre-test and post-test) for significant gains in Invented Spelling (phonetically correct) skill (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995).

Figure 10 illustrates the intervention group's post-test mean score of 14.75 in the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) measure, outperformed the treatment control group's post-test mean score of 5.25. These results suggest that the intervention group were more confident to apply their phonological skills to attempt many of the pseudowords presented in this measure. Whereas, the treatment control group appeared unsure of the irregularity of the pseudowords and tended to initiate 'real' words or make no attempt at all for all of the items. These results further suggest, that the phonological-based intervention had positive transfer effects to decoding.

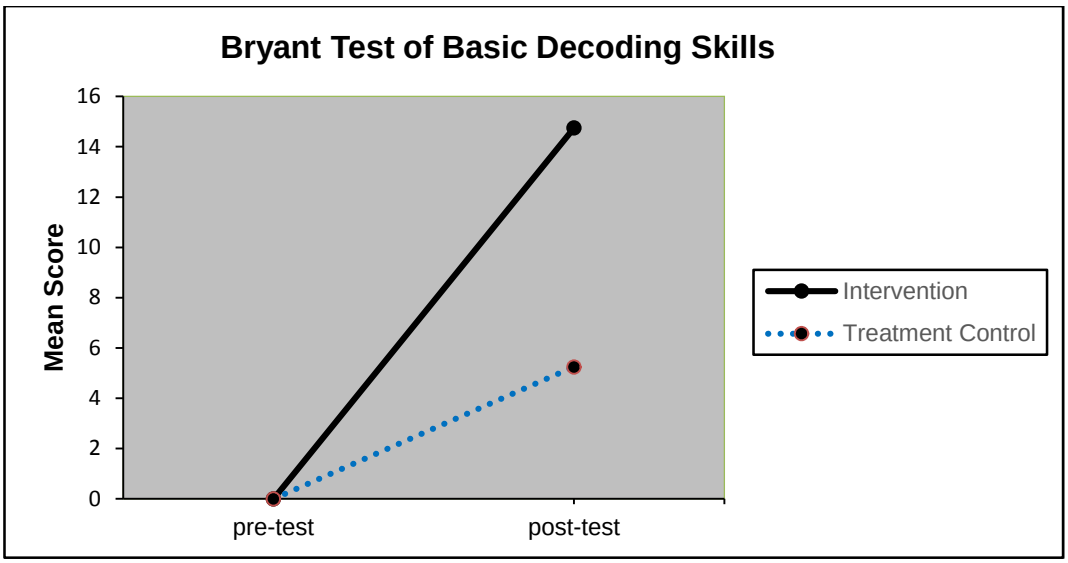

Figure 10. Mean scores (pre-test and post-test) for significant gains in Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skill (Bryant, 1975).

The data in Figure 11 shows that at pre-test the intervention group's *GKR Phonemic Awareness* (Roper, 1984) mean score of 9.00 had increased significantly to 29.25 post-intervention. In contrast, the treatment control group's mean score for the *GKR Phonemic Awareness* (Roper, 1984) measure was 9.25 for pre-test and post-test. These results indicate that the phonological-based intervention had impacted positively on the development of phonemic awareness.

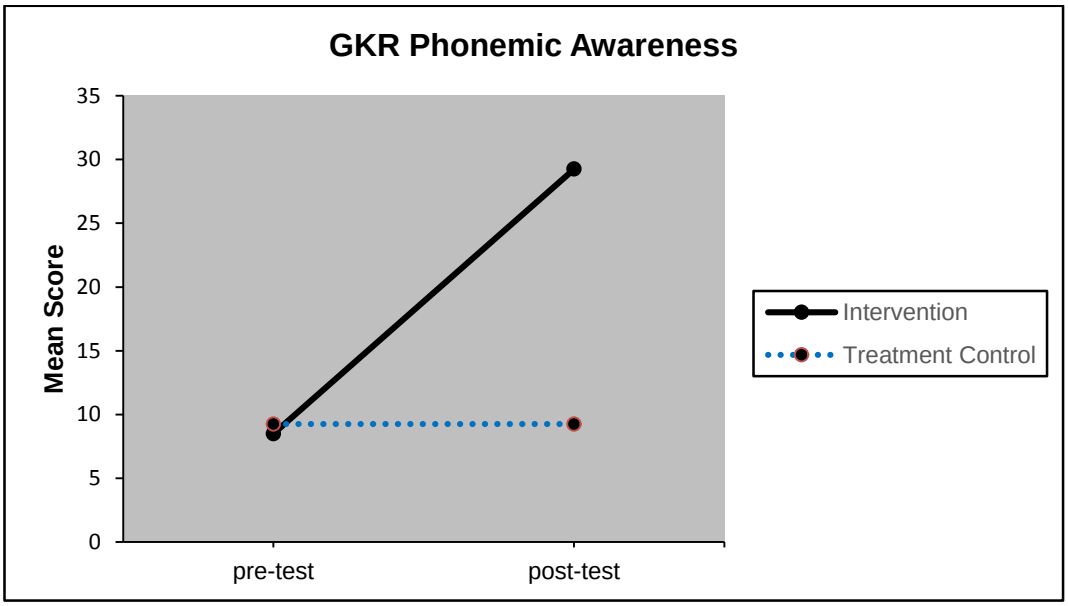

Figure 11. Mean scores (pre-test and post-test) for significant gains in GKR Phonemic Awareness skill (Roper, 1984).

The data in Figure 12 shows that at pre-test the intervention group's mean score for the *Invented Spelling* (conventionally correct) (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995) measure was 0.50, which was lower than the treatment control group's pre-test mean score of 1.25. The intervention group's post-test mean score for this measure increased significantly to 5.00 and outperformed the treatment control group's post-test mean score of 1.00. These findings suggest that the intervention group were more confident to segment the sounds in basic CVC words and to use their phonemic and alphabet knowledge to assist with conventionally correct spelling.

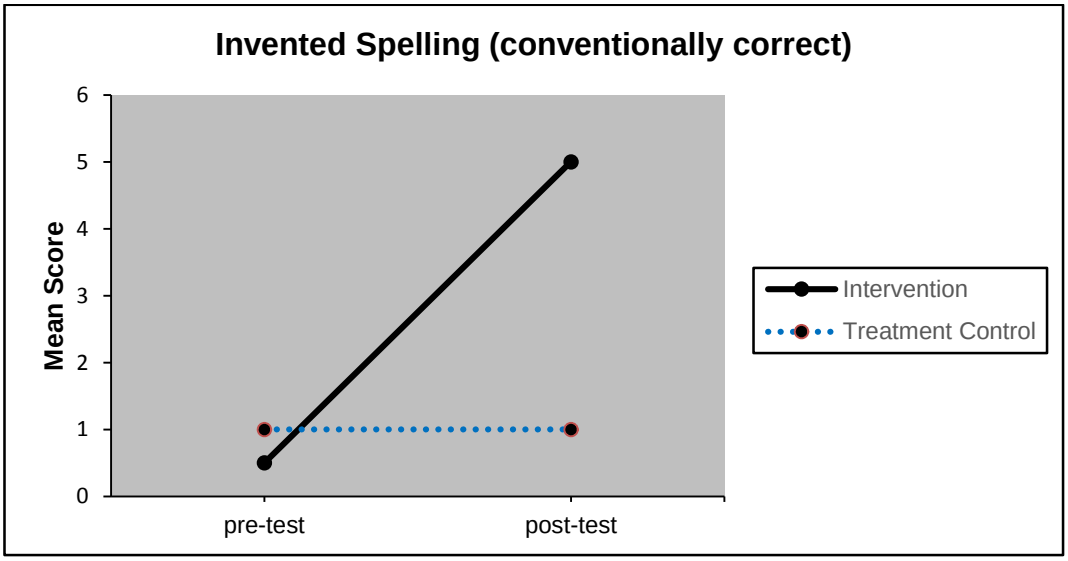

Figure 12. Mean scores (pre-test and post-test) for significant gains in Invented Spelling (conventionally correct) skill (Tunmer & Chapman, 1995).

4.8 Summary

To summarise, the semi-structured interviews conducted with parents provided several perspectives of participant's language and literacy experiences prior to attending school that influenced and shaped the development of participant's Literate Cultural Capital. The four key themes emerged are: emergent literacy experiences, exposure to more than one languages in home and community environments, language shift, and accessing bilingual pathways.

The survey data suggests all participants have a positive attitude towards reading and two key themes emerged from the reader profile measure: participants favoured reading as a social practice and found recognising words the most difficult factor about reading

The quantitative pre-test results showed a large range of emergent literacy knowledge and skills in this sample of year 1 participants in a level 2 Māori-medium context, with participants scoring from the minimum to the maximum score on many of the post-test measures. The PPVT mean score, indicated that the receptive vocabulary for the sample of this present study is relatively within an average range level to support their decoding abilitity. Returning to the research question on the effectiveness of the intervention for year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting. The post-test findings suggest that a shared reading intervention that focused on phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge had a positive effect on the development of the following English reading skills: letter-name knowledge and phonetically correct spelling after accounting for one covariate, and after controlling for participant's pre-test scores and chronological age positive effects were significantly so for, pseudoword reading, phonemic awareness, and conventionally correct spelling ability.

Chapter Five will discuss the findings in relation to exisiting literature.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

The primary goal of this study was to determine whether or not a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge would have a positive effect on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context. As well as to describe the Literate Cultural Capital and the range of English reading skills for this particular cohort. Chapter Five aims to discuss the findings related to each of the three research questions in view of existing literature, to consider practical implications, and limitations of this study. This chapter will conclude with suggestions for future research, a summary, and final conclusions.

The research questions addressed are: 1) What literacy and language experiences have shaped the Literate Cultural Capital of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context? 2) What is the range of English reading skills in a sample of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context? and 3) Can a shared reading intervention that explicitly teaches phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge have a positive effect on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context? The findings revealed that the Literate Cultural Capital of eight year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting was influenced by a diverse range of emergent literacy experiences which encompassed attending early childhood education, navigating bilingual pathways, intergenerational language shift, and exposure to more than one language in home and community environments. Results further indicated a considerable range of English reading skills exist for this particular cohort. Statistical analyses illustrates that the shared reading intervention did support progress in letter-name identification and phonetically correct spelling, significantly so in pseudoword decoding, phonemic awareness, and conventionally correct spelling.

Chapter 5 looks closely at the range of English reading skills in a level 2 Māori-medium context, discusses the findings of each assessment measure, and discusses what makes an effective intervention.

5.2 Literacy and Language Experiences that have Shaped the Literate Cultural Capital of Year 1 Students in Level 2 Māori-medium Contexts

Studies relating to Literate Cultural Capital in New Zealand appear to be underpinned by deficit theories that position Māori children as lacking adequate levels of reading-related variables, which in turn are problematic to benefit from literacy instruction (Tunmer et al., 2006). Tunmer et al. (2013) found the difference in the skills and competencies important in English reading acquisition at school entry is largely due to low socio-economic status and/or culturally diverse backgrounds. Noticeably, the voices of Māori children and their whānau are absent from these studies to legitimately define what shaped their level of Literate Cultural Capital. The key principles underpinning the Kaupapa Māori methodological approach employed for this present study challenges the notion of New Zealand's current educational discourse and associated expectations of literacy achievement for Māori children beginning school.

The results of the present study seek to legitimise the literacy and language experiences that shaped the Literate Cultural Capital of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context. These are represented in the four key themes that emerged from the transcribed kōrero: emergent literacy experiences, the participants had exposure to more than one language in their home, language shift, and accessing bilingual pathways.

Whānau aspirations revealed there was a clear commitment to ensure their child acquired competent English emergent literacy skills whilst also trying to achieve bilingualism in English-Māori. Holdaway's (1979) study which examined how fluent readers in their first year of school acquired emergent literacy skills in their home environment, showed that a series of bedtime reading cycles had positive effects on early readers'

development of oral and written language. A similar pattern of findings was identified in the present study for most participants whom experienced a strong tradition of bedtime reading. This supports the idea that shared reading is a source of language learning as well as a skill itself.

Although not all domains of Literate Cultural Capital were measured in the present study, one particular participant scored poorly on receptive vocabulary, alphabet knowledge, decoding, phonological awareness, and reading comprehension measures, despite a strong tradition of bedtime reading and attending an early childhood education centre. What should be noted was this participant participated in the treatment control group and made minimal progress in developing essential alphabet knowledge, phonological awareness, and decoding skills. The results of this study are consistent with previous findings, showing an implicit response to reading acquisition does not constructively build on children's specific learning needs (Tunmer et al., 2006).

These findings also suggest how the downward spiral of negative Matthew Effects can develop and contribute to the status quo of literacy achievement patterns in New Zealand (Stanovich, 1986). The effects of a multiple cues approach for year 1 readers with specified differences in Literate Cultural Capital are likely to experience difficulties mastering the alphabetic code, inhibit efficient and reliable decoding strategies, and therefore impede the development of automaticity in reading (Juel, 1988; Pressley, 2006). Research has shown automaticity is key to reading for meaning and is one of the strongest predictors of reading achievement, particularly in the first three years of school (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008; National Reading Panel, 2000; Perfetti, 2007; Vellutino et al., 2007).

A closer look at the findings revealed one participant who appeared to have low levels of emergent literacy skills across all measures identified most of the English letter-names and corresponding sounds that paralleled with te arapū Māori (the Māori alphabet), in particular the vowels, but did not recognise the others. Furthermore for the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) pre-test this same participant commented, "Whaea, kaore e taea te pānui i te reo Pākeha" (I can't read English). This

infers the pseudowords visually parallel real words for this child. It could be argued this child's low level of Literate Cultural Capital could possibly be explained by the development of English as a second language or in conjunction with a third language. What this study failed to examine was the level of bilingualism children brought to the learning context that was shaped by the intergenerational language shift, exposure to more than one language in their home, and accessing bilingual pathways. The measures employed for this study revealed the participants' English reading-related skills and competencies only. The lack of evidence of children's alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness in the Māori language means that a definitive judgement of their Literate Cultural Capital cannot be made.

What should be noted was this participant participated in the intervention group and made rapid progress in developing the essential reading-related skills and competencies measured in English. The results of this study are consistent with previous findings, showing a shared reading approach that focuses explicitly on alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness makes a positive difference to developing children's English literacy skills (Tunmer et al., 2006, 2013).

5.3 The Range of English Reading Skills in Year 1 Level 2 Māori-medium contexts

The majority of poor readers apparent in the 2001, 2006, and 2011 PIRLS studies were largely Māori students and the persistence of this negative achievement pattern is of major concern (Tunmer et al., 2013). One of the biggest challenges in literacy education in Aotearoa is accommodating the differences in early cognitive English literacy knowledge and schools at school entry to produce equitable outcomes in later reading achievement (Nicholson, 2002; Tunmer et al., 2006; Wilkinson et al., 2000). The findings of the present study are consistent with previous findings, showing large variability in English emergent literacy skills of a sample of year 1 students entering school in a level 2 Māori-medium context (Nicholson, 2003). How the classroom reading programme responds to the diverse range of English reading-related skills children bring to their learning

can be the point of difference between developing skilled readers or poor readers.

The participants with the higher scores tended to be able to identify most of the upper-case and lower-case letter names and their corresponding sounds, they showed relatively high levels of phonemic awareness and were able to transfer their phonemic skills to encode phonetically and conventionally correct, as well as decode real words in isolation in comparison to participants with lower scores. Participants with lower scores struggled to identify more than two letter-names, more than four letter-sounds, had poor phonological and phonemic awareness, and struggled to encode and decode. The range in English reading skills proposes there are some children who are progressing positively towards mastering the constrained skills needed to decode, but also indicates there are others who will struggle to learn to read and possibly endure reading difficulties unless they receive some form of systematic intervention (Juel, 1988; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, 2003).

To prevent the range of emergent literacy skills from widening in later reading achievement and to effect a change in New Zealand's current pattern of disparity between poor and good readers from the outset of formal instruction, it has been suggested interventions that promote alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness should be part of a beginning reading programme. The findings of Tunmer et al.'s (2003) retrospective study identified an early intervention that promotes phonological awareness and alphabetic coding was highly effective in the development of reading acquisition, later reading achievement, and reducing inequitable outcomes between poor and good readers.

The results from this present study showed a six week intervention that focused on phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge can be beneficial for developing a range of cognitive emergent literacy skills for year 1 children in a level 2 Māori-medium context. Participants in this study who received the intervention scored higher than the treatment control group across all nine measures, significantly so on letter-name identification, phonemic awareness, pseudoword decoding, and invented spelling

measures. The progress in children's reading skills after an intervention that focuses on phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge, has also been demonstrated by Ryder et al. (2008) and Tunmer et al. (2003).

The results of the present study also demonstrated gains in emergent literacy skills for the treatment control group over the six weeks. The growth in emergent literacy skills from being engaged and immersed in meaningful sociolinguistic interactions is supported by research (McLachlan & Arrow, 2010; Phillips et al., 2004). However, all of the children in the intervention group made progress on their English reading skills despite their initial level of emergent literacy skills, whereas, three out of the four participants in the treatment control group showed minimal growth in alphabet knowledge, and no growth in pseudoword decoding, phonemic awareness, and conventionally correct invented spelling scores across the six weeks. This supports research that highlights simply being immersed in good models of written and oral language will not ensure competency in essential reading skills (Foster-Cohen, 2004; Gibbs & Nicholson, 1999; Tunmer et al., 2008; Tunmer & Nicholson, 2011).

5.4 Assessment Measures

Ten assessment measures of English reading skills have been categorised as: alphabet knowledge tasks, phonemic awareness tasks, decoding tasks, with reading comprehension and receptive vocabulary/oral language (PPVT) findings discussed separately as they were not explicitly taught in the intervention.

5.4.1 Reading comprehension.

The Simple View of Reading asserts reading comprehension is the product of two cognitive elements: decoding skills and linguistic comprehension skills (Gough & Tunmer, 1986). Reading comprehension was not explicitly taught as part of the intervention so there was no expectation that the scores between the two groups would differ significantly.

Interestingly the increase in alphabet knowledge, phonological awareness, and word recognition skills which developed during the intervention appeared to scaffold some of the children's reading comprehension ability as the mean score post-intervention was higher than pre-intervention. These findings support the decoding theory that skilled decoding is critical as it frees up cognitive resources to construct meaning, the aim of reading (Dymock & Nicholson, 2012, Pressley, 2006).

5.4.2 PPVT findings.

Oral language, along with alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness, has been shown to influence the acquisition of emergent literacy skills and later reading achievement (Lonigan et al., 2000; National Reading Panel, 2000). Despite direct and indirect effects of vocabulary knowledge in relation to reading comprehension, Nicholson (2003) found the receptive vocabulary of 111 children divided into the following SES groups, low-SES group (n = 88, mean age = 5.27) and high-SES group (n = 23, mean age = 5.26), were not significant in predicting reading acquisition in years 1 and 2.

In the present study the mean PPVT score was 90.88 (SD = 17.41), which indicates the linguistic comprehension of this particular sample is at an average level to support their decoding ability to gain meaning from text. The results may be explained by the quality of oral language interactions underpinning sociolinguistic practices of the home and promoted in *Te Whāriki: Early Childhood Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 1996) as is reflected in the results collated via whānau voice.

Although research shows oral language is important to the development of emergent literacy and later reading achievement, explicit teaching of oral language and vocabulary were not included in the intervention of the present study because research shows opportunities to explicitly develop alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness (that are both shown to be powerful predictors of reading achievement in year 1 than receptive vocabulary), are less prevalent in Aotearoa primary schools (Tunmer et al., 2013).

5.4.3 Alphabet knowledge.

Alphabet knowledge is known to be a strong predictor of future reading achievement (Nicholson, 2002). It has been suggested that alphabet knowledge underpins the alphabetic principle which in turn facilitates the understanding that letters represent sounds that blend together to form words (Nicholson, 2005, Moats, 2010). In the present study alphabet knowledge tasks were separated into letter-name and letter-sound knowledge. Research shows letter-name knowledge is considered a strong predictor of beginning reading achievement until children have reached the ceiling level of alphabet naming, then letter-sound knowledge becomes a better predictor (Adams, 1990; Foulin, 2005).

The gain in alphabet knowledge for both treatment control and intervention groups is consistent with studies that show positive correlations between the shared reading approach and emergent literacy skills (Justice et al., 2008; McLachlan & Arrow, 2010). However, Piasta and Wagner's (2010) recent meta-analysis found interventions targeting alphabet knowledge combined with phonological awareness exerted a greater influence in the development of children's letter-naming and letter-sound knowledge, letter-form recognition, ability to print letters, rapid letter-naming, and subsequent emergent reading skills, in comparison to interventions that developed alphabet knowledge.

In the present study, children who received the intervention scored higher than the treatment control group in both letter-name and letter-sound knowledge measures, significantly so on letter-name knowledge. The significant findings for letter-name knowledge parallels with Burgess and Lonigan's (1988) study that found letter-naming knowledge tends to develop earlier than letter-sound knowledge, which could explain why letter-sound knowledge was not statistically significant in the present study. Furthermore, it could be argued that a shared reading intervention that focused explicitly on alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness strengthened children's knowledge of letter-names.

The letter-sound knowledge of the eight participants in the present study were generally lower than the participant's letter-name knowledge

pre-intervention. Interestingly the letter-sound knowledge of the children who received the intervention was slightly higher than their letter-name knowledge scores post-intervention. Two of the participants had reached the ceiling level for the letter-sound task and the other two participants nearly reached ceiling level, in comparison to the treatment control group where only one participant (who began with strong alphabet knowledge) had reached the ceiling level for the letter-sound task. This finding indicates that alphabetic instruction with explicit phonemic awareness, increases the rate of letter-sound knowledge (Foorman, et al., 2003).

5.4.4 Phonemic awareness.

Phonemic awareness is seen as the most complex level of phonological awareness and refers to the ability to hear and manipulate individual sounds in words which is critical to reading success (Mraz et al., 2008; Nicholson, 2005).

Phonemic awareness can be divided into two different skills: synthetic (blending, deletion of initial phoneme, deletion of final phoneme, and phonemic segmentation) and analytic (substitution of initial and final phoneme). The present study showed the intervention groups' synthetic and analytical phonemic awareness skills significantly increased over the six week intervention. This finding can be explained by explicitly directing children's attention to the existence and manipulation of phonemes in spoken words, which is consistent with Ehri et al.'s (2001) study.

The connection between the treatment control groups' low level of letter-sound knowledge and low level of phonemic awareness relates with the findings of Juel's (1988) study that showed readers with little phonemic awareness at school entry struggled with letter-sound correspondences. Furthermore, Juel's (1988) findings illustrated there was an 88% chance that if a child had low phonemic awareness in grade one, the child will continue having reading difficulties in grade four. These findings indicate children in a year 1 level 2 Māori-medium context would benefit from explicit instruction to acquire phonemic awareness.

The significance of the invented spelling (phonetic and conventionally correct equivalence) analysis indicated that the intervention's group phonemic awareness and knowledge of grapheme-phoneme relationships had positive transfer effects to their phonological recoding ability to encode. A closer examination of the data suggests explicit and systematic teaching of phonemic awareness in a shared reading context scaffolds children's attention to hearing phonemes in words and to consciously apply their understanding of how words are formed, regardless of the differences in emergent literacy skills. The interaction between phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge in this measure demonstrated participants' metalinguistic understanding of the alphabetic principle, consistent with Tunmer et al.'s (2003) study. In contrast, the children in the treatment control group showed minimal progress of developing phonemic awareness or an understanding of the alphabetic principle in their invented spellings. The positive impact of the intervention on phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge suggests that it is possible to improve the level of phonemic awareness of year 1 children in a level 2 Māori-medium education setting to effectively understand the alphabetic principle than would otherwise have occurred.

5.4.5 Decoding.

In the present study, the key message represented via reading attitude survey data identified powerful evidence about the participant's understanding of the process of learning to read. All eight participants shared similar responses describing what they found difficult about reading, which were difficulty in recognising words. A closer examination of this emerging theme demonstrated year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context comprehend in order to achieve reading success, they first need to decode. The participants' perspective parallels with the Simple View of Reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986). Ideally, this is a valuable opportunity to privilege children's agency by truly responding to what they initiate as important in the process of reading acquisition. The present study demonstrated that explicitly teaching children phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge to decode, values student voice.

Thus, singing along to a song that integrates the alphabetic principle with a visual stimulus for each grapheme and the combination of systematic phonological awareness activities develops phonological recoding skills. In addition, explicitly linking phonological recoding skills to reading in-context enhances children's confidence and metalinguistic awareness of how words are structured to decode accurately in-context or in isolation. The results of the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) strongly suggests that the phonological-based shared reading intervention had positive transfer effects to pseudoword decoding skills. In contrast, the treatment control group appeared unsure of the irregularity of the pseudowords and tended to initiate 'real' words or made no attempt at all for all of the items in the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding Skills* (Bryant, 1975) measure.

The difference in results could be explained by the implicit approach to word recognition embedded in the treatment control group sessions. This approach encouraged the participants to work out unfamiliar words by integrating semantic, syntactic, and visual graphophonic sources of information, also known as text-based clues. The visual graphophonic sources of information privileges the larger phonological structures of a word (e.g., syllable) as they are easier to learn and identify than the individual phonemes in words. Therefore, it could be argued children who have been implicitly taught to recognise words are dependent on all three sources of information in-context to accurately decode. This could possibly suggest why the treatment control group had difficulty recognising pseudowords and words in isolation, as demonstrated in the *Bryant Test of Basic Decoding* (Bryant, 1975) and *Burt Word Reading Test* (Gilmore et al., 1981) results. Whereas, the intervention control group who were explicitly taught to hear, identify, and manipulate phonemes in words, could transfer their phonemic awareness to decode pseudowords, words in isolation, and words in-context more accurately than the treatment control group.

5.5 Effective Shared Reading Intervention for Level 2 Māori-medium Contexts

The findings of the present study strongly suggest the intervention was effective in improving the phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context. The positive effects of the present study could possibly be explained because the intervention was research-based and age appropriate. Reyna (2004) asserts that, "research – when it is based on sound scientific observations and analyses – provides reliable information about what words and why and how it works" (p. 47).

A theme that emerged from the reading profile and reading attitude surveys indicated the participants of the study had a positive attitude towards reading and viewed it as a social practice. The results infer young children value and benefit from the confluence of sociolinguistic interactions and reading. The nature of the findings supports Holdaway's (1979) study that highlighted the benefits of the shared reading approach to developing the acquisition of emergent literacy skills.

Traditionally the shared reading approach in New Zealand literacy programmes place emphasis on teaching beginning readers to decode words by using multiple sources of information from the text rather than phonological recoding strategies (Ministry of Education, 2003a, McLachlan et al., 2013). Thus, a modified shared reading intervention was designed based on research as the vehicle for promoting the essential cognitive reading-related skills for students to master in a sociocultural environment. It could be argued the tailored shared reading intervention in the present study was effective in scaffolding students' alphabet knowledge, phonemic awareness, and pseudoword decoding ability because it was research-based and age appropriate.

Both the intervention and treatment control groups attended the regular classroom literacy programme during the six week withdrawal intervention. However, the treatment control group had shown minimal progress in alphabet knowledge, decoding skills, and phonological awareness (see Figures 8 to 12). Whereas, the intervention group showed

positive effects for alphabet knowledge, phonemic awareness, and pseudoword decoding. These findings suggest that if the first year of literacy instruction does not include explicit and systematic phonemic awareness and alphabetic coding instruction it is likely to have a minimal effect on the cognitive development of the precursors to skilled reading.

The positive effects of the intervention in the present study could be explained by utilising the Simple View of Reading model as a framework for facilitating reading acquisition. Furthermore, this study supports Stuart et al.'s (2008) finding that regardless of the sociocultural and educational context of individual readers, readers have to develop both decoding and linguistic skills to become a competent reader as advocated by the Simple View of Reading. In the present study it could be argued the Simple View of Reading model aligns with empowering whānau aspirations for acquiring competent English emergent literacy skills.

Ryder et al. (2008) study is an example of a short term (24 weeks) research-based intervention that showed positive effects on phonological awareness, decoding ability, and context-free word recognition skills for struggling readers and were not only maintained two years after the intervention, but had generalised to word recognition accuracy in-context. The intricacies' of the intervention showed higher levels of phonemic awareness and alphabetic coding skills were systematically and explicitly taught to four groups of three children and each lesson was 20-30 minutes long. The design of this intervention adds to the knowledge base of essential conditions for an intervention programme to have long term effects on reading acquisition (Coalition for Evidence-Based Policy, 2003).

For any literacy intervention to be effective it must be based on scientific evidence and able to be implemented by classroom teachers within their literacy programmes. The nature of the intervention in the present study could easily be embedded within year 1 reading programmes as it promoted explicit instruction of phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge in a sociocultural environment.

5.6 Limitations

A number of methodological limitations of this study should be noted. Firstly, as the sample size is relatively small (*N* = 8) the degree of generalisability to the year 1 level 2 MME population is limited. A replication of this study with a larger sample size of participants across randomly selected level 2 MME cites would give greater representation and levels of confidence in the results.

The participants' ages ranged from 5 years 0 months through to 6 years 7 months. Therefore, the difference in age maturation is a potential factor that could have exert influence on the results. To account for the potential impact of the age variable, an ANCOVA statistical analysis was conducted with age as the covariate to measure the relationship between the intervention and the outcome due to a reduction in the amount of error. Matched pairs were formed and randomly assigned to either the intervention or treatment control group to eliminate bias.

Although during the semi-structured interviews every effort was made by the researcher to act as a neutral medium a certain degree of bias cannot be fully eliminated. To increase the reliability of the research findings the semi-structured interviews were recorded and transcribed. A copy of the analysed transcript was emailed to the interviewees to provide them with the opportunity to add, delete, or revise comments in order to increase accuracy. One interviewee made use of this opportunity and made minor adjustments to the transcript.

A factor that has the potential to threaten the degree of internal validity is the researcher implemented both the treatment control and intervention lessons, conducted, and marked assessments. To increase the reliability and validity of the research design, long term overviews for both the intervention and treatment control groups were planned and moderated, and informed individual lessons. Standardised assessment measures were employed and administration scripts were adhered to with high levels of accuracy.

5.7 Future Research

English reading research in year 1 level 2 MME contexts is scarce and possibly non-existent, thus, future research following from this study could help build on the knowledge base for this unique cohort in Aotearoa. Future research could also involve tracking the eight participants over two years to examine which reading skills correlate with later reading success. Alternatively a follow-up comparison between the intervention and treatment control groups reading development, could indicate whether the intervention had long-term effects on the participants' English reading skills. Another possibility for future research could be to include a home-school partnership shared reading programme that includes parents, whānau, and classroom teachers in the intervention to reciprocate the learning between home and classroom contexts. Furthermore, a study that investigates whether a phonological-based shared reading intervention has a positive cross-linguistic transfer effect on Māori reading skills in level 2 Māori-medium settings is yet to be explored. Future research could also involve working with year 1 level 2 Māori-medium education teachers to investigate whether the shared reading intervention could be implemented as part of a balanced literacy programme and to examine further how such an intervention sits within the aspirations of Māori-medium education.

5.8 Implications of the Study for Professional Practice

A formal judgement of Māori children's Literate Cultural Capital cannot be made simply using English reading-related measures. However, to prevent the range of English emergent literacy skills from widening beyond year 1 and to scaffold successful reading outcomes, research shows interventions that focus on powerful predictors of reading acquisition, phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge, need to be part of year 1 instructional reading programmes from the outset (National Reading Panel, 2000; Ehri et al., 2001). The findings of Tunmer et al.'s (2003) retrospective study also identified an early intervention that focuses on phonological awareness and alphabetic coding skills, to be a purposeful method in producing equitable outcomes for Māori children.

This study asserts the range of reading related variables at school entry for Māori children should not be perceived as deficit, rather the emergent literacy skills year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium context bring to the process of learning to read are complex and context dependent. Furthermore, alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness are key and a crucial foundation for enhancing their metalinguistic awareness to recognise words. Thus, explicit instruction is needed to support year 1 students to achieve competency in English reading skills.

5.9 Summary

This study showed a large range in emergent literacy knowledge of a sample of 8 year 1 children in a level 2 Māori-medium setting situated in an English-medium context. Alphabet knowledge and phonemic awareness have been shown to be strongly related to reading acquisition and later reading achievement. An evidence-based alphabet knowledge and phonemic awareness intervention was designed for the present study and implemented over a six week period. The post-test results showed that children who participated in the intervention increased their rate of progress in learning alphabet knowledge, phonemic awareness, and pseudoword decoding in comparison to the treatment control group. The results of the present study suggest a six week intervention that focuses explicitly on alphabet knowledge and phonemic awareness can benefit the development of essential English reading skills for year 1 children in a level 2 Māori-medium educational context. The present study supports previous phonological-based emergent reading research and suggests further emergent reading research possibilities, particularly in level 2 Māori-medium educational contexts.

5.10 Conclusion

The present study set out to examine 1) the literacy and language experiences that have shaped the literate cultural capital of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium educational context, 2) the range of English

reading skills that exist for year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium educational context, and 3) the effects of a shared reading intervention on the English reading skills of year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium educational context.

The four themes that emerged from the transcribed interviews were: (a) emergent literacy experiences, (b) exposure to more than one language, (c) language shift, and (d) accessing bilingual pathways. The themes contexualised the intervention and provided a legitimate insight into contributing factors that shaped the Literate Cultural Capital for the sample of participants in the present study. A holistic analyses of all the data in the present study infers definitive judgements of Māori children's Literate Cultural Capital cannot be made based on English reading-related measures alone.

A sample of eight year 1 students in a level 2 Māori-medium setting situated in a English-medium context were assessed using a range of measures to gather information on their phonological awareness, alphabet knowledge, and receptive vocabulary. The participants were divided into 4 closely matched pairs according to their reported phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge. The participants in each pair were then randomly assigned to either an intervention (n = 4) or treatment control group (n = 4). The results showed a range of emergent literacy skills and degrees of literate cultural capital. Over a six week period the intervention group received an evidence-based intervention focusing on phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge. The post-test results showed the intervention group made better progress in their reading skills that the treatment control group, significantly, in letter-name knowledge, decoding ability, phonemic awareness, and conventionally correct spelling. These results indicate that explicit instruction is required to develop phonological awareness and increase the rate of alphabet knowledge. The results further illustrated that when interventions are designed with regard to focus (phonological awareness and alphabet knowledge), duration (30 minutes a session), frequency (twice per week), and group size (small), they can be effective.

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Appendix A: Ethical Approval

MEMORANDUM

To:	**Kylie Te Arihi**
cc:	Dr Sue Dymock and Dr Nicola Daly
	Carl Mika
From:	**Associate Professor Linda Mitchell**
	Chairperson, Research Ethics Committee
Date:	5 April 2012
Subject:	Supervised Postgraduate Research – Application for Ethical Approval (**EDU022/12**)

Thank you for submitting the amendments to your application for ethical approval for the research project:

The effects of a shared reading intervention on the reading skills of Year One students in a Level Two partial immersion unit

I am pleased to advise that your application has received ethical approval.

Please note that researchers are asked to consult with the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee in the first instance if any changes to the approved research design are proposed.

The Committee wishes you all the best with your research.

Associate Professor Linda Mitchell

Chairperson

Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee

Appendix B: Consent Letters

Letter to Board of Trustees

5 April 2012

Tēnā Koutou Katoa,

My name is Kylie Te Arihi and I am a Masters student at The University of Waikato. I am planning to conduct a research project in [partial-immersion unit name removed]. I am writing to seek your permission to approach [Principal name removed], [Associate Principal name removed], [Class Teacher name removed], year 1 children and their parents/caregivers of [name removed]. I have a passion for reading, strengthening Māori student achievements and Māori-medium education.

I would like to evaluate English reading skills in Year One students and to implement an intervention focusing on emergent literacy awareness and to assess the benefits and effects this intervention has for bilingual students. I would also like to meet with their parents/caregivers to develop whakawhānaungatanga (the process of establishing positive relationships) and to gain background information of their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

There will be an intervention group and control group which will involve 4 or 5 students per group. Both groups will have two 30-minute sessions a week for six weeks. Although it will only be a selection of students participating, the results will help assess the benefits of teaching phonemic awareness explicitly through a Shared Reading approach for partial-immersion students.

[redacted].

Two important points need to be made clear:

1) The intention of my research is not to judge the provision of emergent literacy skills by the school, classroom teacher or parents/caregivers but rather acknowledge that some children regardless of their early literacy experiences will not acquire the knowledge of literacy fundamentals needed for optimal reading development simply by immersion.

2) My intervention is not to belittle Māori-medium education but to embrace and provide status and credibility to the values, beliefs and practices of Māori-medium education.

I acknowledge I am accountable to the professional community and especially to the participants, therefore, I will maintain communication between the researcher and key people in the school at all times. All data collected will be confidential and a pseudonym will be used to protect the identity of all participants. A final summary of findings will be available on request.

Participation in this study is voluntary. All participants are free to withdraw at any stage without explanation. If you have any questions regarding or require further information regarding this research, please contact me at home, [redacted], or by email, [redacted].

The University of Waikato Ethics Committee has approved this study.

I appreciate your time and welcome any questions.

Ngā mihi

Kylie Te Arihi

Consent to approach [Principal name removed], [Associate Principal name removed], [Years One/Two Classroom Teacher name removed], Parents/Caregivers and Year One Students of [partial-immersion unit name removed].

☐I have read and understood an explanation of this study.

☐I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

☐I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can conduct her research project in [partial immersion unit name removed] Year One class.

☐ I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can approach [Principal name removed] and [Associate Principal name removed] to discuss her research and seek written permission to conduct her study.

☐I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can approach [Class Teacher name removed], year 1 students and their parents/caregivers of [partial-immersion unit name removed] to discuss her research and seek written permission to conduct her study.

☐I understand if I have any concerns regarding this research that I prefer not to discuss with the researcher, I can contact:

Dr. Sue Dymock, Dr. Nicola Daly or the Chairperson of the Arts and Language Education Department, Dr. Margaret Franken
The University of Waikato,
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton
Phone: (07) 838 4500

☐I understand that the parent/caregiver needs to give written consent for their child to participate and the children are able to withdraw at any time from this project.

☐I am happy for Kylie Te Arihi to meet with the parents/caregivers of year 1 [partial-immersion unit name removed] students to establish a positive relationship based on trust and mutual respect as well as accessing background information relating to their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

☐I understand I can gain access to a draft copy for comment if I wish.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Please indicate whether you would like a summary of the study delivered to you.

☐ Yes, I do wish to have a summary of the study delivered to me.
☐ No, I do not wish to have a summary of the study.

Letter to principal

5 April 2012

Tēnā Koe [Principal - name removed],

I am embarking on a Masters of Education degree at The University of Waikato and planning to conduct a research project in [partial-immersion unit name removed]. I am writing to seek your permission to approach [Associate Principal name removed], [Class Teacher name removed], year 1 children and their parents/caregivers of [name of partial-immersion unit removed]. I have a passion for reading, strengthening Māori student achievements and Māori-medium education.

I would like to evaluate English reading skills in Year One students and to implement an intervention focusing on emergent literacy awareness and to assess the benefits and effects this intervention has for bilingual students. I would also like to meet with their parents/caregivers to develop whakawhānaungatanga (the process of establishing positive relationships) and to gain background information of their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

There will be an intervention group and control group which will involve 4 or 5 students per group. Each group will have two 30-minute sessions a week for six weeks. Although it will only be a selection of students participating, the results will help assess the benefits of teaching phonemic awareness explicitly through a Shared Reading approach for partial-immersion students.

Two important points need to be made clear:

1) The intention of my research is not to judge the provision of emergent literacy skills by the school, classroom teacher or parents/caregivers but rather acknowledge that some children regardless of their early literacy experiences will not acquire the knowledge of literacy fundamentals needed for optimal reading development simply by immersion.

2) My intervention is not to belittle Māori-medium education but to embrace and provide status and credibility to the values, beliefs and practices of Māori-medium education.

I acknowledge I am accountable to the professional community and especially to the participants, therefore, I will maintain communication between the researcher and key people in the school at all times. All data collected will be confidential and a pseudonym will be used to protect the identity of all participants. A final summary of findings will be available on request.

Participation in this study is voluntary. All participants are free to withdraw at any stage without explanation. If you have any questions regarding or require further information regarding this research, please contact me at home, [redacted], or by email, [redacted].

The University of Waikato Ethics Committee has approved this study.

I appreciate your time and welcome any questions.

Ngā mihi

Kylie Te Arihi

Consent to approach [Associate Principal name removed], [Class Teacher name removed], Year One students and their parents/caregivers of [Partial-immersion unit name removed].

☐I have read and understood an explanation of this study.

☐I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

☐I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can conduct her research project in [Partial-immersion unit name removed] year 1 class.

☐I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can approach [Associate Principal name removed], [Class Teacher name removed], year 1 students and their parents/caregivers of [Partial-immersion unit name removed] to discuss her research and seek written permission to conduct her study.

☐I understand if I have any concerns regarding this research that I prefer not to discuss with the researcher, I can contact:

Dr. Sue Dymock, Dr. Nicola Daly or the Chairperson of the Arts and Language Education Department, Dr. Margaret Franken
The University of Waikato,
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton
Phone: (07) 838 4500

☐I understand that the parent/caregiver needs to give written consent for their child to participate and the children are able to withdraw at any time from this project.

☐I am happy for Kylie Te Arihi to meet with the parents/caregivers of year 1 [Partial-immersion name removed] students to establish a positive relationship based on trust and mutual respect as well as accessing background information relating to their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

☐I understand I can gain access to a draft copy for comment if I wish.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Please indicate whether you would like a summary of the study delivered to you.

☐ Yes, I do wish to have a summary of the study delivered to me.
☐ No, I do not wish to have a summary of the study.

Letter to associate principal

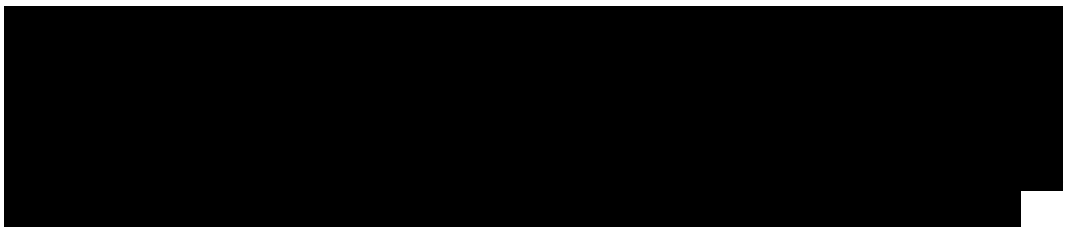
5 April 2012

Tēnā Koe [Associate Principal name removed],

I am embarking on a Masters of Education degree at The University of Waikato and planning to conduct a research project in [Partial-immersion unit name removed]. I am writing to seek your permission to approach [Class teacher name removed] and year 1 children and their parents/caregivers of [partial-immersion name removed]. I have a passion for reading, strengthening Māori student achievements and Māori-medium education.

I would like to evaluate English reading skills in year 1 students and to implement an intervention focusing on emergent literacy awareness and to assess the benefits and effects this intervention has for bilingual students. I would also like to meet with their parents/caregivers to develop whakawhānaungatanga and to gain background information of their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

There will be an intervention group and control group which will involve 4 or 5 students per group. Each group will have two 30-minute sessions a week for six weeks. Although it will only be a selection of students participating, the results will help assess the benefits of teaching phonemic awareness explicitly through a Shared Reading approach for partial-immersion students.



Two important points need to be made clear:

1) The intention of my research is not to judge the provision of emergent literacy skills by the school, classroom teacher or parents/caregivers but rather acknowledge that some children regardless of their early literacy experiences will not acquire the knowledge of literacy fundamentals needed for optimal reading development simply by immersion.

2) My intervention is not to belittle Māori-medium education but to embrace and provide status and credibility to the values, beliefs and practices of Māori-medium education.

I acknowledge I am accountable to the professional community and especially to the participants, therefore, I will maintain communication between the researcher and key people in the school at all times. All data collected will be confidential and a pseudonym will be used to protect the identity of all participants. A final summary of findings will be available on request.

Participation in this study is voluntary. All participants are free to withdraw at any stage without explanation. If you have any questions regarding or require further

information regarding this research, please contact me at home, [redacted], or by email, [redacted].

The University of Waikato Ethics Committee has approved this study.

I appreciate your time and welcome any questions.

Ngā mihi

Kylie Te Arihi

Consent to approach [class teacher name removed] and Year One students and their parents/caregivers of [partial-immersion unit name removed].

☐I have read and understood an explanation of this study.

☐I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

☐I understand by signing this form I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can conduct her research project in [partial-immersion name removed] year 1 class.

☐I agree that Kylie Te Arihi can approach [class teacher name removed] and year 1 students and their parents/caregivers of [partial-immersion name removed] to discuss her research and seek written permission to conduct her study.

☐I understand if I have any concerns regarding this research that I prefer not to discuss with the researcher, I can contact:

Dr. Sue Dymock, Dr. Nicola Daly or the Chairperson of the Arts and Language Education Department, Dr. Margaret Franken
The University of Waikato,
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton
Phone: (07) 838 4500

☐I understand that the parent/caregiver needs to give written consent for their child to participate and the children are able to withdraw at any time from this project.

☐I am happy for Kylie Te Arihi to meet with the parents/caregivers of year 1 [partial-immersion unit name removed] students to establish a positive relationship based on trust and mutual respect as well as accessing background information relating to their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

☐I understand I can gain access to a draft copy for comment if I wish.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Please indicate whether you would like a summary of the study delivered to you.

☐ Yes, I do wish to have a summary of the study delivered to me.
☐ No, I do not wish to have a summary of the study.

Letter to year 1 class teacher

5 April 2012

Tēnā Koe [class teacher name removed],

I am embarking on a Masters of Education degree at The University of Waikato and planning to conduct a research project in [partial-immersion unit name removed]. I have a passion for reading, strengthening Māori student achievements and Māori-medium education.

I am writing to ask if you will be happy for me to conduct my study in your class with your year 1 Students. I have been given permission from your Board of Trustees, Principal and Associate Principal of [parital-immersion unit name removed].

I would like to evaluate English reading skills in year 1 students and to implement an intervention focusing on emergent literacy awareness and to assess the benefits and effects this intervention has for bilingual students. I would also like to meet with their parents/caregivers to develop whakawhānaungatanga and to gain background information of their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

There will be an intervention group and control group which will involve 4 or 5 students per group. Each group will have two 30-minute sessions a week for six weeks. Although it will only be a selection of students participating, the results will help assess the benefits of teaching phonemic awareness explicitly through a Shared Reading approach for partial-immersion students.

Two important points need to be made clear:

1) The intention of my research is not to judge the provision of emergent literacy skills by the school, classroom teacher or parents/caregivers but rather acknowledge that some children regardless of their early literacy experiences will not acquire the knowledge of literacy fundamentals needed for optimal reading development simply by immersion.

2) My intervention is not to belittle Māori-medium education but to embrace and provide status and credibility to the values, beliefs and practices of Māori-medium education.

I acknowledge I am accountable to the professional community and especially to the participants, therefore, I will maintain communication between the researcher and key people in the school at all times. All data collected will be confidential

and a pseudonym will be used to protect the identity of all participants. A final summary of findings will be available on request.

Participation in this study is voluntary. All participants are free to withdraw at any stage without explanation. If you have any questions regarding or require further information regarding this research, please contact me at home, [redacted], or by email, [redacted].

The University of Waikato Ethics Committee has approved this study.

I appreciate your time and welcome any questions.

Ngā mihi
Kylie Te Arihi

Consent to conduct research in year 1 class.

☐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 by signing this form I am happy for Kylie Te Arihi to conduct her research project in my class.

☐I understand that the parent/caregiver needs to give written consent for their child to participate and the children are able to withdraw at any time from this project.

☐I am happy for Kylie Te Arihi to meet with the parents/caregivers of Year One [partial-immersion unit name removed] students to establish a positive relationship based on trust and mutual respect as well as accessing background information relating to their child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home.

☐I understand if I have any concerns regarding this research that I prefer not to discuss with the researcher, I can contact:

Dr. Sue Dymock, Dr. Nicola Daly or the Chairperson of the Arts and Language Education Department, Dr. Margaret Franken
The University of Waikato,
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton
Phone: (07) 838 4500

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Please indicate whether you would like a summary of the study delivered to you.

☐ Yes, I do wish to have a summary of the study delivered to me.
☐ No, I do not wish to have a summary of the study.

Letter to parents/caregivers

23 April 2012

Tēnā Koe,

My name is Kylie Te Arihi, [redacted] and I am also a Masters student at The University of Waikato. I am planning on conducting a study in your child's class at [school name removed].

I have a passion for reading, strengthening Māori student achievements and Māori-medium education and my study will be looking at **teaching reading to year 1 children in a partial-immersion bilingual class.**

My intention is to assess your child's beginning reading knowledge on up to two occasions during this study. Your child will be randomly selected to participate in one of the two reading groups for two thirty-minute sessions per week for six weeks. The activities are designed to be fun with a focus on games and books. This work will help us to understand how to further strengthen year 1 bilingual students' learning to read.

As I intend to work with your child I would value the opportunity to meet with you to establish whakawhānaungatanga and to discuss briefly your child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home for 15 minutes at [school name removed]. Please indicate your interest on the consent form and I will be in touch with you to arrange a time for the both of us to meet.

To protect your child's privacy, individual names will not be included in my final report. If you would like a final copy of my report, please provide an address at the bottom of this form, so I can send you one.

I have already discussed this project with the Board of Trustees and Principal of [school name removed]. They have given permission for me to undertake this research, as they see that many benefits will arise from it. My research project has also been approved by, The University of Waikato Ethics Committee.

If you are happy for your child to take part in this research, please send to school your signed consent form. If you would like to find out more, I will be available at [school name removed] from 1:30 to 3:00 p.m. on Friday 27 April. You will be able to ask any questions you have during this time. Alternatively, you could phone me at home [redacted], or by email, [redacted].

I appreciate your time and welcome any questions.

Ngā mihi

Kylie Te Arihi

Parents/Caregivers' consent form (to be returned to school)

This consent form explains how the rights of your child will be protected while he/she takes part in this project. Please read this paper, and if you are happy with your child taking part in this research, sign at the bottom and return it to school as soon as possible.

Name of parent/guardian: _____

Name of child: _____

Contact phone/mobile number: _____

☐ I understand the purpose of Kylie Te Arihi's research project and that by signing this form I am happy for my child to take part.

☐ I understand Kylie Te Arihi will assess my child's beginning reading knowledge up to two occasions.

☐ My child will not be personally identified in the research and the information will be confidential to Kylie Te Arihi and her supervisors, Dr. Sue Dymock and Dr. Nicola Daly.

☐ I know that at any time I can withdraw my child from this programme, up to the period when the research data is being processed (29 June 2012).

☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

☐ I am happy to meet with Kylie Te Arihi to establish a positive relationship based on trust and mutual respect as well as accessing background information relating to my child's early childhood experiences and language/s spoken at home. Kylie will contact me by phone to arrange a time.

☐ I understand if I have any concerns regarding this research that I prefer not to discuss with the researcher, I can contact:

Dr. Sue Dymock, Dr. Nicola Daly or the Chairperson of the Arts and Language Education Department, Dr. Margaret Franken.
The University of Waikato, Faculty of Education, Private Bag 3105, Hamilton
Phone: (07) 838 4500

☐ I am happy for Kylie Te Arihi to use the information from this project for the purpose of aMasters thesis she is completing.

☐ I can gain access to a draft copy of this thesis for comment when it is written.

☐ I would like a summary of the study and have provided a postal address at the bottom of this form.

Signed (parent/caregiver): _____ Date: _____

Postal Address: _____

Consent of the year 1 student

This sheet contains information that will be shared orally with the children. After sharing or during the sharing of this information I will encourage an informal discussion to bring up any worries, questions or problems the children may have.

Tēnā koutou katoa,

My name is Whaea Kylie and I am really excited about working with you in the afternoons. I am here because I am interested in reading books as well as playing letter and word games. I have some games and questions that we could work on together, would you like to do that now? Now if you don't want to that's okay, it is your choice.

Just so I know who would like to work on the questions and games I am going to give you all a piece of paper and we are going to think of some ideas of how we could show whether we want to take part or not…(write or draw ideas on a big sheet of paper).

Now even if you say yes now and you change your mind during the activities, that's okay too.

Does anyone have any questions they might want to ask?

Appendix C: Intervention Overview and Lesson Plans

LONG TERM OVERVIEW - INTERVENTION

TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi TERM: Two WEEKS: 5-10 YEAR: 2012

GROUP INTERVENTION

Emergent Literacy Skill focus	WK5 Session 1a & 1b	WK6 Session 2a & 2b	WK7 Session 3a & 3b	WK8 Session 4a & 4b	WK9 Session 5a & 5b	WK10 Session 6a & 6
Relating sounds to print (phonics)	- Phonics song 2 - Short vowel sounds mnemonic Letter sound and picture matching	- Phonics song 2 - Short vowel sounds mnemonic - Letter name, sound, phonic matching	- Phonics song 2 - Short vowel sounds mnemonic - Letter name, sound, phonic matching	- Phonics song 2 - Short vowel sounds mnemonic - Letter name, sound, phonic matching	- Phonics song 3 - Short vowel sounds mnemonic - Letter name, sound, phonic matching	- Phonics song 3 - Short vowel sounds mnemonic - Letter name, sound, phonic matching
Phonological awareness	Syllable awareness - identification	Syllable awareness -identification -blending	Syllable awareness - identification - blending	Syllable awareness - identification - blending	Syllable awareness - identification - blending	Syllable awareness - identification - blending
Phonemic awareness	2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Segmenting phonemes 4. Substitution of initial phoneme 5. Substitution of final phoneme	2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Segmenting phonemes 4. Substitution of initial phoneme 5. Substitution of final phoneme
Linking phonological base skills to context reading	Revise previous weeks sight words each week – to develop automaticity. Read/locate sight words on butterflies chart too.					
	my said the it's	up down over the my	it can see me is	over if you all	not no now	Over If They All me
Cross-checking strategies and rereading for meaning	Establish early understanding of cross-checking strategies to evaluate word level decoding strategies back in the context of the sentence for every prediction. Followed by rereading the sentence for meaning. Does it make sense? Does it look right? Does it sound right?					
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition	Five High frequency words (HFW) are selected from the text. Revise previous weeks sight words each week with tuakana/teina from their collection of HFW in their kete.					
	am for my I too	down my the up over	a can see you me	my said the no it's	the oh you	over if they all me

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="6">Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words in the list.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4"></td><td>Linking phonemic skills to spelling</td><td colspan="6">Dictation WALT: write the letters for the sounds that we hear in five one-syllable (CVC) words – using the short vowel sound focus of the week.
W.I.L.F
- to use their phonemic awareness
- to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships
Marking
- Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns
- Give corrective feedback</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>short u</td><td>short u</td><td>short i</td><td>short o</td><td>short e</td><td>short a</td></tr>
<tr><td>Shared Text</td><td>Too Big!</td><td>Bubbles</td><td>The Jigaree</td><td>It's My Bread</td><td>The New Cat</td><td>Dan, the Flying Man</td></tr>
<tr><td>Shared reading</td><td colspan="6">Same text is used for sessions a & b, focusing on emergent phonological literacy skills and embracing teachable moments.
Exploring Illustrations
- Go through each page of the shared text, looking and discussing the illustrations to help students gain meaning from the story as a whole.
- Link phonological and phonemic skills to support decoding of unknown words and/or interest words.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="6">Linking phonological-based skills to context reading
- Model word-level decoding skills to identify unknown words and/or interest words.
- Draw links between the students phonological and phonemic awareness ability and how they can apply it to read words they don't know.
- Evaluate predictions with cross-checking strategies and rereading for meaning.</td></tr>
</table>

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 1a	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : Too Big! by Materoa Tangaere **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Short vowel sounds **Letter focus:** Bb **Words from the text:** Big, big, bike, but	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Use Butterfly's alphabet chart to show the letters of the alphabet. Introduce the terms consonants and vowels. Each vowel has two sounds, a long and a short. The long vowel sound is easy peasy lemon squeezy, it just says it names. The short vowel likes to make you think. So I've got a great idea to help us remember the short vowel sounds. 3. Picture mnemonic activity to aid recall of short vowel sounds. Students to illustrate, An Egg In Orange Undies, and insert initial short vowels to complete mnemonic.		
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identified. **2-5. Oral Activities** – to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).		
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. Cover: I wonder why the boy is looking sad. Model how to use word level decoding skills to read the title e.g., What sounds can you see in the second word? Blend the sounds /b/ /i/ /g/. What is this word? Encourage children to cross-check. Does the title fit with the picture? What are the names of the letters? Lead to the idea of identifying the CVC pattern and understanding the 'v' means it is a short vowel sound. Read the title together and the names of the author and illustrator. p. 2-6: What is the boy thinking? p. 7: How is the boy feeling? p. 8: How is the boy feeling now? Why?		
Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending) - CVC patterns - Two vowels go walking the first one does the talking	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. p. 2 Model orally and on the whiteboard. Discuss the word level decoding strategy to the children e.g., /f/ /o/ /r/ = for. /J/ /ea/ /n/ /s/ = jeans. Encourage the children to cross-check and reread for meaning.		

Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.	p. 3 What is the boy thinking? How do you know? Model and discuss the word level decoding strategy to the children e.g., /T/ /s/ /h/ /i/ /r/ /t/ - encourage the children to cross-check, discuss why this attempt is not correct. Draw attention to the /sh/ digraph – two letters make one sound. Is the letter 'i' a short or long vowel sound? Try again, /T/ /sh/ /i/ /r/ /t/ = T-shirt. Cross-check and reread for meaning. p. 4 Listen to the children read the text themselves. Observe which children notice the /sh/ digraph and two vowels /oe/. Get children to model segmenting and blending the word 'shoe'. Encourage the children to cross-check and reread for meaning. p. 5-6: The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Support the children who appeared to need one-on-one support (identified from observations on o. 3-4) with the segmenting and blending decoding strategy. p. 7 I wonder how the boy is feeling...? Encourage the children to predict what might happen next. p. 8: Have a look at the first word. Let's cut up the sounds. How will we do that? Show working on whiteboard as well as orally, /b/ /u/ /t/ = but. Infer: What might the boy do with his old clothes and toys? Look at the picture on p. 8. What clues does it give us?	
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: am, for, my, I, too	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Add to kete.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. nut 2. bus 3. sun 4. hug 5. fun	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (can use Butterfly's alphabet chart for support) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback. * If time allows, reread text for fluency.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 1b	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : Too Big! by Materoa Tangaere **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Short vowel sounds **Letter focus:** Bb **Words from the text:** Big, big, bike, but	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Revisit the Butterfly's alphabet chart to show the letters of the alphabet and the terms consonants and vowels. Revisit the concept each vowel has two sounds, a long and a short. The long vowel sound is easy peasy lemon squeezy, it just says it names. The short vowel likes to make you think. So we've got a great idea to help us remember the short vowel sounds. 3. Revisit picture mnemonic activity to aid recall of short vowel sounds. Students to say and share their short vowel mnemonic illustrations. 4. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another card (e.g., 'volcano', 'house'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /h/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'house begins with the sound /h/, /h/ for house'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness ○ syllable identification ○ syllable blending ○ syllable deletion ○ syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identified. **2-5. Oral Activities –** to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Where does the story take place? - Who are the characters in the story? - What is the problem the character faces? Cover: I wonder why the boy is looking sad. p. 2-6: What is the boy thinking? p. 7: How is the boy feeling? p. 8: How is the boy feeling now? Why?	

Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending) - CVC patterns - Two vowels go walking the first one does the talking	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. - Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Read through the text together providing support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check. - Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'b' and start with the /b/ sound?	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: am, for, my, I, too	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise kete of words with Tuakana/teina.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. dug 2. bud 3. lug 4. cut 5. but	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (can use Butterfly's alphabet chart for support) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give explicit feedback. * If time allows, reread text for fluency.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 2a	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : Bubbles by Dot Meharry **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity <u>Consolidation activities</u> 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Short vowel sounds **Letter focus:** Bb **Words from the text:** Bubbles, bubbles, blew, birds	<u>WALT</u>: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Revisit picture mnemonic activity to aid recall of short vowel sounds. Students to say and share their short vowel mnemonic illustrations. 3. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another card (e.g., 'volcano', 'house'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /h/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the student's attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'house begins with the sound /h/, /h/ for house'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness ○ syllable identification ○ syllable blending ○ syllable deletion ○ syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	<u>WALT</u>: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities –** to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** <u>WALT</u>: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. Cover: What is the boy doing? Even if the students predict the title based purely on the illustration, still follow through with modeling how to use word level decoding skills to read the title e.g., What sounds can you see in the title? /b/ /u/ /b/ /b/ /l/ /e/ What are the names of the letters? Lead to the idea of identifying the CVC pattern and understanding the 'v' means it is a short vowel sound. Blend the sounds, what is this word? Encourage children to cross-check. Does the title fit with the picture? Read the title together and the names of the author and illustrator. p. 3: What direction is the bubbles going? (segment and blend /u/ /p/, up)	

	p. 4-6: Where are the bubbles going now? (segment and blend /o/ /v/ /e/ /r/, over) p. 7: What is the direction the bubbles going now? (segment and blend /d/ /o/ /w/ /n/, down) p. 8: What happened to the bubbles? Why? (segment and blend /p/ /o/ /p/, pop).	
Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending) - CVC patterns - Two vowels go walking the first one does the talking	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning.	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.	**3. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)** - Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'b' and start with the /b/ sound? - Lead children to make connections with the 'b' words in the 'Too Big!' text and add to their list of 'b' words. Infer: Why did the bubbles pop? Could this story be true?	
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: down, my, the, up, over **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise kete of words with Tuakana/teina. **3.** Go through Dolche word list using segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. nun 2. bug 3. bun 4. hut 5. tub	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (can use Butterfly's alphabet chart for support) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 2b	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : Bubbles by Dot Meharry **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Short vowel sounds **Letter focus:** Bb **Words from the text:** Bubbles, bubbles, blew, birds	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. 3. Play bingo using the Butterfly bingo alphabet set combined with the Phonics 2 song tune e.g., Show students the picture and sing "'o' is for 'orange' /o/ /o/ 'orange". Students to place counter on the relative letter on their bingo card. Encourage students to join in the singing.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities** – to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Where does the story take place? - What sort of day is it? - Who are the characters in the story? - What is the problem the character faces? p. 3: What direction is the bubbles going? (segment and blend /u/ /p/, up) p. 4-6: Where are the bubbles going now? (segment and blend /o/ /v/ /e/ /r/, over) p. 7: What is the direction the bubbles going now? (segment and blend /d/ /o/ /w/ /n/, down) p. 8: What happened to the bubbles? Why? (segment and blend /p/ /o/ /p/, pop).	

<table>
<tr>
<td>Linking phonological base skills to context reading
- Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending)
- CVC patterns
- Two vowels go walking the first one does the talking</td>
<td rowspan="2">2. Reading the text aloud together
WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words.
Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading.
- Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning.
3. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)
- Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves.
- With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'b' and start with the /b/ sound?
- Lead children to make connections with the 'b' words in the 'Too Big!' text and add to their list of 'b' words.
- Blow bubbles with tuakana/teina after spelling. Mimic positional language in the text e.g., 'Look the wind blew the bubbles up! They're going over the tree..'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-checking strategies
To confirm word level decoding strategies in context
- Does it sound right?
- Does it look right?
- Does it make sense?
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Words: down, my, the, up, over

Dolche word list: one (dark blue)</td>
<td>WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words.
Activities:
1. Read all words on the card as fast as possible
2. Revise kete of words with Tuakana/teina
3. Revise Dolche Word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking phonemic skills to spelling
- Dictation

Target sound/words:
To be recorded in student workbook.

1. rug

2. mud

3. rub

4. cub

5. pup</td>
<td>WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words.

W.I.L.F
- to use their phonemic awareness
- to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (can use Butterfly's alphabet chart for support)
Marking
- Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns.
- Give specific corrective feedback.</td>
<td>Formative Assessment:
- Anecdotal notes
- Student voice
- Teacher observations
- Student work</td>
</tr>
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<td colspan="3">Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, FTP = Future Teaching Points, W.I.L.F = What I am looking for</td>
</tr>
</table>

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 3a	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : The Jigaree by Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Ii **Words from the text:** is, it, I	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed.		
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities –** to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).		
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. Cover: 'I'm thinking about where this story has happened. The illustration is giving me a good idea... what is the boy wearing? What sort of character is behind him? I wonder what he is called? Model how to use word level decoding skills to read the title e.g., What sounds can you see in the title? /j/ /i/ /g/ /a/ /r/ /e/ /e/ 'jigaree'. What are the names of the letters? Lead to the idea of identifying the CVC pattern and understanding the 'v' means it is a short vowel sound. Blend the sounds, what is this word? Encourage children to cross-check. Does the title fit with the picture? Read the title together and the names of the author and illustrator.		

Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending, deleting and substituting initial phoneme) - CVC patterns - Rhyming words See, me, Jigaree here, there, everywhere	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning. - Identify rhyming words in the text. Teacher scribe them on the wall. Discuss the positional language and assign actions to each word to aid meaning. - Introduce concept of deleting initial phoneme and substituting the initial consonant to decode the word – model orally and on the whiteboard with the rhyming words identified from the text. - Encourage students to add other rhyming words to the list. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'i' and start with the /i/ short and long vowel sounds?	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: a, can, see, you, me **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise with Tuakana/teina **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. sit 2. hid 3. tin 4. hip 5. win	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (can use Butterfly's alphabet chart for support) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 3b	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : The Jigaree by Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Ii **Words from the text:** is, it, I	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. 3. Play bingo using the Butterfly bingo alphabet set combined with the Phonics 2 song tune e.g., Show students the picture and sing "'o' is for 'orange' /o/ /o/ 'orange". Students to place counter on the relative letter on their bingo card. Encourage students to join in the singing.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness ○ syllable identification ○ syllable blending ○ syllable deletion ○ syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities –** to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Where does the story take place? - Who are the characters in the story? - What is the problem the character faces? - How does the characters feel about the problem? - Good reader read the title, author and illustrator.	
Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending, deleting and substituting initial phoneme) - CVC patterns	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where	

- Rhyming words See, me, Jigaree here, there, everywhere	necessary. - Revisit concept of deleting initial phoneme and substituting the initial consonant to decode rhyming words. Encourage cross-checking and rereading for meaning.	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.	**3. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, sounds right and looks right. - Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves encouraging fluency and phrasing. - With Tuakana/teina locate rhyming words in the text. Teacher to scribe on the whiteboard. - Reinforce actions to aid understanding of positions for e.g., 'everywhere', 'here', 'there'	
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: a, can, see, you, me **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise with Tuakana/teina **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. hit 2. fix 3. tip 4. six 5. zip	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (can use Butterfly's alphabet chart for support) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

/ea/, long /oo/, long /ou/) - CVC patterns	- Model decoding words with changeable vowel sounds e.g., short /ea/ in 'bread', long /ou/ in 'mouse' and 'our'. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'm' and start with the /m/ short and long vowel sounds? Infer: Why did the ants get the bread? Who is the picnic for? How do you know?	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: me, said, the, no, it's **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** With tuakana/teina revise kete of words. **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. hot 2. mop 3. cob 4. not 5. box	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
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INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 4a	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : It's my bread by Diana Noonan **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Red	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Mm **Words from the text:** my, mouse	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card and say the name of the picture. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. Students keep their cards for the next game. 3. Present the Butterfly lowercase letter cards. Students are to say the letter name and its sound. If they have the Butterfly picture card that matches, they need to sing alphabetical principle e.g., "'w' is for 'watch' /w/ /w/ 'watch'. Repeat until all cards are claimed.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities** – to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure - relate to text to visual presentation e.g., contractions to aid decoding.	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. The title of the story is a strong support for reading the first and consecutive pages. Examine the contraction 'it's' on the whiteboard. Name the apostrophe and its purpose. Draw out the idea that contractions make writing sound more natural.	
Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending) - Changeable vowels sounds (short	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading.	

/ea/, long /oo/, long /ou/) - CVC patterns	- Model decoding words with changeable vowel sounds e.g., short /ea/ in 'bread', long /ou/ in 'mouse' and 'our'. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'm' and start with the /m/ short and long vowel sounds? Infer: Why did the ants get the bread? Who is the picnic for? How do you know?	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: me, said, the, no, it's **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** With tuakana/teina revise kete of words. **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. hot 2. mop 3. cob 4. not 5. box	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 4b	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : It's my bread by Diana Noonan **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Red	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 2 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Mm **Words from the text:** my, mouse	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 2 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. 3. Play bingo using the Butterfly bingo alphabet set combined with the Phonics 2 song tune e.g., Show students the picture and allow the students to identify the pictures alphabetical principle e.g., "'o' is for 'orange' /o/ /o/ 'orange". Scaffold students to the correct answer but don't tell them the answer. Students to place counter on the relative letter on their bingo card. Encourage students to join in the singing.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities** – to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure - relate to text to visual presentation e.g., contractions to aid decoding.	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - Where does the story take place? - Who are the characters in the story? - What is the problem the characters face? - How do the characters feel about the problem? (Look at their faces in the illustrations). - How was the problem solved?	

<table>
<tr>
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- CVC patterns</td>
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Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading.
- Revisit decoding words with the concept changeable vowel sounds e.g., short /ea/ in 'bread', long /ou/ in 'mouse' and 'our'.
- Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning.
3. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)
WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, sounds right and looks right.
- Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves encouraging fluency and phrasing.</td>
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Words: me, said, the, no, it's

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<tr>
<td>Linking phonemic skills to spelling
- Dictation

Target sound/words:
To be recorded in student workbook.

1. got

2. hop

3. pot

4. fox

5. jog</td>
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W.I.L.F
- to use their phonemic awareness
- to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge)
Marking
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INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 5a	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : The New Cat **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 3 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Hard Gg **Words from the text:** Gobble, gobble, greedy	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 3 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card and say the name of the picture. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. Students keep their cards for the next game. 3. Present the Butterfly lowercase letter cards. Students are to say the letter name and its sound. If they have the Butterfly picture card that matches, they need to sing alphabetical principle e.g., "'w' is for 'watch' /w/ /w/ 'watch'. Repeat until all cards are claimed.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities** – to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - What is mum feeding the cat? - Scribe the food the students identify on the whiteboard. - Select students to show the group how to cut up the word into its sounds and then blend them back again to make the word for each word. Providing support where necessary. - Introduce the 'magic e' concept for 'cake'.	
Linking phonological base skills to context reading	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read	

- Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending) - Changeable vowels sounds (e.g., short /ea/, long /ea/) - CVC patterns - Introduce 'magic e' concept	unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Model decoding words with changeable vowel sounds e.g., short /ea/ in 'bread' and long /ea/ in 'meat'. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story begin with 'G' and start with the hard /g/ sound? Infer: Mum's words remind me of something... Draw out the idea that Mum's words have become Greedy Cat's name. How does the cat feel? What is Katie thinking?	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: the, oh, you **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** With tuakana/teina revise kete of words. **3.** Go through dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. red 2. ten 3. set 4. hen 5. ted	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 5b	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : The New Cat **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 3 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Hard Gg **Words from the text:** Gobble, gobble, greedy	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 3 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. 3. Play bingo using the Butterfly bingo alphabet set combined with the Phonics 2 song tune e.g., Show students the picture and allow the students to identify the pictures alphabetical principle e.g., "'o' is for 'orange' /o/ /o/ 'orange". Scaffold students to the correct answer but don't tell them the answer. Students to place counter on the relative letter on their bingo card. Encourage students to join in the singing.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities** – to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).		
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - Where does the story take place? - Who are the characters? - What is the problem mum faces? - How does Greedy Cat feel about the problem? - What does Katie think about the problem? - How was the problem solved?		
Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words.		

(segmenting and blending) - Changeable vowels sounds (e.g., short /ea/, long /ea/) - CVC patterns - Introduce 'magic e' concept	Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Revisit decoding words with magic e and changeable vowel sounds e.g., short /ea/ in 'bread' and long /ea/ in 'meat'. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning.	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.	**3. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, sounds right and looks right. - Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves encouraging fluency and phrasing.	
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: the, oh, you **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** With tuakana/teina revise kete of words. **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. led 2. vet 3. met 4. beg 5. get	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 6a	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : Dan the flying man by Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 3 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Nn **Words from the text with final consonant sound:** Dan, man, can, train, ran	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 3 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card and say the name of the picture. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. Students keep their cards for the next game. 3. Present the Butterfly lowercase letter cards. Students are to say the letter name and its sound. If they have the Butterfly picture card that matches, they need to sing alphabetical principle e.g., "'w' is for 'watch' /w/ /w/ 'watch'. Repeat until all cards are claimed.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness ○ syllable identification ○ syllable blending ○ syllable deletion ○ syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities –** to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).	
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - Discuss the cover. The picture suggests the man is higher than the buildings. How is the man up so high? Draw the idea that the man is flying. What sounds does flying start with? Introduce the concept blends – two sounds that are blended together e.g., /f/ /l/ - 'fl' - Use CVC and blend knowledge to read the title.	
Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending)	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I	

- Final phonemes - Vowel digraphs /au/ - Two vowels go walking (e.g., long /e/ in people - CVC patterns - Introduce 'magic e' concept	want them to focus on during the reading. - Model how to use initial, vowel digraph /au/, and final phonemes in caught. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning. - With their tuakana/teina locate which words in the story end with 'N' and end with the /n/ sound as well as words that rhyme and record them on their whiteboards. Infer: Could this story be true?	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: over, if, they, all, me **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** With tuakana/teina revise kete of words. **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. sat 2. can 3. sad 4. cat 5. bat	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

INTERVENTION GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	**SESSION:** 6b	**TERM:** 2	**WEEK:**
Text : Dan the flying man by Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To know the letters and their sounds so we can read words, sentences and stories (learning map).		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print (phonics) - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge - Letter-name knowledge facilitates phonological sensitivity Consolidation activities 1. Alphabet/phonics song 3 2. Initial sounds **Letter focus:** Nn **Words from the text with final consonant sound:** Dan, man, can, train, ran	WALT: to read and say letter names and their sounds **Activities:** 1. Use laptops to view and sing along to Phonics Song 3 downloaded from YouTube. 2. Using the Butterfly picture cards play an initial sounds game e.g., Say the name of the picture on the card and place picture side up on the table, repeat for another two cards (e.g., 'umbrella', 'goat', 'duck'). Ask a student, which picture begins with /u/? If the student gets it correct, they take the card and say the name of the picture. If the students attempt is incorrect – ask them to say the names of the pictures and repeat the question. Whether their next response is correct or not, provide explicit feedback i.e, 'umbrella begins with the sound /u/, /u/ for umbrella'. Repeat for the next student, and so on until all the cards have been claimed. 3. Play bingo using the Butterfly bingo alphabet set combined with the Phonics 2 song tune e.g., Show students the picture and allow the students to identify the pictures alphabetical principle e.g., "'o' is for 'orange' /o/ /o/ 'orange". Scaffold students to the correct answer but don't tell them the answer. Students to place counter on the relative letter on their bingo card. Encourage students to join in the singing.	
Phonological and phonemic awareness 1. Syllable awareness o syllable identification o syllable blending o syllable deletion o syllable segmentation 2. Hearing rhyming words 3. Phoneme Blending 4. Deletion of initial phoneme 5. Deletion of final phoneme	WALT: to develop knowledge of letter-sound relationships; and to hear, identify and manipulate sounds in words. **Activities:** **1. Syllable awareness** - Use 8 of Butterfly picture aids to clap the syllables in each word the picture identifies. **2-5. Oral Activities –** to hear, identify and manipulates sounds in words (Refer Phonological and Phonemic Awareness oral activities attached).		
Exploring the illustrations - relate the text to the students experiences and to predict the something of its meaning and structure	**1. Introduce the text** WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - Where does this story take place? - Who are the characters in the story? - What is the problem the characters face? - What do they do about the problem? - What is the outcome?		

Linking phonological base skills to context reading - Word level decoding strategies (segmenting and blending) - Final phonemes - Vowel digraphs /au/ - Two vowels go walking (e.g., long /e/ in people - CVC patterns - Introduce 'magic e' concept	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: Use word level decoding strategies to read unknown words. Remind students of the word level decoding strategy I want them to focus on during the reading. - Revisit how to use initial, vowel digraph /au/, and final phonemes in caught. - Read through the text together providing segmenting and blending word level decoding support where necessary and reminding them to cross-check and reread for meaning. **3. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, sounds right and looks right. - Then listen and observe the children reread the text aloud themselves encouraging fluency and phrasing.	
Cross-checking strategies To confirm word level decoding strategies in context - Does it sound right? - Does it look right? - Does it make sense? - Reread for meaning.		
Linking phonological based skills to context free word recognition - 5 High Frequency words selected from shared text. **Words**: over, if, they, all, me **Dolche word list:** one (dark blue)	WALT: to develop automatic recognition of high-frequency words. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** With tuakana/teina revise kete of words. **3.** Go through Dolche word list for automaticity and/or segmenting and blending word level decoding strategy for unknown words.	
Linking phonemic skills to spelling - Dictation Target sound/words: To be recorded in student workbook. 1. nap 2. had 3. pat 4. jam 5. fat	WALT: write the letters for the sounds that I hear in one syllable words. **W.I.L.F** - to use their phonemic awareness - to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships (withdraw Butterfly alphabet chart, encourage students to rely on their knowledge) **Marking** - Model segmenting words into sounds and then write these sounds using known letters and letter patterns. - Give specific corrective feedback.	**Formative Assessment:** - Anecdotal notes - Student voice - Teacher observations - Student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points, **W.I.L.F** = What I am looking for		

Appendix D: Phonological and Phonemic Awareness Activities

Phonological and Phonemic Awareness

SESSION ONE & TWO

Hearing Rhyming Words (Hall & Moots, 1999)
We are learning to hear which words rhyme. Words rhyme if all the sounds are the same except the beginning sound. For example, cat and hat rhyme.

Each session we are going to listen and repeat some words to hear if they rhyme.

Which two words rhyme?
Say each pair of words and ask each student to repeat them.
Which two words rhyme?

1. mad/sad
2. cat/rat
3. go/top
4. in/lap
5. pig/big
6. run/sun
7. hit/sit
8. rip/bag

Phoneme Blending
We are learning to listen to sounds and blend them together to make a word.
For example, say /m/ /a/ /t/. What word is /m/ /a/ /t/?
say /c/ /u/ /p/. What word is /c/ /u/ /p/?

Ready?
1. Say /j/ /a/ /m/. What word is /j/ /a/ /m/?
2. say /s/ /a/ /d/. What word is /s/ /a/ /d/?
3. say /b/ /e/ /d/. What word is /b/ /e/ /d/?
4. say /r/ /a/ /p/. What word is /r/ /a/ /p/?
5. Say /y/ /e/ /s/. What word is /y/ /e/ /s/?
6. say /t/ /e/ /n/. What word is /t/ /e/ /n/?
7. say /t/ /a/ /g/. What word is /t/ /a/ /g/?
8. say /l/ /e/ /g/. What word is /l/ /e/ /g/?

Deletion of Initial Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the beginning (first/initial) sound of a word and then say the last sounds of the word.
For example, say mat. Now say mat without the /m/.
Say cup. Now say cup without the /c/. tricky

Ready?
1. say jam. Now say jam without the /j/. ✓
2. say sad. Now say sad without the /s/. ✓
3. say bed. Now say bed without the /b/. ✓
4. say rap. Now say rap without the /r/. ✓
5. say yes. Now say yes without the /y/. ✓
6. say ten. Now say ten without the /t/.
7. say tag. Now say tag without the /t/. ✓
8. say leg. Now say leg without the /l/. ✓

Deletion of Final Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the ending (last/final) sound of a word and then say the beginning sounds of the word.
For example, say mat. Now say mat without the /t/.
say cup. Now say cup without the /p/. tricky

Ready?
1. Say jam. Now say jam without the /m/.
2. Say sad. Now say sad without the /d/. TM ✓
3. Say bed. Now say bed without the /d/. ✓
4. Say rap. Now say rap without the /p/. ✓
5. say yes. Now say yes without the /s/. TM ✓
6. Say ten. Now say ten without the /n/. ✓
7. Say tag. Now say tag without the /g/. ✓
8. Say leg. Now say leg without the /g/. ✓

SESSION THREE & FOUR

Hearing Rhyming Words (Hall & Moots, 1999)
We are learning to hear which words rhyme. Words rhyme if all the sounds are the same except the beginning sound. For example, cat and hat rhyme.

Each session we are going to listen and repeat some words to hear if they rhyme.

Which two words rhyme?
Say each pair of words and ask each student to repeat them.
Which two words rhyme?

1. ten/pen
2. hop/mop
3. sing/ring
4. pit/mitt
5. red/bed
6. pill/hill
7. get/let
8. him/but

Phoneme Blending
We are learning to listen to sounds and blend them together to make a word.
For example, say /m/ /e/ /t/. What word is /m/ /e /t/?
say /s/ /a/ /d/. What word is /s/ /a/ /d/?

Ready?
1. Say /p/ /i/ /g/. What word is /p/ /i/ /g/?
2. say /d/ /a/ /d/. What word is /d/ /a/ /d/?
3. say /r/ /e/ /d/. What word is /r/ /e/ /d/?
4. say /n/ /a/ /p/. What word is /n/ /a/ /p/?
5. Say /g/ /a/ /s/. What word is /g/ /a/ /s/?
6. say /h/ /e/ /n/. What word is /h/ /e//n/?
7. say /b/ /a/ /g/. What word is /b/ /a//g/?
8. say /p/ /e/ /g/. What word is /p/ /e//g/?

Deletion of Initial Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the beginning (first/initial) sound of a word and then say the last sounds of the word.
For example, say met. Now say met without the /m/.
Say sad. Now say sad without the /s/.

Ready?
1. say pig. Now say pig without the /p/.
2. say dad. Now say dad without the /d/.
3. say red. Now say red without the /r/.
4. say nap. Now say nap without the /n/.
5. say gas. Now say gas without the /g/.
6. say hen. Now say hen without the /h/.
7. say bag. Now say bag without the /b/.
8. say peg. Now say peg without the /p/.

Deletion of Final Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the ending (last/final) sound of a word and then say the beginning sounds of the word.
For example, say mat. Now say met without the /t/.
say cup. Now say sad without the /d/.

Ready?
1. Say pig. Now say pig without the /g/.
2. Say dad. Now say dad without the /d/.
3. Say red. Now say red without the /d/.
4. Say nap. Now say nap without the /p/.
5. say gas. Now say gas without the /s/.
6. Say hen. Now say hen without the /n/.
7. Say bag. Now say bag without the /g/.
8. Say peg. Now say peg without the /g/.

SESSION FIVE & SIX

Hearing Rhyming Words (Hall & Moots, 1999)
We are learning to hear which words rhyme. Words rhyme if all the sounds are the same except the beginning sound. For example, cat and hat rhyme.

Each session we are going to listen and repeat some words to hear if they rhyme.

Which two words rhyme?
Say each pair of words and ask each student to repeat them.
Which two words rhyme?

1. map/lap
2. tip/lip
3. lamp/camp
4. rest/test
5. fox/box
6. shoe/sit
7. red/ran
8. my/by

Phoneme Blending
We are learning to listen to sounds and blend them together to make a word.
For example, say /b/ /e/ /t/. What word is /b/ /e /t/?
say /p/ /a/ /d/. What word is /p/ /a/ /d/?

Ready?
1. Say /w/ /i/ /g/. What word is /w/ /i/ /g/?
2. say /m/ /a/ /d/. What word is /m/ /a/ /d/?
3. say /T/ /e/ /d/. What word is /T/ /e/ /d/?
4. say /n/ /i/ /p/. What word is /n/ /i/ /p/?
5. Say /f/ /o/ /g/. What word is /f/ /o/ /g/?
6. say /p/ /e/ /n/. What word is /p/ /e/ /n/?
7. say /b/ /a/ /t/. What word is /b/ /a/ /t/?
8. say /p/ /o/ /p/. What word is /p/ /o/ /p/?

Deletion of Initial Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the beginning (first/initial) sound of a word and then say the last sounds of the word.
For example, say bet. Now say bet without the /b/.
Say pad. Now say pad without the /p/.

Ready?
1. say wig. Now say wig without the /w/.
2. say mad. Now say mad without the /m/.
3. say Ted. Now say Ted without the /T/.
4. say nip. Now say nip without the /n/.
5. say fog. Now say fog without the /f/.
6. say pen. Now say pen without the /p/.
7. say bat. Now say bat without the /b/.
8. say pop. Now say pop without the /p/.

Deletion of Final Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the ending (last/final) sound of a word and then say the beginning sounds of the word.
For example, say bet. Now say bet without the /t/.
say pad. Now say pad without the /d/.

Ready?
1. Say wig. Now say wig without the /g/.
2. Say mad. Now say mad without the /d/.
3. Say Ted. Now say Ted without the /d/.
4. Say nip. Now say nip without the /p/.
5. say fog. Now say fog without the /g/.
6. Say pen. Now say pen without the /n/.
7. Say bat. Now say bat without the /t/.
8. Say pop. Now say pop without the /p/.

SESSION SEVEN & EIGHT

Hearing Rhyming Words (Hall & Moots, 1999)
We are learning to hear which words rhyme. Words rhyme if all the sounds are the same except the beginning sound. For example, cat and hat rhyme.

Each session we are going to listen and repeat some words to hear if they rhyme.

Which two words rhyme?
Say each pair of words and ask each student to repeat them.
Which two words rhyme?

1. day/say
2. leg/peg
3. tree/bee
4. now/nap
5. nose/rose
6. sock/soup
7. tie/by
8. spoon/moon

Phoneme Blending
We are learning to listen to sounds and blend them together to make a word.
For example, say /b/ /i/ /t/. What word is /b/ /i/ /t/?
Say /f/ /u/ /n/. What word is /f/ /u/ /n/?

Ready?
1. Say /t/ /u/ /g/. What word is /t/ /u/ /g/?
2. Say /b/ /u/ /t/. What word is /b/ /u/ /t/?
3. Say /r/ /i/ /p/. What word is /r/ /i/ /p/?
4. Say /s/ /u/ /n/. What word is /s/ /u/ /n/?
5. Say /h/ /o/ /t/. What word is /h/ /o/ /t/?
6. Say /b/ /i/ /g/. What word is /b/ /i/ /g/?
7. Say /s/ /a/ /t/. What word is /s/ /a/ /t/?
8. Say /d/ /o/ /g/. What word is /d/ /o/ /g/?

Deletion of Initial Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the beginning (first/initial) sound of a word and then say the last sounds of the word.
For example, say bit. Now say bit without the /b/.
Say fun. Now say fun without the /f/.

Ready?
1. Say tug. Now say tug without the /t/.
2. Say but. Now say but without the /b/.
3. Say rip. Now say rip without the /r/.
4. Say sun. Now say sun without the /s/.
5. Say hot. Now say hot without the /h/.
6. Say big. Now say big without the /b/.
7. Say sat. Now say sat without the /s/.
8. Say dog. Now say dog without the /d/.

Deletion of Final Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the ending (last/final) sound of a word and then say the beginning sounds of the word.
For example, say bat. Now say bit without the /t/.
Say pod. Now say fun without the /n/.

Ready?
1. Say tug. Now say tug without the /g/.
2. Say but. Now say but without the /t/.
3. Say rip. Now say rip without the /p/.
4. Say sun. Now say sun without the /n/.
5. Say hot. Now say hot without the /t/.
6. Say big. Now say big without the /g/.
7. Say sat. Now say sat without the /t/.
8. Say dog. Now say dog without the /g/.

SESSION NINE & TEN

Hearing Rhyming Words (Hall & Moots, 1999)
We are learning to hear which words rhyme. Words rhyme if all the sounds are the same except the beginning sound. For example, cat and hat rhyme.

Each session we are going to listen and repeat some words to hear if they rhyme.

Which two words rhyme?
Say each pair of words and ask each student to repeat them.
Which two words rhyme?

1. mice/nice
2. ten/top
3. fix/mix
4. tall/toe
5. light/bite
6. cup/pup
7. fair/pair
8. sad/sleep

Segmenting Phonemes
We are learning to listen to the sounds in words and segment (cut up) their sounds into parts.
For example, say bat. What sounds are in bat?
say pod. What sounds are in pod?

Ready?
1. Say dig. What sounds are in dig?
2. say tap. What sounds are in tap?
3. say bed. What sounds are in bed?
4. say tip. What sounds are in tip?
5. Say pot. What sounds are in pot?
6. say bet. What sounds are in bet?
7. say hat. What sounds are in hat?
8. say log. What sounds are in log?

Substitution of Initial Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the beginning (first/initial) sound of a word and then replace that sound with a new sound.
For example, say bat. Now, instead of /b/, start the new word with /f/.
Say pod. Now, instead of /p/, start the new word with /s/.

Ready?
1. say dig. Now, instead of /d/, start the new word with /f/.
2. say tap. Now, instead of /t/, start the new word with /m/.
3. say bed. Now, instead of /b/, start the new word with /t/.
4. say tip. Now, instead of /t/, start the new word with /s/.

Substitution of Final Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the ending (last/final) sound of a word and then replace that sound with a new sound.
For example, say bat. Now, instead of /t/, end the new word with /n/.
say pod. Now, instead of /d/, end the new word with /p/.

Ready?
1. Say dig. Now, instead of /g/, end the new word with /p/.
2. Say tap. Now, instead of /p/, end the new word with /n/.
3. Say bed. Now, instead of /d/, end the new word with /t/.
4. Say tip. Now, instead of /p/, end the new word with /c/.

SESSION ELEVEN & TWELVE

Hearing Rhyming Words (Hall & Moots, 1999)
We are learning to hear which words rhyme. Words rhyme if all the sounds are the same except the beginning sound. For example, cat and hat rhyme.

Each session we are going to listen and repeat some words to hear if they rhyme.

Which two words rhyme?
Say each pair of words and ask each student to repeat them.
Which two words rhyme?

1. man/mop
2. dress/mess
3. round/pound
4. back/boss
5. moss/boss
6. rain/train
7. like/lick
8. sail/trail

Segmenting phonemes
We are learning to listen to the sounds in words and segment (cut up) their sounds into parts.
For example, say but. What sounds are in but?
Say run. What sounds are in run?

Ready?
1. Say rug. What sounds are in rug.
2. Say hut. What sounds are in hut?
3. Say lip. What sounds are in lip?
4. Say gun. What sounds are in gun?
5. Say not. What sounds are in not?
6. Say win. What sounds are in win?
7. Say mat. What sounds are in mat?
8. Say job. What sounds are in job?

Substitution of Initial Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the beginning (first/initial) sound of a word and then replace that sound with a new sound.
For example, say but. Now, instead of /b/, start the new word with /h/.
Say run. Now, instead of /r/, start the new word with /s/.

Ready?
1. Say rug. Now, instead of /r/, start the new word with /h/.
2. Say hut. Now, instead of /h/, start the new word with /n/.
3. Say lip. Now, instead of /l/, start the new word with /t/.
4. Say gun. Now, instead of /g/, start the new word with /f/.

Substitution of Final Phoneme
We are learning to delete (take away) the ending (last/final) sound of a word and then replace that sound with a new sound.
For example, say but. Now, instead of /t/, end the new word with /n/.
Say run. Now, instead of /n/, end the new word with /g/.

Ready?
1. Say rug. Now, instead of /g/, end the new word with /t/.
2. Say hut. Now, instead of /t/, end the new word with /g/.
3. Say lip. Now, instead of /p/, end the new word with /d/.
4. Say gun. Now, instead of /n/, end the new word with /t/.

Appendix E: Treatment Control Overview and Lesson Plans

LONG TERM OVERVIEW - CONTROL

TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi TERM: Two WEEKS: 5-10 YEAR: 2012

	EMERGENT LITERACY SKILL FOCUS	WK 5 Session 1a & 1b	WK 6 Session 2a & 2b	WK 7 Session 3a & 3b	WK 8 Session 4a & 4b	WK 9 Session 5a & 5b	WK 10 Session 6a & 6b
CONTROL GROUP	**RELATING SOUNDS TO PRINT** • Letter-name knowledge • Letter-sound knowledge * each letter-name is the focus for two sessions	Bb Big big Bike but	Bb Bubbles bubbles blew birds	Ii Is It I	Mm My mouse	Hard Gg Gobble gobble	Final Nn Dan Man Can Train Ran
	CONVENTIONS ABOUT PRINT	Exclamation mark	Bold print and changes in text size	Comma	Speech marks Contraction	Speech marks Comma Exclamation mark	Capital letters Fullstops
	LINKING MSV TO CONTEXT READING	Decode unknown words using MSV contextual cues e.g., Initial consonant sound, confirmed by illustrations and cross-checking strategies					
	CROSS-CHECKING STRATEGIES	Establish early understanding of cross-checking strategies and reinforce concepts each lesson, for every prediction. Does it make sense? Does it look right? Does it sound right?					
	SIGHT WORD RECOGNITION from shared text	Revise previous weeks sight words each week, collecting a kete of words. Am For My I too	Down My The Up over	A Can See You me	My Said The No It's	The Oh you	Over If They All me
	SHARED TEXT Has letter-sound and sight-word focuses	Too Big!	Bubbles	The Jigaree	It's My Bread	The New Cat	Dan, the flying man.
	SHARED READING	Same text used for sessions one and two. Focusing on emergent literacy skills and embracing teachable moments.					

Post Assessments: At the end of Week 10 (Thursday and Friday) I will administer all post-assessments for both intervention and control groups.

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 1a	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: Too Big! by Materoa Tangaere **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Bb **Words from text:** 'Big', 'big', 'bike', 'but'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the illustration on the front cover and what the boy is doing. - Encourage the response 'too big' rather than 'too small'. - What do you think the title is called? - Encourage the children to predict the title and to cross-check. - Does the title have the letters you expect to see? - Draw the students attention to the letter 'B' and review its sound. - Does that title fit with the picture? - Read the title together and the names of the author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'B' and its sound. - Which words on p. 2 start with 'B'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Exclamation mark for emphasis in the title and on p. 8.	WALT: read exclamation marks. - Draw children's attention to the exclamation mark in the title. - What is it? - What does it mean? - How does the author want you to read the title? - Practice reading the title together expressively.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. Cover: I wonder why the boy is looking sad. p. 2-6: What is the boy thinking? p. 7: How is the boy feeling? p. 8: How is the boy feeling now? Why?		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. p. 2: What is the boy thinking? Could that word be pants? Why not? Look at the picture. What else could it be? Are you right this time? How do you know? p. 3: What is the boy thinking? Look at the picture? How do you know? p. 4-6: The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Listen to the children read the text themselves, observing their one-to-one matching and providing support and feedback as necessary. Encourage use of cross-checking strategies p. 7: I wonder how the boy is feeling...? Encourage children to predict what might happen next. p. 8: Have a look at the first word. What does it begin with? What sound does it make? Have a look at what the		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?			

	sentence ends with. How does the author want you to read this sentence? Practice reading the sentence together expressively. Infer: What might the boy do with his old clothes and toys? Look at the picture on p. 8. What clues does it give us?	
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text Am, for, my, I, too	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Add to kete of words.	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Listen to the children reread the text. Go through each page and find all the words that start with 'B' or 'b'. What other words do you know that begin with 'B'? Write them on the whiteboard and read them aloud together Independent writing modeled on the text – children to draw and write about something they have grown out of .	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 1b	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: Too Big! by Materoa Tangaere **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Bb **Words from text:** 'Big', 'big', 'bike', 'but'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the illustration on the front cover and what the boy is doing. - Read the text together without delay - Good readers always read the title, author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'B' and its sound. - Which words in the story start with 'B'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Exclamation mark for emphasis in the title and on p. 8.	WALT: read exclamation marks. - Revisit awareness of exclamation mark. - Where is the exclamation mark used in the story? - How does the author want you to read the title and the sentence on p. 8? - Practice reading the title together expressively.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Looking at the illustrations on each page when reading to help children gain meaning from the whole story. Cover: Why is the boy is looking sad? p. 2-6: What is the boy thinking? p. 7: How is the boy feeling? p. 8: How is the boy feeling now? Why?		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together (without teacher)** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. - Listen to the children reread the text, observing their one-to-one matching and how they manage the change in text pattern on the last page. - Encourage use of cross-checking strategies		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?	Infer: What might the boy do with his old clothes and toys? Look at the picture on p. 8. What clues does it give us?		
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text Am, for, my, I, too	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Add to kete of words.		

Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Locate high frequency words in the text e.g., find the word 'am' on p. 2. Can you find 'am' on the next page? Tell me the letters in the word. Alphabet bingo. Have some items of clothing that the children are too big to fit into for them to dramatize the story with their Tuakana/teina. Optional to share act or yesterday's writing with the whole group, or reread text replicating shared reading experience.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 2a	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: Bubbles by Dot Meharry **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Bb **Words from text:** 'Bubbles', 'bubbles', 'blew', 'birds'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the illustration on the front cover and what the boy is doing. - What do you think the title is called? - Encourage the children to predict the title and to cross-check. - Does the title have the letters you expect to see? - Draw the students attention to the letter 'B' and review its sound. - Does that title fit with the picture? - Read the title together and the names of the author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'B' and its sound. - Which words on p. 2 start with 'B'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Bold print and changes in text size for emphasis	WALT: read bold print and understand purpose in changes of text size. - How are the words on p. 3 positioned? - How does the author want you to read this sentence? - Practice reading the sentence together expressively. - Repeat for p. 4-6, 7 and 8.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. – Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the story as a whole. – P. 3 What direction is the bubbles going? (up) – P. 4-6 Where are the bubbles going now? (over) – P. 7 What direction is the bubbles going now? (down) – P. 8 What happened to the bubbles? Why? (pop)		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies Positional language	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense. p. 2 I'm thinking about what sort of day it is in this story. The illustration is giving me a good idea... Where are the bubbles going? P. 4 Have a look at the picture. Think about the direction the bubbles are going? p. 3 What happened to the bubbles? How does the author want you to say these words? p. 5 Where are the bubbles going now? What letter will you expect 'over' to begin with? What sound does it make? The letter is saying its name. p. 6 Where are the bubbles going now? What letter will you expect to see for 'down'? p. 7 What are happening to the bubbles? How does the author want you to say these words? Encourage the children to predict – note that the hedgehog is just visible in the bottom right-hand corner of the page. Point to the top right hand side.		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?			

	p. 8 What happened to the bubbles? How does the author want you to say these words? What sound does 'hedgehog' begin with? What letter makes that sound? Practise reading the sentence together expressively. Infer: Why did the bubbles pop? Could this story be true?	
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text Down, my, the, up, over	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise previous weeks sight words **3.** Add to kete of words.	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Listen to the children reread the text. Go through each page and find all the words that start with 'B' or 'b'. What other words do you know that begin with 'B'? Write them on the whiteboard and read them aloud together. Encourage the children to make connections with the previous text, 'Too Big!' Have the children think, pair and share their responses to the illustrations. Which is their favorite illustration and why?	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 2b	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: Bubbles by Dot Meharry **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Bb **Words from text:** 'Bubbles', 'bubbles', 'blew', 'birds'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the illustration on the front cover and what the boy is doing. - Read the text together without delay. - Good readers always read the title, author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'B' and its sound. - Which words in the story start with 'B'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Bold print and changes in text size for emphasis	WALT: read bold print and understand purpose in changes of text size. - Revisit awareness of bold print and changes in text size for emphasis. - How does the author want you to read this print? - Practice reading the sentence together expressively.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. – Look at the illustrations on each page when reading to help children gain meaning from the story as a whole. – P. 3 What direction is the bubbles going? (up) – P. 4-6 Where are the bubbles going now? (over) – P. 7 What direction is the bubbles going now? (down) – P. 8 What happened to the bubbles? Why? (pop)		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies Positional language	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense. - Listen to the children reread the text, observing their one-to-one matching and how they manage the change in text pattern on the last page. - Practise reading the sentence together expressively. - Encourage and model use of cross-checking strategies.		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?	Infer: Why did the bubbles pop? Could this story be true?		
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text Down, my, the, up, over	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise previous weeks sight words and letter focus words too **3.** Add to kete of words.		

Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Locate high frequency words in the text e.g., find the word 'my' on p. 2. Can you find 'my' on the next page? Tell me the letters in the word. Use whiteboards and magnetic letters to say, spell, write, make and read sight words and focus words with their Tuakana/teina. Blow bubbles with Tuakana/teina. As the students blow bubbles, mimic positional language in the text e.g., 'Look the wind blew the bubbles up! They're going over the tree'.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 3a	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: The Jigaree by Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Ii **Words from text:** 'is', 'I', 'it'	**1. Introduce the text** - Discuss the cover of the book and what the boy is doing. - Encourage the students to predict the title and to cross-check. - *What do you think the title is called?* - *Does the title have the letters you expect to see?* - *Does that fit with the picture?* - Read the title together and the names of the author and the illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'I' and its sounds. - Which words on p. 3 start with 'I'? - Discuss the different sounds for 'I'.		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Comma	WALT: read a comma. - What is a comma? - What does it mean? - How does the author want you to read the sentence with a comma on p. 3? - Practice reading the sentence together expressively.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. – Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the story as a whole. – Cover: *I'm thinking about where this story has happened. The illustration is giving me a good idea...what is the boy wearing? What sort of character is behind him?*		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense. – p. 2-4: *What are the boy and the jigaree doing?* – p. *6-10: The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Listen to the children read the text themselves, observing their one-to-one word matching. Engage in the 'teachable moments' for decoding unknown words.* – *p.12-14: What are the boy and the jigaree doing? Does the jigaree like it? Why?* – *p. 15: Why is the jigaree and the boys faces looking sad?* – *What do you think will happen next?* – *p.16: Who do you think the other characters are?* Infer: Why did the jigaree lie on the ground? Could this story be true?		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?			

Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text a, can, see, you, me	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise previous weeks sight words	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Independent writing using Letter focus words and basic sight words to complete sentence structure e.g., I can see a jigaree. Followed by an illustration of a jigaree. Read writing to Tuakana/teina.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 3b	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: The Jigaree by Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** li **Words from text:** 'is', 'I', 'it'	**1. Introduce the text** - Discuss the cover of the book and what the boy is doing. - Encourage the students to predict the title and to cross-check. - Read the text together without delay. - Good readers always read the title, author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'I' and its sounds. - Which words in the story start with 'I'? - Revisit the different sounds for 'I'.		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Comma	WALT: read a comma. - Revisit purpose of a comma. - How does the author want you to read the sentences with a comma in this story? - Practice reading the sentences together expressively.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. – Look at the illustrations on each page when reading to help children gain meaning from the story as a whole. – Cover: Where does this story take place? This is called the setting. – Who are the characters in the story? – What is the problem the Jigaree faces in the story?		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual (MSV) skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. – Listen to the children reread the text, observing their one-to-one matching and how they manage the change in text pattern on the final page. – Practice reading the text together with fluency and phrasing. – Encourage and model use of cross-checking strategies. Infer: Why did the jigaree lie on the ground? Could this story be true?		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?			

Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text a, can, see, you, me	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the card as fast as possible **2.** Revise previous weeks sight words and letter focus words too **3.** Add to kete	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Complete yesterday's illustration of a jigaree. Use whiteboards and magnetic letters to say, spell, write, make and read sight words and focus words (in their kete) with their Tuakana/teina. Basic sight word bingo.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 4a	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: It's my bread. By Diana Noonan **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Red	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Mm **Words from text:** 'My', 'mouse'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the illustration on the front cover and what the mouse is doing. - Where do you think this story takes place? Look carefully at the clues in the pictures, what do you see? - Look at the cover. What would you say if someone tried to take away some food you were eating? - Give the children time to work out the title and then read it expressively together. - Who is saying, "It's my bread?" - Does that title fit with the picture? - Read the title together and the names of the author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'M' and its sound. - Which words on p. 2 start with 'M'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Speech marks Contraction	WALT: read speech marks. - Draw children's attention to the speech marks in the story. - What are speech marks? - What do speech marks mean? - How does the author want you to read sentences that have speech marks? - Practice reading the title together expressively. - Locate the speech marks and discuss why they appear on each page in the story.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. The title of the story is a strong support for reading the first and consecutive pages. Confirm names of animals and cross-check the pictures with initial consonants and other visual information when naming the animals. Draw the children's attention to the expressions on the animals' faces.		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Use this as an opportunity to reinforce cross-checking strategies. E.g., p. 3: Is this word 'chicken' or 'hen'? How do you know? p. 8: What are the ants doing? What will they say?		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 4b	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: It's my bread. By Diana Noonan **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Red	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Mm **Words from text:** 'My', 'mouse'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the illustration on the front cover and what the mouse is doing. - Read the text together without delay. - Good readers always read the title, author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'M' and its sound. - Which words in the story start with 'M'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Speech marks Contraction	WALT: read speech marks. - Revisit purpose of speech marks and contractions. - How does the author want you to read the sentences with speech marks? - Practice reading sentences with speech marks together expressively. - Locate the speech marks and discuss why they appear on each page in the story.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Look at the illustrations on each page when reading to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - Where does this story take place? - Who are the characters in the story? - What is the problem the mouse faces? - How is the problem solved?		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. - The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Use this as an opportunity to reinforce cross-checking strategies. - Listen and observe which children notice the change in text pattern and can read it themselves. - Draw their attention to the exclamation mark after the word 'no'. - How does the author want you to read this word? - Practice reading the text together with fluency and phrasing. Infer: Why did the ants get the bread? Who is the picnic for? How do you know?		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?			
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text My, said, the, no, it's	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all basic sight words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Add to kete of words.		

Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Listen to the children reread the text. Further examine the contraction 'it's' on a whiteboard. Explain the purpose of the apostrophe. Draw out the idea that contractions make writing sound more natural. Introduce other contractions and how they work. Play contraction bingo.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 5a	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: The New Cat. By Joy Cowley **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Hard Gg **Words from text:** 'Gobble', 'gooble',' greedy'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the cover. The ribbon and bow by the box suggest that the kitten has been given as a present. What is the girl getting out of the box? - I wonder what she thinks of her present? - How would you choose a name for a cat? - Read the title. What is the first word? What is the sounds of the last word? Show the children how to blend them together to make 'cat'. - The word in the middle must be something about the cat... - Read the title to the children, articulating the initial sound for 'new', and see if they can come in with the word. - Encourage them to cross-check for meaning. - Does the title fit with the picture on the cover? - Read the names of the author and the illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'G' and its hard sound. - Which words on p. 2 start with 'G'?	
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Speech marks Comma Exclamation mark	WALT: read speech marks. - Use this as an opportunity to observe which children notice the conventions of print in the text and can read it themselves. Draw their attention to the specific conventions and address how the author wants you to read them in the text.	
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Go through each page looking at the illustrations to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - What is mum feeding the cat? - Discuss the illustrations and clarify the idea that the cat is gobbling and creating a mess.	
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Remind the children of the strategies I want them to focus on. Listen to them read the text themselves, providing support as necessary e.g., verbalising the initial sound of the noun on each page and using picture cues to support their predictions as well as cross-checking strategies p. 8: Observe which children notice the change in text pattern and print conventions and can read it themselves. How does the author want you to read this sentence? Infer: Mum's words remind me of something.... Draw out	

Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?	the idea that Mum's words have become Greedy Cat's name. How does the cat feel? What is Katie thinking?	
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text The, oh, you	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Revise kete of words. **4.** Add to kete of words.	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Listen to the children reread the text. Compare the upper-case and lower-case forms of the letter 'G' in 'Gobble' and 'gobble'. Locate the high-frequency word 'The' in the text. Find the word 'The' on p. 2. Can you find it again on the next page? Tell me the letters in the word? Write it on the whiteboard. Why does it start with a capital 'T'?	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 5b	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: The New Cat. By Joy Cowley **Text Series:** Ready to Read **Text Level:** Magenta	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Hard Gg **Words from text:** 'Gobble', 'gooble',' greedy'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the cover. The ribbon and bow by the box suggest that the kitten has been given as a present. What is the girl getting out of the box? - I wonder what she thinks of her present? - How was the name choosen for the cat? - Read the text together. - Good readers read the title, author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'G' and its hard sound. - Which words in the story start with 'G'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Speech marks Comma Exclamation mark	WALT: read speech marks. - Use this as an opportunity to observe which children notice the conventions of print in the text and can read it themselves. Locate the speech marks and discuss why they appear in the story? Draw their attention to the specific conventions and address how the author wants you to read them in the text.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Look at the illustrations on each page when reading to help children gain meaning from the whole story. - Where does the story take place? - Who are the characters in the story? - what is the problem the characters face in the story? - How does mum feel about the problem? - What does Katie feel about the problem? - What does Greedy Cat think about it all? - How is the problem solved? - Discuss the illustrations and clarify the idea that the cat is gobbling and creating a mess.		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. - The pattern of the text supports independent reading. - Remind the children of the strategies I want them to focus on. - Listen and observe the children reread the text themselves, providing support as necessary e.g., verbalising the initial sound of the noun on each page and using picture cues to support their predictions as well as cross-checking strategies p. 8: Observe which children notice the change in text pattern and print conventions and can read it themselves. How does the author want you to read this sentence?		

Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?	Infer: Mum's words remind me of something.... Draw out the idea that Mum's words have become Greedy Cat's name. How does the cat feel? What is Katie thinking?	
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text The, oh, you	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Revise kete of words. **4.** Add to kete of words.	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Use whiteboards and magnetic letters to say, spell, write, make and read sight words and focus words (from their kete) with their Tuakana/teina. Dramatize favourite episode with Tuakana/teina and share back with group.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 6a	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: Dan The Flying Man. By Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Nn **Words from text with final consonant sound:** 'Dan', 'man', 'can', 'train', 'ran'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Discuss the cover. The picture suggests the man is higher than the buildings. How is the man up so high? Draw the idea that the man is flying. What letter does flying start with? -Read the title. What is the second word? - What is the last word? Stretch out its sounds and then put them back together, 'm-a-n', 'man'. -The first word looks like 'man' but starts with a 'D'. - What is the first word? - Read the title. What is the first word? - The third word must be something about what Dan the man is doing... - Read the title to the children, articulating the initial sound for 'flying', and see if they can come in with the word. - Encourage them to cross-check for meaning. - Does the title fit with the picture on the cover? - Read the names of the author and the illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'N' and its sound at the end of a word. - Which words on p. 2 end with 'n'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Capital Letters Fullstops	WALT: read capital letters and fullstops (complete sentences). - Use this as an opportunity to observe which children notice the conventions of print in the text and can read it themselves. Draw their attention to the specific conventions and address how the author wants you to read them in the text.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Why does the word Dan start with a capital D? - Who is Dan, the flying man talking to? - p. 4-11: What is he flying over? p. 14-15: What do you think happens next?		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Remind the children of the strategies I want them to focus on. Listen to them read the text themselves, providing support as necessary e.g., verbalising the initial sound of the noun on each page and using picture cues to support their predictions as well as cross-checking strategies. Also draw their attention to the final consonant sound of the words that rhyme.		

Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?	p. 14-15: Observe which children notice the change in text pattern and print conventions and can read it themselves. How does the author want you to read this sentence? p. 16: Observe which children notice the change in text pattern again and can read it themselves. What is the first word? It looks like 'the' but has a 'y' on the end. Encourage cross-checking strategies to confirm predictions. Infer: Could this story be true?	
Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text Over, if, they, all, me	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Revise kete of words. **4.** Add to kete of words.	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Listen to the children reread the text. Onset and rhyme: D – an, M – an, C – an, R – an What other words do you know that rhyme with Dan? Draw pictures of Dan the flying man and add appropriate captions e.g. 'over a house', 'I am Dan, the flying man'.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP** = Future Teaching Points		

CONTROL GROUP SHARED READING LESSON PLAN			
TEACHER: Whaea Kylie Te Arihi	SESSION: 6b	TERM: 2	WEEK:
Text: Dan The Flying Man. By Joy Cowley **Text Series:** The Story Box **Text Level:** Level one emergent	**Learning Intention:** To use semantic, syntactic and visual cues to read a text. - Share purpose of reading (learning map)		**OTJ/FTP**
Relating sounds to print - Letter-name knowledge - Letter-sound knowledge **Letter Focus:** Nn **Words from text with final consonant sound:** 'Dan', 'man', 'can', 'train', 'ran'	**1. Introduce the text** - share purpose of reading (learning map). - Read the text together without delay. - Good reader read the title, author and illustrator. WALT: learn the letter 'N' and its sound at the end of a word. - Which words in the story end with 'n'?		
Semantic, syntactic and visual awareness - Conventions about print Capital Letters Full stops	WALT: read capital letters and full stops (complete sentences). - Use this as an opportunity to observe which children notice the conventions of print in the text and can read it themselves. Draw their attention to the specific conventions and address how the author wants you to read them in the text.		
Exploring the illustrations	WALT: look at the illustrations to help me understand the story. - Why does the word Dan start with a capital D? - Who is Dan, the flying man talking to? - Where does this story take place? - Who are the characters? - What is the problem the characters face? - What do the characters do about the problem? - What happens at the end?		
Linking semantics, syntactic and visual skills to context reading - Context decoding strategies	**2. Reading the text aloud together** WALT: hear that our reading makes sense, looks right and sounds right. The pattern of the text supports independent reading. Remind the children of the strategies I want them to focus on. Listen to them read the text themselves, providing support as necessary e.g., verbalising the initial sound of the noun on each page and using picture cues to support their predictions as well as cross-checking strategies. Also draw their attention to the final consonant sound of the words that rhyme.		
Cross-checking strategies - to confirm predictions by cross-checking for meaning - Does it make sense? - Does it look right? - Does it sound right?	p. 14-15: Observe which children notice the change in text pattern and print conventions and can read it themselves. How does the author want you to read this sentence? p. 16: Observe which children notice the change in text pattern again and can read it themselves. What is the first word? It looks like 'the' but has a 'y' on the end. Encourage cross-checking strategies to confirm predictions. Infer: Could this story be true?		

Context free sight word recognition - 5 High Frequency Words selected from text Over, if, they, all, me	WALT: know these basic sight words off by heart. **Activities:** **1.** Read all words on the flash cards as fast as possible **2.** Revise letter focus words too. **3.** Revise kete of words. **4.** Add to kete of words.	
Post-reading activities - Retelling the story with Tuakana/teina - Dramatizing episodes - Shared writing modeled on the text - Independent writing and illustration modeled on the text - Shared text available for students to replicate the shared reading experience	Use whiteboards and magnetic letters to say, spell, write, make and read sight words and focus words (from their kete) with Tuakana/teina. Early finishers play basic sight word bingo or complete yesterday's illustration of Dan, the flying man. Dramatize favourite episode with Tuakana/teina and share back with group.	**Formative Assessment:** - anecdotal notes - student voice - teacher observations - student work
Key: OTJ = Overall Teacher Judgment, **FTP =** Future Teaching Points		

Appendix F: Semi-structured interview questions

Tell me about yourselves and your whānau?

Tell me about the background of the languages your whānau use?

Tell me about your language and literacy aspirations for your children?

Tell me about your child's early childhood education? (Kohanga Reo, Home-based care, Kindergarten, Childcare centre, bilingual preschool or none).

Tell me about the language/s spoken in your home?