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Parallel Read-Alouds: A Bilingual Repeated Read-Aloud and Retelling Intervention for Kindergarten ELLs

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Parallel Read-Alouds: A Bilingual Repeated Read-Aloud and Retelling Intervention for

Kindergarten ELLs

Darci Melchor, PhD

University of Connecticut, 2015

Abstract

Teachers working with young ELLs at risk for literacy underachievement lack research-based practices to maximize the use of picture book read-alouds to accelerate language comprehension outcomes. This study investigated the effects of 8-22 weeks of small group, bilingual repeated read-aloud and retelling intervention, the *parallel read-aloud* intervention, on Vietnamese ELL kindergarteners' retelling skills, focusing on the use of story grammar elements and language complexity and productivity. The study was conducted using a multiple-baseline single subject design with 5 subjects. Students' growth in the overall quality of narrative retelling was assessed weekly using the Test of Narrative Retell (TNR) and their growth in language complexity was simultaneously assessed by transcribing the weekly retell samples to calculate scores for number of diverse words (NDW) and mean length of utterance (MLU) using the Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (SALT) software. The results supported a moderate intervention effect for overall retelling scores on the TNR and for NDW, which were maintained across most subjects after four weeks without intervention. The major implications of this study relate to differentiating instruction for young ELLs with low English oral proficiency by offering bilingual, repeated read-aloud interventions and

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using progress monitoring assessments to accelerate their growth with language comprehension in English.

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Kindergarten ELLs

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APPROVAL PAGE

Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation

Parallel Read-Alouds: A Bilingual Repeated Read-Aloud and Retelling Intervention for
Kindergarten ELLs

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Problem Statement

A salient finding of the most comprehensive research synthesis on literacy development for English language learners (ELLs¹) shows that, when given adequate instruction, ELLs can catch up to their monolingual peers in foundational, code-based reading skills but do not make similar progress with reading comprehension (August & Shanahan, 2010). This discrepancy should be concerning to all educators as English language learners—defined as students who “have a primary language other than English, and who, on the basis of some objective criteria, have been found to be limited in English proficiency” (Aguila, 2010, p. 14)—represent one of fastest growing demographic groups in public schools (Office of English Language Acquisition [OELA], 2012). As of 2010, nearly 5.2 million ELLs were enrolled in public schools (OELA, 2011) and nearly half of this group was composed of young ELLs in grades K – 2 (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition [NCELA], 2011a).

Current elementary school data confirm the persistent reading comprehension gap highlighted above. In 2013, 69% of ELLs scored at or below the basic level (the lowest level of competence) on the nationwide 4th grade reading comprehension test of the National Assessment of Educational progress (NAEP) compared to 28% of non-ELLs (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2014). Likewise, at the state level, 75% of 3rd grade ELLs in Connecticut scored at or below basic on the reading section of the Connecticut Mastery Test compared to 24% of the non-ELL population (Data Interaction for Connecticut Mastery Test, n.d.). These elementary school data are alarming because, as the instructional emphasis shifts in the upper elementary grades from “learning to read” to “reading to learn” (Chall & Jacobs, 2003, p. 1), it

¹ Key terms are listed in Appendix A.

becomes increasingly more difficult for ELLs to catch up with their monolingual peers in literacy attainment.

Given the current academic situation of ELLs in elementary school nationwide, educators are rightly concerned about the added pressure that this population faces in the midst of the standards reform triggered by the adoption of the Common Core State Standards in 46 states (Duguay, Massoud, Tabaku, Himmel & Sugarman, 2013; Wong- Fillmore & Fillmore, 2012). The new English Language Arts standards, in an effort to build college and career readiness cumulatively throughout the K-12 years, require that teachers tailor their instruction to meeting more challenging literacy and language standards using a wider variety of genres and more complex texts (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010a). The authors state directly that ELLs are expected to meet the standards when provided with support (p. 6). The standards are helpful for teachers of ELLs as they facilitate communication across schools, districts and states, thereby encouraging the sharing of valuable ideas and resources. If, however, the focus on meeting grade-level standards draws attention away from differentiating for ELLs' social, economic, language and literacy needs, the reading comprehension performance gap may remain unchanged as observed during the period of No Child Left Behind accountability testing (Crawford, 2012). Over time, poor educational outcomes are linked to higher dropout rates, lower college matriculation rates, and, thus, lower future earning potential (Christensen & Thurlow, 2004; Gandara & Contreras, 2009).

Galindo's recent analysis of the large Early Childhood Longitudinal Study—Kindergarten Cohort database (2010; ECLS-K) specified that three subgroups of language minority students are at particular risk for reading underachievement in grade 5: Latinos, low-income students and students with low oral proficiency in kindergarten. Understandably, recent

second language research has focused largely on the needs of low-income Latino ELLs (Farver, Lonigan, & Eppe, 2009; Tong, Irby, Lara-Alecio, Yoon & Mathes, 2010; Uchikoshi, 2005; Vaughn et al., 2006) as they represent a subgroup in need of extra attention and Spanish speakers represent 80% of the ELL population (NCELA, 2011b). However, other ELLs subgroups have received very little attention although they may be equally at risk for underachievement, particularly if they suffer from the economic disadvantages that many immigrant families face (Han, 2012; Yesil-Dagli, 2011).

Han's recent analysis of the ECLS-K data (2012) revealed that Asian ELLs who enter kindergarten with the lowest levels of English demonstrate the same "downward academic trajectory" (p. 316) as Latino ELLs, ending elementary school farther behind their monolingual peers in reading than when they started. Asians with low English ability in kindergarten were more likely to come from Thai, Vietnamese, Cambodian or Laotian backgrounds. Han's analysis attributes roughly one third of the variance in 5th grade reading performance to family background and another third to the provision of school supports geared towards ELLs. In a recent call for research on young ELLs, Hammer, Gia and Uchikoshi (2011) also advocate for increased attention to Asian ELLs and the variety of other ELL subgroups, highlighting the discrepancy between Asian's "model minority" status and silent struggles at school. This paradox was brought to light years ago by Asian scholars as well (Ima & Rumbaut, 1989; Pang & Cheng, 1998). Advocates for Asian ELLs express that this subgroup has long felt neglected, ignored and underserved in American schools (Asian American Legal Defense and Education Fund, 2008; Ima & Rumbaut, 1989). Advocates request more Asian bilingual professionals in schools, more specialized efforts to gain parent involvement and access to bilingual education. At a minimum, they ask educators to become familiar with cultural differences that may impact

Asian's performance in school. Researchers and educators are encouraged to consider the needs of Asian ethnic groups separately as their immigration history and achievement patterns may differ (Cheng, 1989; Ima & Rumbaut, 1989). Specifically, the Vietnamese ELL population merits close attention as they compose the second largest subgroup of ELLs (NCELA, 2011b). Surprisingly, although Vietnamese ELLs have been included in broader samples of young ELLs in the second language research field (Graves, Plasencia-Pleinado, Deno & Johnson, 2005), only a few studies exist which focus exclusively on young Vietnamese ELLs (Pham & Kohnert, 2010, 2014).

In ELLs of any subgroup, limited oral language ability in elementary school is concerning given that recent models of reading comprehension for ELLs, based on the Simple View of Reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986), highlight the importance of both decoding and linguistic comprehension skills for long term reading success (Zadeh, Farnia & Geva, 2012). According to Hoover and Gough (1990, p. 130-131), *decoding* is “efficient word recognition” and *linguistic comprehension* (herein referred to as *language comprehension*), a component of oral language, is “the ability to take lexical information (i.e., semantic information at the word level) and derive sentence and discourse interpretations.” Several studies demonstrate that as decoding skills become more automatic, increasingly strong language comprehension skills are needed in the upper grades to deal with more complex texts (Geva & Farnia, 2011). Recent research has placed a spotlight on the construct of language comprehension as performance gaps in this area, evidenced particularly in the language minority population, appear to remain unchanged across the elementary years (Kieffer & Vukovic, 2013; Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2011). Researchers claim that early, sustained language comprehension instruction of varying

intensity depending on student need may form a vital line of defense against reading underachievement in the upper grades (Adlof, Perfetti & Catts, 2011).

Language comprehension is not consistently defined or operationalized in the literature. While some researchers operationalize language comprehension with a vocabulary measure (Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2011), others define language comprehension more broadly as a combination of vocabulary, listening comprehension, syntax and discourse skills (Adlof, Perfetti & Catts, 2011; Geva & Farnia, 2011). For the purpose of this study, a broad view of language comprehension was adopted. The term *language comprehension* will be used to serve as an umbrella for the oral language skills that have been empirically related to reading comprehension. Without using the term *language comprehension*, August and Shanahan (2010) may define this construct best by listing the following skills as being critical for reading comprehension: “oral vocabulary knowledge, awareness of cognates, listening comprehension, oral storytelling skills, syntactic skills and the ability to handle decontextualized aspects of language, such as defining words” (p. 214 -215). As language comprehension is not well understood nor assessed early on, the effects of this elusive gap may go unobserved until 3rd grade when students encounter more complex topics and texts (Nakamoto, Lindsey & Manis, 2007). Snow and Kim (2007) aptly label the instruction of vocabulary, argument structure and meaning, all components of language comprehension, as a “large problem space” for literacy instructors (p. 136). Whereas there are definable boundaries to guide the instruction of decoding (eg. sight words and phonics), the range of topics, texts and vocabulary ELLs may face in their future reading is limitless, making the design of language comprehension instruction and assessment more demanding.

Evidence from several fields converges on the promising practice of using repeated interactive read-alouds of picture books for building the language comprehension of ²at-risk students in the earliest elementary years (Swanson et al., 2011). McGee and Schickedanz (2007) define this approach as:

a systematic approach that incorporates teachers' modeling of higher-level thinking, asking thoughtful questions calling for analytic talk, prompting children to recall a story in some way within a reasonable time frame, reading a single book repeatedly, and reading books related by topic. It also involves a systematic approach to developing children's understanding of vocabulary, such as inserting short definitions of words and phrases during reading. (p.2)

Emerging research with ELLs supports the use of repeated read-alouds in preK-grade 2 to promote language comprehension (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Farver, Lonigan & Eppe, 2009; Tong et al., 2010; Vaughn et al., 2006). However, because read-alouds have often been included in a comprehensive instructional package for ELLs, more evidence is needed to isolate the particular read-aloud strategies that lead to accelerating language comprehension growth. In addition, the population samples used to study read-alouds with ELLs have been composed largely of Latino students, disallowing the generalization of conclusions to other ELL subgroups.

A particular problem for literacy and English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) teachers, who are pressed to maximize their use of limited instructional time with ELLs, is finding the most efficient technique for repeated read-alouds to help scaffold the experience for students with very low oral English ability so they can maximally benefit from the advanced language and comprehension work that picture books provide. ESOL and literacy teachers also

² For the purpose of this study, the term "at-risk" describes students whose low initial English language skills, under current educational practice, place them at higher risk for reading underachievement or for being classified as having a language disorder (Bedore & Peña, 2008; Swanson et al., 2011).

need guidance as to how read-aloud techniques can be implemented with other ELL language groups, besides Spanish speakers, or heterogeneous groups of ELLs. Two enhancements have been proposed that may improve the language input received by ELLs during read-alouds and the language output they produce during such instruction. As for language input, a few studies have investigated the use of dual language books as an innovative way of incorporating native language (L1) support into the read-aloud routine for ELLs of different backgrounds (Naqvi, Thorne, Pfister, Nordstokke & McKeough, 2013; Roberts, 2008). Qualitative evidence supporting the use of dual language books points to benefits for ELLs' engagement, social integration and psychosocial development whereas quantitative evidence points to the potential for accelerating early language and literacy outcomes and home involvement (Naqvi et al., 2013a; Roberts, 2008). As for output, read-aloud researchers have attempted to integrate more direct instruction and practice with narrative retelling, a highly important language comprehension skill in which students orally narrate a story back to their teacher to demonstrate comprehension, with mixed results for young ELLs (Cruz de Quiros, Lara-Alecio, Tong & Irby, 2012; Nielsen & Friesen, 2012). Given the earlier emphasis on higher-order comprehension in the CCSS reform and the authors' strong recommendation to utilize read-alouds regularly in the early grades with all students (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010b), more research is needed immediately to understand if such enhancements may accelerate ELLs' language comprehension development.

An additional problem is the current lack of early language comprehension assessments for early diagnosis and continuous progress monitoring among native English speakers or ELLs (Adlof, Perfetti & Catts, 2011; August, Francis, Hsu & Snow, 2006; Baker et al., 2014; Lesaux, Geva, Koda, Siegel & Shanahan, 2008). Such assessments are necessary to evaluate students'

progress with language interventions such as repeated read-alouds. Currently, young ELLs' language progress may only be documented annually using global language proficiency measures (August, 2003), which may not be an accurate measure of language comprehension (Tong et al., 2008). Researchers are starting to use vocabulary tests or story retelling tests to monitor early language comprehension but little consensus exists on what should be measured or how normal progress for the various subgroups of ELLs should be defined (Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2010; Miller et al., 2006; Petersen & Spencer, 2012a). Without an adequate tool, it is difficult to identify children who need an extra layer of intervention and/or special education services or to tailor instruction to particular groups' needs.

In sum, there is an urgent need to explore research-based instructional strategies and assessments for promoting and monitoring the language comprehension development of young ELLs with low oral English language proficiency using read-alouds. Second language researchers need to study the application of successful strategies, such as the use of dual language books and direct instruction of retelling, with less-studied but sizeable populations such as Vietnamese ELLs. Such efforts may accelerate a vulnerable population's progress with language comprehension and reading comprehension earlier on in their academic career. Earlier reading success could positively influence their academic identity and increase their chances of attaining more equitable educational and socioeconomic opportunities compared to their peers in the long term.

Theoretical Framework

Having a theoretical foundation for early language comprehension work with ELLs is critical in order to evaluate the degree to which previous interventions have catered to their particular needs and to plan future interventions. Despite burgeoning interest in this area of research, there

are no recognized theoretical models that synthesize findings on language comprehension for ELLs to help guide the work of researchers or practitioners (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). I propose that the RAND framework for reading comprehension (RAND Study Group [RSG], 2002; Appendix B) may provide a helpful way to conceptualize early language comprehension instruction as a foundation for future reading comprehension of texts read independently. In utilizing an adaptation of this framework to guide early language comprehension for future readers, I envision teachers adopting a developmental view towards instruction by considering the same four factors³ for early oral language/listening instruction in setting a foundation for later reading comprehension.

The guiding premises for the proposed framework are that a) the meaning-making skills required for reading comprehension can and should be practiced first through listening to texts read aloud b) accommodations need to be made to affirm the linguistic and cultural strengths ELLs bring to school. Considering the population of young ELLs, I have designed a reconceptualization of the RAND framework, entitled the “Early Language Comprehension Framework” (ELC framework, Figure 1), to synthesize recent theoretical work and empirical findings related to bilingual ELLs’ early language comprehension. Below I provide a brief summary of the key principles. A more extended discussion is offered in Melchor (2015).

Learning Contexts for Bilingual / Bicultural Learners. The first component of the ELC framework, context, is of paramount importance because how the school, family and community define and approach ELLs’ needs and capacities influences all the other instructional factors (Au, 1998; Cummins, 2000). Although recognizing the importance of context, the RAND framework provides little detail as to how socio-cultural contexts may vary in encouraging

³ The four major elements of the RAND framework were borrowed to organize recommendations from research with ELLs: context, reader, text and activity. The subcomponents, however, may differ for the sake of brevity and due to the differing research base.

achievement for different types of students. In contrast, the ELC framework is driven by my updated version of Moll and Diaz' theory of *the bilingual zone of proximal development* (1987), echoes of which are heard in many socio-cultural researchers' voices (Au, 1998; Cummins, 2000; Ladson –Billings, 1995; Nieto, 2000). In short, the original

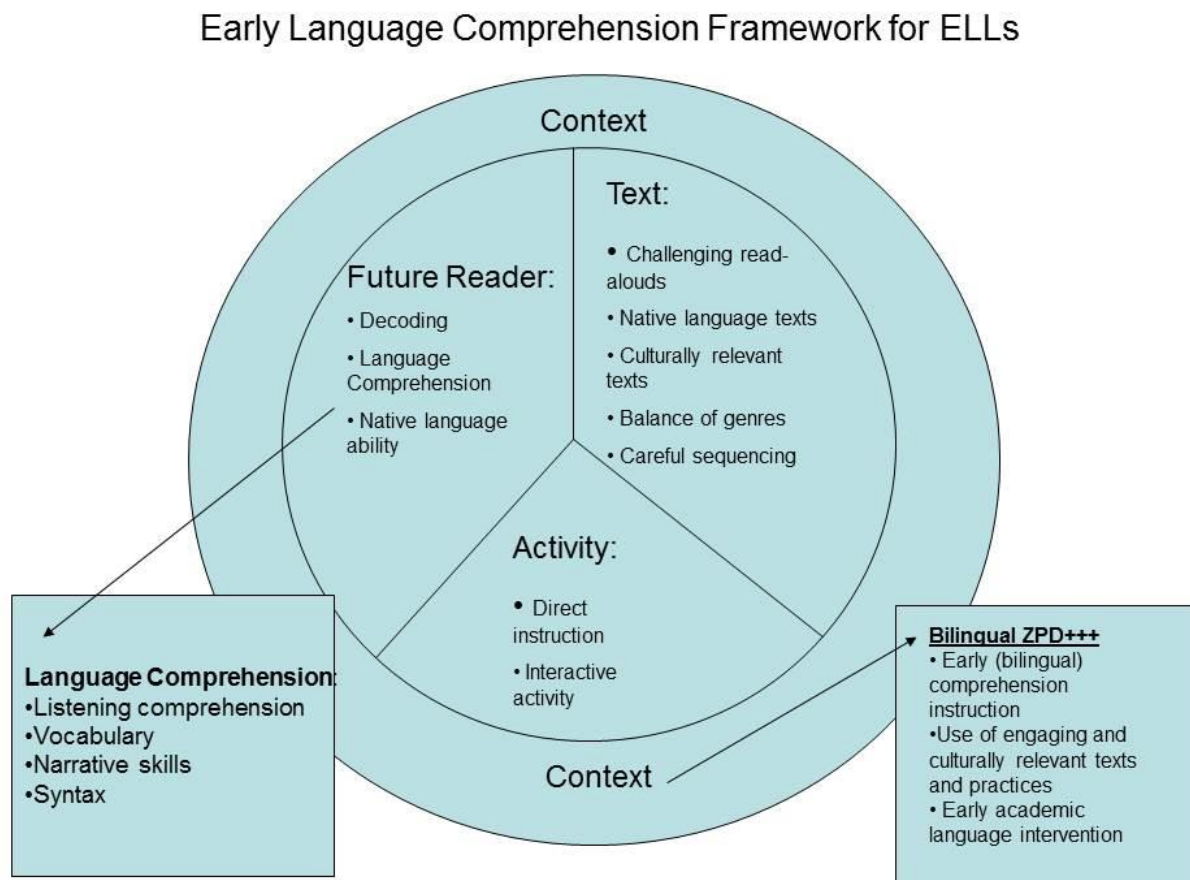


Figure 1 The Early Language Comprehension Framework for ELLs

theory argues that students who have traditionally been marginalized by the school system will thrive to the degree that school contexts affirm the native language strengths they bring to the learning context rather than underestimating their abilities by only accounting for their English performance.

Moll and Diaz (1987) ground their work in Vygotsky's theory of the *zone of proximal development* (1978). Vygotsky's zone of proximal development helps differentiate between the variable developmental paths of children by observing what they are able to do with the assistance of others. The zone of proximal development is "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Instructionally, this implies that quality instruction "aim[s] for a new stage of the developmental process" (p. 89). To access their own particular zone, students need rich interaction with those with more expertise who they can imitate, who will ask them stretching questions, who will give them appropriate tools, and who will lead them into activities with the right amount of challenge.

Moll and Diaz (1987), in advancing the theory of the *bilingual ZPD*, argue against a "stepping stone" model of literacy instruction where ELLs are required to master basic decoding and vocabulary in English before moving on to comprehension. They demonstrate through a case study how upper elementary ELLs performed grade-level English literacy tasks because the interventionists targeted comprehension goals earlier with the help of native language scaffolding and repeated exposure to text. The original bilingual ZPD theory is powerful because it redefines bilingual students' proximal level of development and expands the choices for instructional activity in the zone. The interventionists used the ELLs' native language abilities to define the upper limit of their capacity for English comprehension development, therein communicating much higher expectations, and used both languages strategically to enhance classroom activities aimed at higher order English comprehension skills.

Helping ELLs reach their highest level of proximal development, however, entails considerations beyond the school context offering native language scaffolding. Indeed, Moll and Diaz (1987) model an understanding of this by frequently referencing students' broader cultural resources beyond language as strengths throughout their work (Diaz, Moll & Mehan, 1986; Moll & Diaz, 1987; Moll, 2000). In fact, Luis Moll may be best known for helping to advance the oft-cited culturally relevant theory of *Funds of Knowledge* (Gonzalez et al., 1993; Moll & Greenberg, 1990). Funds of knowledge (FoK) is a very specific approach teachers can use to conduct ethnographic studies of the families they work with to discover families' areas of expertise and then use those topics to enhance the curriculum. Although Moll and Diaz discuss strategies for capitalizing on students' bilingual and bicultural background across their work, while referencing Vygotsky's ZPD, they do not synthesize the principles into one theory. With the new *bilingual zone of proximal development* +++ theory (bilingual ZPD+++), I propose that ELLs can achieve more if school contexts accommodate for both their cultural and linguistic background, use topics and materials that engage them early on and provide early interventions that help them master academic discourse.

First, the new theory fuses together the complementary principles of linguistically responsive and culturally responsive education for ELLs but preserves their distinct nature (Giroir, Grimaldo, Vaughn & Roberts, 2015; Mendez, Crais, Castro & Kainz, 2015). The Moll and Diaz (1987) original bilingual ZPD case study aligns with recent theory related to linguistic responsiveness. Linguistically responsive teachers celebrate and capitalize on the language diversity among students but also plan instruction sensitively to scaffold ELLs' second language (L2) development using research-based techniques (Lucas & Villegas, 2013). Culturally responsive teaching, however, is defined as "using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences,

frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them” (Gay, 2010, p. 31). While the FoK approach is a particularly intensive form of culturally responsive instruction, other options include using culturally relevant texts, adapting familiar discourse patterns for classroom instruction and leading culture-oriented discussions. Moll (2000) warns against teachers adopting static views of national culture in implementing such instruction; instead, he encourages teachers to acquaint themselves with families and students to study their current, local, dynamic culture. Culturally relevant practice has been associated with improved outcomes for ELLs for vocabulary and comprehension in conjunction with other elements of comprehensive programs (Paez et al., 2010; Tharp, 1982; Tong et al., 2008). While a recent read-aloud study with Latino ELLs demonstrated that a combined culturally and linguistically responsive approach (CR + LR) resulted in superior vocabulary outcomes over the culturally responsive (CR) approach (Mendez et al., 2015), the role of culturally relevant instruction has not been empirically established in isolation.

Second, the bilingual ZPD+++ theory recognizes the importance of nurturing engagement with culturally and linguistically diverse learners in unique ways. Cummins’ recent work (2012) argues that successful ELL readers may need to become engaged readers much earlier. Indeed, engagement is recognized as one of the most powerful mediating variables for future reading comprehension (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; RSG, 2002). The potential link between culturally and linguistically relevant instruction for ELLs and greater engagement with reading merits closer investigation than what is typically afforded by the two distinct areas of research; such accommodations may generate a stronger sense of “ownership of literacy” in minority students (Au, 1998, p. 309). One particular technique that may be especially engaging for young ELLs is

picture book read-alouds (Farver, Lonigan & Eppe, 2009; Tong et al., 2010). Earlier engagement may provide more access to print and foster earlier self-efficacy in ELLs (Cummins, 2012). Some of the engagement-building techniques, offered by Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) and Guthrie (2004) in their Engagement Model for Reading Development, which could be applied with modifications to read-alouds for young ELLs, include directly teaching comprehension strategies, planning collaborative work, offering praise and rewards and choosing interesting texts. The inclusion of student engagement in this theory, in addition to cultural responsiveness, indicates that the two concepts might not always overlap for individual students and that using culturally relevant texts and activities are just a few of several ways instruction can be differentiated for ELLs in terms of engagement.

Finally, the bilingual ZPD+++ theory stretches linguistic responsiveness beyond native language scaffolding to planning for stronger early language interventions to help at-risk students to access academic discourse sooner in either of their languages. Whereas Moll and Diaz (1987) argue for more comprehension instruction in the upper elementary grades for ELLs, the bilingual ZPD+++ theory asserts that comprehension and academic discourse instruction goals need to be at the forefront of curriculum planning at the earliest stages. Adopting a broader view of language use, Gee (1996) offers a very helpful viewpoint on the literacy achievement gap that exists as early as preschool by highlighting how some families are more skilled than others in appropriating secondary Discourse practices that are valued by schools. Armed with Gee's theory, language/literacy teachers working with non-dominant groups, such as ELLs, will be more linguistically responsive as they cease to define disparities in school performance as a difference in ability and view them more commonly as a result of a lack of exposure to school Discourse. They can then offer respectful but intensive early intervention for decoding and/or

early language comprehension skills, which draws on the primary (home) Discourse in accessing the secondary Discourse, with the aim of grade-level achievement. Native language scaffolding alone will not help to close the reading achievement gap; at-risk students also need interaction in their zone of proximal development that offers them skillful, explicit instruction towards mastering challenging, school Discourse goals.

In sum, the bilingual ZPD+++ highlights several critical contextual factors to consider in planning for early comprehension instruction for ELLs. Centrally, it emphasizes understanding and validating the strengths and interests ELLs or minority students bring to the classroom in order to build higher-order academic skills. Teachers who want to empower ELLs will also strive to understand the complexity of language comprehension and other reading sub-skills and master the quality of sustained instruction needed to foster them.

The Future ELL Reader. After considering the socio-cultural learning context, the RAND framework considers the multiple skills independent readers bring to the task of reading comprehension. In contrast, the ELC framework focuses on the young ELL as *the future ELL reader* and emphasizes the development of language comprehension skills prior to the instruction of reading comprehension. In addition, it accounts for the native language abilities that distinguish many ELLs from monolingual readers. This conceptualization of the ELL reader rests on research supporting the Expanded Simple View of Reading and Cummins' interdependence hypothesis.

The most recent and comprehensive model of English reading comprehension for ELLs supports the Expanded Simple View of Reading development (Appendix C; Zadeh, Farnia & Geva, 2012), which gives equal importance to decoding and language comprehension abilities for fostering reading comprehension, and thus calls for the early assessment and instruction of

both of these skills. Several other studies from the US and abroad confirm the utility of the Expanded Simple View of Reading for second language learners (Chen, Geva & Schwartz; 2012; Nakamoto, Lindsey & Manis, 2007; Verhoeven & van Leeuwe, 2001) and demonstrate how gaps in linguistic comprehension will negatively influence reading comprehension in the upper grades. Expanding further on the model, Proctor, August, Carlo and Snow (2005) found that vocabulary knowledge accounted for 72% of the variance in listening comprehension, thus making it a significant direct and indirect contributor to reading comprehension.

In addition to the ESVR, Cummins' *interdependence hypothesis* (1980) helps us understand how native language literacy and language ability may also influence reading ability in English. Simply put, developing an academic skill in one language contributes to a "common underlying proficiency" (Cummins, 2000, p. 35) that can result in a parallel form of that skill in a second language. Accumulating research points to differing degrees of cross-linguistic interdependence for phonological awareness, alphabetic knowledge, cognate vocabulary, oral language, spelling, word reading, fluency, and comprehension (Genesee, Geva, Dressler & Kamil, 2008; Riches & Genesee, 2006). Of particular importance to this study, a growing body of research points to the predictive relationship between L1 retelling skills and future English retelling or narrative ability (Goldman, Reyes & Varnhagen, 1984; Squires, 2014; Uccelli & Paez, 2007). Research on cross-linguistic relationships has been largely correlational, providing little clarity as to whether the relationship in performance across languages is attributed to more general underlying learning capacities or whether skill development in one language accelerates skill development in the other. However, tentative evidence pointing to the transfer of skill learning between languages is provided by studies where a) a language comprehension skill is fostered through intervention in one language but growth is observed in both languages (Cruz de

Quiros et al., 2012; Farver, Lonigan & Eppe, 2009) and b) the L2 language development of recent immigrants with native language ability or bilingually educated students surpasses ELLs who have had more access to L2 instruction (Cummins, 2000; Goldman et al., 1984; Gutierrez-Clellen, Simon-Cerejido & Sweet, 2012).

Choosing Texts for ELLs. The third component of the RAND framework considers the effect of text features on reading comprehension. The ELC framework also considers the importance of text features for listening comprehension during read-alouds particularly for ELLs. The ELC framework aligns with the RAND framework in its assertion that text complexity varies depending on characteristics of the reader, activities assigned, language complexity, topic and genre. However, the ELC framework also adds considerations related to cultural and linguistic relevance. Of the four factors in the ELC framework, the relationship between texts and comprehension is the least studied with young ELLs. Although the following studies have been conducted largely with older students performing independent reading, some recurring themes can inform earlier language comprehension instruction. First, while the topic of the text is important for all students' engagement and comprehension, cultural engagement theory and the bilingual zone of development theory described above point to the need for sensitivity to ELLs' cultural and language background in choosing texts for read-alouds or independent reading. ELLs' accuracy and comprehension may be stronger in response to culturally relevant text read independently (Ebe, 2010). Furthermore, ELLs may experience greater success with comprehension in response to native language texts (Martinez-Roldan & Sayer, 2006).

Teachers of early language comprehension may also prepare ELLs better for future reading comprehension by sequencing texts with care. The first consideration for sequencing text should be reaching for text that is cognitively challenging. Although teachers with at-risk

students may shy away from using more complex storybooks (McGee & Shickendanz, 2007), experts recommend using books at children's listening comprehension level (1-2 years above their reading level) with carefully selected scaffolds in place (Hickman et al., 2004; Shanahan et al., 2010). In choosing read-alouds, the three-part model of text complexity the CCSS authors recommend may prove useful (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010b). In their model, the instructor gives equal attention to qualitative dimensions of the text (eg. structure or knowledge demands), quantitative dimensions (eg. word and sentence length) and knowledge of the reader/task (eg. reader motivation and nature of instructional task). All of these considerations are equally important for ELLs and may have different nuances for this population. For example, a text which may have appropriate structure for their listening comprehension level may not align with their background knowledge as first or second generation immigrants. Taking their needs into consideration, text structure in particular is a critical determinant of complexity to be considered in sequencing texts. For example, read-aloud interventions targeting retelling can be organized around stories that lend themselves to story grammar analysis with increasingly more elements (Cruz de Quiros et al., 2012).

Second, research with older ELLs also highlights the need for greater exposure to non-fiction genres much earlier on (Garcia, 1991; Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez & Lucas, 1990) as they struggle with topics and vocabulary encountered in expository text later in elementary school. Third, in organizing texts for instruction, teachers need to balance the benefits for language learning and knowledge generation that may come from organizing instruction thematically (Paez et al., 2010; Hickman, Pollard-Durodola & Vaughn, 2004) with the need to provide scaffolding by considering text complexity (Shanahan et al., 2010). Finally, text structure is a critical determinant of complexity to be considered in sequencing texts. For

example, read-aloud interventions targeting retelling can be organized around stories that lend themselves to story grammar analysis with increasingly more elements (Cruz de Quiros et al., 2012).

Balancing Direct and Interactive Instructional Activity. The final component of the RAND framework considers the activities involved with reading comprehension. As the RAND framework focuses largely on instructional activity, the ELC framework also asserts that effective teachers of language comprehension artfully compose a balance of evidence-based instructional activities inspired by read-alouds. Genesee and Riches (2006), in the conclusion of their research synthesis on literacy instruction for ELLs, state “the best recommendation to emerge from our review favors instruction that combines interactive and direct approaches” (p. 140). *Direct instruction* of language comprehension can be characterized as isolating sub-skills, such as predicting, retelling or making connections, and teaching them explicitly through intentional modeling, practice and feedback (Genesee & Riches, 2006). It complements the *gradual release of responsibility* model of comprehension instruction (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) recommended for monolingual students by Shanahan et al. (2010, p.15) delineating a carefully planned sequence of activities including modeling a new skill, providing guided practice and gradually transitioning to independent practice. Often used in conjunction with direct instruction, *interactive instruction* implies participating in activities and learning by observing and imitating others (Genesee & Riches, 2006). The power of repeated read-alouds is that they allow for direct instruction of comprehension strategies and language structures while providing material for rich, interactive discussions.

A few other recommendations can be gleaned from researchers and practitioners related to activity. First, teachers should plan for some activities that allow ELLs to use their native

language to discuss the text and demonstrate their comprehension through a retell as their performance may be enhanced (Martinez-Roldan & Sayer, 2006). However, the What Works Clearinghouse's (WWC) most recent practice guide also recommends using small heterogeneous groups with students of varying levels of English language proficiency to allow ELLs to learn from student models (Baker et al., 2014). Lastly, following guidelines for direct instruction and the *Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol* (SIOP; Echevarria, Vogt & Short, 2008), teachers should consider the instructional benefits of using clear language and content goals to help ELLs' focus their attention and interpret feedback and progress (Archer & Hughes, 2011; Fisher & Frey, 2011; Hill & Miller, 2013; RSG, 2002).

In sum, the ELC framework was inspired by the RAND framework in its comprehensive look at reading comprehension. Considering the depressed reading performance of many ELLs, the ELC framework proposes an earlier start to language comprehension instruction using engaging read-aloud books and research-based practices to boost ELLs' cultural identity and academic skills. Understandably, not all recommendations can be implemented at all times given situational constraints. The study described in Chapter 3 is the first seeking to examine the implementation of an intervention grounded in this framework

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation was to research the effects of a bilingual repeated read-aloud routine on the English retelling skills (a component of language comprehension) of five Vietnamese ELLs in kindergarten. The intensive weekly read-aloud intervention was delivered in a small-group format three times a week by the students' ESOL teacher (the researcher) with the help of a Vietnamese teaching assistant. The teachers used engaging, dual language books in Vietnamese and English and incorporated direct instruction in vocabulary and retelling. Weekly

retelling probes in English were utilized to monitor progress with language comprehension and to help modify instruction. Because the study utilized a multiple-baseline single subject design, the students were introduced in staggered fashion to the intervention and the duration of intervention received per student ranged from 8-22 weeks. More detail on the intervention and the assessments utilized is provided in Chapter 3.

Overview

This dissertation is divided into 5 chapters. In the literature review that follows in Chapter 2, previous studies addressing read-aloud interventions, retelling development, retelling interventions and parallel bilingual scaffolding techniques will be considered in light of the framework just described. As will be seen, these studies have addressed certain aspects of the framework but few have woven together all of the essential strands. Strategies gleaned from the theoretical framework and literature review were used to create the parallel read-aloud intervention study described in Chapter 3. The results of the study are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 follows with a discussion of the conclusions of the study in relation to existing research and the ELC framework, limitations of the study and directions for future research.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Interactive, Repeated Read-alouds and the Language Comprehension of ELLs

In light of the ELC framework explained in Chapter 1, read-alouds provide a rich context for instruction targeting early language comprehension skills for native speakers and ELLs at the earliest ages. Read-alouds allow learners access to more complex language than that allowed by conversation or simple books used for decoding practice. A recent meta-analysis on read-aloud interventions confirms the benefits of interactive read-alouds for language instruction with at-risk children (including ELLs) in preK-grade 3 (Swanson et al., 2011). Specifically, read-alouds were shown to foster growth in the “language, phonological awareness, print concepts, comprehension and vocabulary” of at-risk children (p. 258). Moreover, a dialogic approach, which is defined as offering “extended dialogue around the read-aloud with transfer of storytelling to the child” (p. 272) was found to be the most common approach as well as the one with the highest effect sizes for several pre-literacy outcomes. These results, alongside the recommendations of the ELC framework, lead to the conclusion that adopting a dialogic/interactive approach for read-alouds is optimal for at-risk students, including ELLs, for the purpose of developing their oral language skills.. Below, research supporting additional techniques for enhancing the ELC outcomes of ELLs through interactive read-alouds will be discussed.

Repeated exposure to text. Recent research demonstrates that planning for repeated exposure to the same text provides a beneficial context for language learning and comprehension development for at-risk learners (Baker et al., 2013; Karweit & Wasik, 1996; Nielsen, 1993; Nielsen & Friesen, 2012). Repeated exposure to stories has been linked to incidental language

learning and narrative development for native speakers and second language learners (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Lever & Senechal, 2011; Uchikoshi, 2005; Verhallen, Bus & deJong, 2006).

When repeated exposure to text is combined with scaffolding by the teacher and more group interaction, ELLs may benefit more as they can repeatedly hear and practice vocabulary and story language, answer comprehension questions with more detail, ask more questions and participate at a greater comfort level (Martinez & Roser, 1985).

Rich, extended word instruction. The results of recent vocabulary research with native speakers, ELLs and other second language learners converge on the finding that reviewing target vocabulary within a repeated read-aloud routine, referred to as rich or extended instruction, improves both taught vocabulary outcomes (Beck & McKeown, 2007; Baker et al., 2013; Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Coyne, Simmons, Kame'enui & Stoolmiller, 2004; Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin, 2009; Silverman, 2007a) and untaught vocabulary outcomes (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Paez, Bock & Pizzo, 2010; Silverman, 2007b). In contrast to embedded instruction, where definitions are provided quickly during the read-aloud, rich or extended instruction is defined as providing “word meanings in student-friendly language, providing multiple examples and multiple contexts, and requiring students to process words deeply by identifying and explaining appropriate and inappropriate uses and situations and creating multiple contexts” (Beck & McKeown, 2007, p. 254).

Silverman's vocabulary research confirms the potential for extended vocabulary instruction using repeated read-alouds with young ELLs. Silverman (2007a) exposed different classrooms of kindergartners (38% ELL and 38% low SES) to 3 approaches of increasingly more extended vocabulary instruction, all within the context of repeated read-alouds, across 6 weeks. The “contextualized method” taught vocabulary connected to the book context and to personal

experience alone; the “analytical method” added “decontextualized semantic analysis wherein children compare and contrast words and use or respond to use of the words in varied contexts” (p.98); and “anchored instruction” added a further layer of instruction including reading and pronouncing the words. Overall, students’ expressive vocabulary and productive vocabulary benefited most from the “anchored” intervention even after 6 months at post-test (expressive $d = 1.02$; productive $d = 1.19$ compared to “contextual condition”). Although the post-test data revealed an interaction effect for ELLs and low SES students showing they may have benefited more from the “analytical” approach, Silverman concludes that both the anchored and analytical approaches, which offer more extended review, represented improvements over the contextualized method. Remarkably, in a similar study, Silverman (2007b) observed faster learning rates for taught vocabulary and general vocabulary on the TOLD standardized test for kindergarten ELLs compared to native speakers when they were provided with extended vocabulary instruction in the context of repeated read-alouds.

Retelling practice and comprehension questions. In several repeated read-aloud studies intended to improve students’ comprehension outcomes, the intervention design includes the use of retelling practice and literal and inferential comprehension questions (often scripted) before, during and after read-aloud sessions. *Retelling* is “a process whereby students orally recount a text they have read [or heard]. To retell, students must identify and process the critical elements of a text in order to convey them to others” (Shanahan et al., 2010. p.42). Interestingly, two large-scale research projects concerned with enhancing achievement for young low-income Latino ELLs in Texas have demonstrated the benefits of adding a repeated read-aloud/retelling strand to instructional programming to support language and reading comprehension outcomes. Using a combination of intervention strategies, both were able to increase the early reading

comprehension scores of low-income Latino ELLs. The two studies are summarized briefly below.

The STELLA Strand of the ELLA Project. The English Language and Literacy Acquisition (ELLA) research project (Tong et al., 2008; Tong et al., 2010) represents one of the most comprehensive, long-term models for early ESOL programming. One of three strands included in the children's extended ESOL block in grades K-2 was called the STELLA intervention (Story Retelling and Higher Order Thinking for English Language and Literacy Acquisition). Guided by scripted lesson plans, teachers using the STELLA intervention led ELLs through a highly structured daily routine of repeated read-alouds of culturally relevant books, vocabulary instruction, discussion around tiered questions and retelling practice using story grammar. After 2 years (Tong et al., 2008), researchers observed larger effect sizes for oral language growth rate for intervention students over control students in English and bilingual classrooms ($d = .71$ and $d = .64$ respectively). After three years of intervention (Tong et al., 2010), ELLA students outperformed control students on measures of phonological awareness, English language proficiency, listening comprehension, passage comprehension, and decoding. Because the ELLA project and the STELLA strand incorporate direct and interactive instruction, bilingual instruction, parent outreach, and the use of carefully chosen, culturally relevant texts, they both align closely with the ELC framework.

Enhanced Proactive Reading Project. Noteworthy as being one of very few interventions listed by the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) as having “potentially positive effects on reading” for ELLs (Gersten et al., 2007), the Enhanced Proactive Reading project (EPR; Vaughn et al., 2006) provided at-risk first grade Latino ELLs with a daily 45-minute decoding intervention and an additional ten minutes for an explicit expository read-aloud routine

involving guided discussions, direct vocabulary instruction, and retelling practice. After seven months, intervention students outperformed control students on several reading measures including comprehension ($d = 1.08$), and the effects of the intervention were still evident when students were tested a year later (Linan-Thompson, Vaughn, Prater & Cirino, 2006). The gains in comprehension are hypothesized to be linked to the addition of the read-aloud strand (Pollard – Durodola et al., 2006), as earlier studies using the original program with native speakers with similar pre-test scores did not result in comprehension gains (Mathes et al., 2005). Although the researchers observed remarkable comprehension gains, they caution that many ELLs may need more intensive oral language instruction than the ten minutes allotted daily in their intervention (Pollard –Durodola et al., 2006).

In sum, research demonstrates that repeated reading interventions with varying degrees of interactive questioning and direct instruction for vocabulary and retelling can lead to important language comprehension and reading comprehension outcomes for ELLs. However, in contrast to Silverman’s research with ELLs of either mixed or unspecified backgrounds, the repeated read-aloud interventions described above were offered as part of comprehensive instructional packages for Spanish-speaking ELLs and do not allow for conclusions related to the benefits of the repeated read-aloud routine in isolation or for generalization to ELLs of other language groups. The ELLA/STELLA intervention and the EPR intervention generated strong outcomes on passage comprehension tests but did not close the gap for oral language or listening comprehension. Remarkably, the ELLA/STELLA intervention provided a large block of oral language development time daily for 3 years. This conclusion points to the need for more intensive approaches using small groups, more direct instruction or additional scaffolds such as native language support (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Additionally, the research reviewed

thus far has not studied the effect of direct instruction of retelling on generating retelling outcomes. Because repeated read-alouds require a great deal of instructional time and planning, it would be beneficial to explore how they can be leveraged to simultaneously strengthen vocabulary and provide more direct, research-based instruction for the critical skill of retelling. The next sections of this literature review offer a discussion of the importance of narrative retelling skills followed by research summarizing retelling development in different populations and research on interventions designed to accelerate retelling skills.

The Importance of Narrative Retelling Skills for Young Children

It is important to advance knowledge on retelling as an instructional practice and outcome as retelling is a critical language comprehension skill that ELLs need to develop to benefit from classroom instruction. In a study tracking the effect of oral language on reading outcomes, Miller et al. (2006) refer to retelling samples as “the gold standard of language knowledge, where multiple levels of language use can be evaluated, simultaneously allowing comparisons of words, sentences and narrative structure within and across languages” (p. 31). If teachers regularly assess retelling samples, they will have a more refined view of how students’ language and comprehension are developing in tandem. In addition, retelling has assumed greater importance as foundational academic skill in the Reading Standard for Literature 2 in the new Common Core State Standards (CCSS; Appendix C). Starting in kindergarten, students, “with prompting and support, retell familiar stories, including key details” (NGO Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 11). In the RL.2 strand, students build on this skill at successive grade levels in elementary school, transitioning from retelling to recounting to summarizing. Furthermore, retelling should receive explicit instruction because of its empirical link to reading comprehension. As retelling taps deeper cognitive structures and critical language skills, such as

vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension, retelling performance is a strong predictor of future academic success and reading comprehension for native speakers and ELLs (Fazio, Naremore & Connell, 1996; Goldstein, Harris & Klein, 1993; Griffin, Hemphill, Camp & Palmer, 2004; Miller et al., 2006). Finally, retelling deserves greater instructional attention as ELLs and other culturally and linguistically diverse children, particularly those from low-income backgrounds, have demonstrated difficulty with narrative ability in early elementary school (Michaels, 1991; Pearson, 2002; Uchikoshi, 2005).

However, teachers need to be sensitive to the contextual factors, beyond language, that influence narrative abilities in ELLs and other at-risk students. Drawing from Gee's Discourse theory (1996) described in Chapter 1, retelling or narrative⁴ ability is a prime example of a secondary academic Discourse skill that develops in response to the degree the child's primary Discourse community filters this practice (Heath, 1982). Culturally and linguistically diverse students may face the extra impact of having absorbed distinct cultural models for structuring a story and interacting with adults (Gutierrez-Clellen & Quinn, 1993). Similarities and differences in such models are discussed in the following sections.

Narrative Retelling Development in Different Populations

As a necessary foundation for culturally sensitive intervention work, research on the narrative language development of European American children, culturally and linguistically diverse children and English language learners will be reviewed respectively.

⁴ Because retelling research overlaps with narrative research, defined as "orally presenting causally related events or an experience in temporal order" (Spencer & Slocum, 2010, p. 179) without hearing a story first, both bodies of research are referenced interchangeably.

Narrative Retelling Development of European American Children. The European-American style of narrative or retelling has been described as “linear” or “topic-centered” (Michaels, 1991, p. 309) and having a “problem-solving” orientation (McCabe, 1997a, p. 456). One well-known framework for studying retell or narrative development is that of Stein and Glenn (1979). Stein and Glenn (1979) noted predictable patterns in the structure of European American children’s literature and created a story grammar model based on the common elements. Their major story elements include setting (including character), initiating event (problem), internal response (feelings), plan, attempt, consequence, and reaction. Stein and Glenn’s story grammar analysis revolves around the study of *episodes*. Episodes are described as “the primary higher order unit of a story and consists of an entire behavioral sequence” (Stein & Glenn, 1979, p. 62). A complete episode, a benchmark of narrative ability in its demonstration of causality and goal-oriented behavior, is defined by Stein and Glenn as minimally having three parts: an initiating event that starts the behavioral sequence (problem/goal), an action directed at solving the problem or attaining the goal and a direct consequence related to the goal (p. 72).

Stein and Glenn (1979) performed a cross-sectional analysis of retell development with 48 upper middle class children from St. Louis. First and fifth graders were asked to retell four different children’s stories, which were analyzed using their story grammar framework. The researchers’ found that recall improved with grade level and that European American students recalled certain elements more consistently than others across the grade levels, namely major setting, direct consequence and initiating event. The researchers’ concluded that some story elements are perceived as more important than others in this population. Whether the same story elements are perceived as important by speakers of other languages remains unknown.

In a later developmental study, representing another mainstay of narrative research, Peterson and McCabe (1983) collected personal narratives, using extensive prompting, from over 100 working and middle-class European-American children ranging in age from 3 to 9. Their results, using three different paradigms for narrative analysis including Stein and Glenn's model, revealed a developmental continuum demonstrating that as children's narratives improve with age, they tend to create qualitatively different types of narratives which are more detailed. Peterson and McCabe (1983) discovered that by age 6, their sample of children was telling proportionally more complete episodes than other narrative structures. By age 8 or 9, 60% of their narratives were complete or more complex episodes. Questioning the superiority of the goal-oriented episode structure afforded by researchers, they noted that students of all ages used the "reactive sequence" structure frequently, where "there are causal relationships between events, but there is no clearly specified goal that motivates behavior" (p. 93). They found no statistically significant relationship between gender and narrative performance.

McCabe and Peterson's longitudinal research with European American families (in McCabe, 1997b) also sheds light on the importance of adult interaction in shaping narrative skills. Over 4 years, they asked 10 families to record sessions of adult-child conversations in which the parents asked children about past events. Simultaneously, the researchers collected narrative samples from the children, ages 2 – 6, at 6 month intervals. They found that "parental emphasis on specific components [of narratives] also predates children's emphasis on these in personal narratives" (p. 159). Specifically, the extent to which parents prompted for extension of talk was correlated significantly with the number of complete episodes produced in children's narratives ($r = .79$, $p < .01$). Also, the greater emphasis parents gave to orientation in narratives

(the setting), discussions of causality and the use of reported speech, the more children produced these same elements in later narratives.

Narrative Development in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Children. In contrast, experts focused on children from other cultures have synthesized several studies demonstrating that such children may display different patterns for relating stories (Gutierrez-Clellen, Peña & Quinn, 1995; McCabe, 1997b). For example, Minami and McCabe (1991) found that young Japanese immigrant students in America, when prompted for a personal narrative in their native language on the topic of getting injured, related very concise, haiku-like narratives stringing together a variety of experiences based on the theme using stanzas, rather than elaborating on a single event as European Americans do. The researchers interpreted the brevity of the narratives as reflecting a “cultural value of avoiding verbosity” (1997a, p. 456). Minami and McCabe’s research comparing Japanese and English-speaking mothers’ role in conversation with their children confirmed that Japanese moms “proportionately evaluate their children’s narratives and request orientative (descriptive) information less frequently than English-speaking mothers do” (in McCabe, 1997b, p. 161).

Research with Latino children has revealed mixed results. McCabe (1997a) found that the English narratives of Puerto Rican and Central American children in the United States demonstrated a “de-emphasis on sequencing past events” preferring to elaborate on “their family connections to events, places and even times” (p. 460-1). Gutierrez Clellen et al. (1995) emphasize the great variability in narrative performance in heterogeneous groups such as Latinos. Young monolingual Peruvians’ narratives are described as demonstrating “infrequent use of abstracts (i.e., summaries or introductions) to open their stories or codas to end them” (Portella, 1980 in Gutierrez-Clellen et al., 1995, p. 55) whereas bilingual Spanish/Quechua

speakers were more likely to incorporate evaluation into their narratives (where the speaker shares more of his/her emotional stance towards the story). According to Gutierrez-Clellen et al. (1995), in some studies with Spanish speakers, researchers have found little consistency in story structure within age groups and great variability in performance depending on the topic of the story. For this reason, Gutierrez-Clellen et al. (1995) warn against static assessment of narrative ability in culturally and linguistically diverse children, recommending a dynamic assessment approach that allows them the opportunity to respond to a period of targeted intervention. They also warn against seemingly less biased approaches where students' performance is compared to peers from the same culture, arguing that children's exposure to conditions conducive to narrative development varies.

Despite the progress that has been made in understanding cross-cultural variation in narrative style, very little is known about Vietnamese narrative structure. Söter (1988) compared the narrative writing in English of 6th grade and 11th grade Vietnamese ELLs in Australia with that of Arabic-speaking ELLs and native English speakers. Asked to write a "bedtime story" in English (p. 181), the older Vietnamese students, who had been exposed to formal education longer in their native country, left their writing incomplete under the time constraints. They composed stories with lengthy introductions, creating a story within a story, which were described by raters as "off-topic" (p. 188). The younger Vietnamese students, more recent immigrants with less years of formal education in Vietnam due to their age, received higher scores for narrative structure than the older Vietnamese students. They demonstrated through their writing that they had already adopted the traditional story grammar framework in Australia, some even reproducing Peter Rabbit and Jack in the Beanstalk in their writing. The author concluded that the younger students may have had an advantage in producing conventional

Australian story structure because they had been exposed earlier to such story norms as opposed to Vietnamese structure and may have received more instruction in English narrative writing. An alternative interpretation is that older students may have not understood the prompt to write a “bedtime story” for a younger student (representing a potentially unfamiliar activity) and may have struggled to demonstrate their true narrative ability writing in their second language. In contrast, Pham’s study (2011) supported her hypothesis that Vietnamese adults’ movie retells in their native language would not diverge greatly from the European American standard. The subjects, who were recent immigrants to the U.S. who had been educated in Vietnam, retold the Pear story in their native language after watching a video, which was designed to be as unbiased as possible for culturally diverse populations. The Vietnamese young adults’ narratives demonstrated adherence to Labov’s story structure scheme used to describe European American narrative standards: their performance suggested that “a full development of a narrative with the elements of abstract, orientation, complication, resolution, and coda is expected when one is to tell a story” (p. 67). The Vietnamese narrators made cause and effect relationships very explicit and refrained from directly sharing their reflections or emotions. Considering the contrasting conclusions, more research is needed to understand typical Vietnamese narrative structure.

Narrative Development in ELLs. Pearson’s (2002) comprehensive research project sheds light on the differences between the narrative development of ELLs and monolingual English speakers. In contrast to the studies already discussed, Pearson evaluated narratives in terms of story structure and language complexity, reflecting the importance of both macrostructure and microstructure (Hughes, McGillivray, & Schmidek, 1997). Macrostructural analysis studies the use of the story elements (eg. setting, problem and events) whereas microstructural analysis documents language complexity in terms of word counts in categories

reflecting more literate language or calculating vocabulary or grammar measures using software (1997Hughes et al., 1997). As Petersen et al. state (2014, p. 68), “an event can be recounted using very basic vocabulary and grammar, but more successful narratives involve clear, detailed, interesting and more complex word choices and sentences structures”. Pearson’s team collected narrative samples of second grade and fifth grade Latino ELLs from low-income and high-income families and compared them to samples of monolingual English speakers. Interestingly, with the exception of low-income children from Spanish-dominant homes in a two-way bilingual program, the ELLs performed better in English than in Spanish. However, the data indicated that ELLs performed much lower on the English narrative composite test (combining story grammar and language complexity) in second grade compared to monolingual English speakers but were able to progress more quickly, nearly closing the gap in 5th grade. Their ability to use story grammar approached their monolingual peers’ ability earlier than their language complexity scores. The data revealed a significant effect of socioeconomic status on the total narrative score although the effect was stronger for the language complexity subcomponent. The research provided evidence of a cross-linguistic relationship between overall Spanish narrative ability and narrative ability in English ($r = .36$ for total story score). Uniquely, it also demonstrated that certain sub-skills had high cross-linguistic correlations. Particularly, the relationships between English and Spanish story structure ($r = .57$), complex syntax ($r = .53$) and mean length of utterance ($r = .59$) were strong but the relationship for overall language score in English and Spanish was not ($r = .18$). Unfortunately, the sample used was restricted to ELLs born in the US; if more recent immigrants were included, the results may have differed. Pearson’s research confirms the need to test narrative ability in both languages of bilinguals and the potential benefit of instruction in both languages as well.

In contrast to Pearson's cross-sectional study, Rojas and Iglesias (2013) conducted longitudinal research collecting samples of English and Spanish retells from 1,723 Latino ELLs from kindergarten through grade 2. Their results confirmed that ELLs demonstrate linear growth in their retelling microstructure across the grades. Students improved their mean length of utterance, the number of diverse words used and the numbers of words used per minute. Their results confirmed great intra-individual and inter-individual variability in growth patterns across time with girls outpacing boys in growth in MLU and NDW in the spring and both genders experiencing reduced growth in MLU and NDW over the summer. Interestingly, they also found that higher initial scores were associated with slower rates of growth in microstructure and verbal fluency. Providing further evidence of cross-linguistic relationships and the importance of microstructure, Uccelli and Paez (2007) found that English expressive vocabulary scores, total number of different words used in English narratives and Spanish narrative quality in kindergarten all predicted the quality of English narratives in first grade Latinos. Finally, Squires et al.'s (2014) research provides much-needed guidance regarding the diagnosis of language disorders in ELLs. Her team compared typically developing Latino ELLs and language-impaired Latino ELLs, confirming that ELLs with language impairment make less growth in both macrostructure and microstructure in both languages from kindergarten to first grade compared to ELL peers. Similar to research on educational interventions, research on narrative development in ELLs has focused squarely on the Latino subgroup. More research is needed tracking the language development of other subgroups in normal educational settings and in intervention.

In conclusion, research highlights differences in narrative development between European American children and children from other cultures. It also demonstrates that some

ELLs suffer from a gap in narrative ability in the early years of elementary school, a time period when this skill is highly desirable for personal and academic reasons. Low-income students may have greater difficulty developing the story structure and language complexity skills involved in successful retelling. However, ELLs are capable of rapid and continuous growth in macrostructure and microstructure and interaction with adults can help shape narrative development. Two caveats are in order for teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse students. In terms of instruction, experts describe how, if teachers are not sensitized to differences in discourse patterns when they plan for instruction and assessment, they may unknowingly silence students (Michaels, 1991) or interpret difference as a language disorder (McCabe, 1997b). Teachers need new paradigms of instruction to address differences in increasingly diverse classrooms. As Michaels (1991) states,

sharing time may not be an ideal activity for promoting the development of new forms of discourse. On the other hand, it may well serve to communicate *powerful* messages about what kind of language, or by extension to the speaker, what kind of student is valued. (p. 346)

In contrast, experts suggest that the normative form of narrative structure needs to be made explicit to students from non-mainstream backgrounds in a sensitive enough manner so as not to silence students' primary Discourses (McCabe, 1997a). Ideally, in an effort to encourage cultural competence, teachers would be equipped to help all students appreciate non-European forms of storytelling as well (McCabe, 1997a). Secondly, in terms of assessment, static, standardized tests comparing at-risk students and ELLs to mainstream, monolingual students or even peers from their cultural group that have more exposure to narrative may over-identify students as having language difficulties when they in fact need an extra dose of exposure and instruction offered in a dynamic assessment paradigm (Gutierrez-Clellan & Quinn, 1993; Spencer, Petersen, Slocum &

Allen, 2015b). Static assessment practices may be a leading cause of the disproportional special education referrals for culturally and linguistically diverse students (NEA, 2007). With these considerations in mind, I now turn to research involving the provision of explicit retelling instruction to monolinguals and English language learners.

Retelling Intervention

Retelling instruction involves direct instruction and feedback based on story grammar / story elements. Although no retelling intervention research has been conducted exclusively with ELLs, an extensive research base exists in the speech/language field highlighting systematic, direct techniques for narrative or retelling intervention in small groups for students at risk for having language difficulties or with those already diagnosed. Petersen's (2011) systematic review of narrative intervention research with children with language impairment highlights consistent benefits to intervention students' macrostructure and microstructure. Although most ELLs are not at risk for being diagnosed with a language disability, the techniques that have proven successful with monolingual students who are struggling with language may be beneficial for ELLs as well. The retelling research from the speech/language field adopts a direct instruction approach using pictures or stories shared orally, whereas retelling research from the literacy field reflects a more interactive approach using storybooks (notably, only one study is a repeated read-aloud intervention). The discussion below highlights strategies from both bodies of research that could be incorporated into repeated read-aloud interventions to increase retelling outcomes in ELLs.

Adult prompting. One early retelling study is unique because it demonstrates that direct retelling instruction improves retelling and may influence both listening comprehension and language complexity as well. The WWC synthesis on early comprehension instruction

(Shanahan et al., 2010) cites Morrow's (1985) kindergarten retelling intervention as the only study that isolates retelling instruction as opposed to similar instruction being offered in a comprehensive package. Morrow (1985) provided middle class, native English-speaking kindergartners with 8 weeks of individual sessions involving retelling practice with adult prompting and feedback based on a storybook heard once. Intervention students had significantly better results for retelling using a story grammar rubric, for separate T-unit length and syntactic complexity measures (language complexity measures), and for answering literal and inferential listening comprehension questions. Moreover, the students that made more progress with retelling also showed greater improvement in listening comprehension. Although this research was done with native speakers, the finding that a retelling intervention may influence retelling ability, language complexity measures and listening comprehension skills cannot be ignored by ESOL practitioners who need to accelerate ELLs' proficiency with several language skills as quickly as possible.

Repeated retelling using a story grammar framework. Nielsen and Friesen's work (2012) differs from Morrow's as it incorporated an explicit story grammar framework as part of retelling instruction through repeated read-alouds in a small group setting. This study is singular because it represents the only small-group, repeated read-aloud and retell intervention targeting retelling outcomes for at-risk students in kindergarten (including ELLs). After 12 weeks, intervention students had significantly higher results on both a measure of taught vocabulary and a standardized vocabulary measure. Although their scores on the standardized Test of Narrative Language (TNL) increased twice as many NCE points compared to control students' scores (mean gain = 9.85 pts. vs. 4.72 respectively), the results on this particular narrative measure were not statistically significant. Although the researchers argue that the direct retelling instruction

and repeated practice led to intervention students' gains on the TNL, they do not discuss how future retell instruction needs to be intensified to observe statistically significant gains for this at-risk population. Studies reflecting a more direct and systematic instructional approach including more repetition (Baker et al., 2013; Baker et al., 2014; Coyne et al., 2009), such as those discussed below, may provide insight into improving retelling intervention for at-risk students.

Gradual release of responsibility model and visual scaffolding. Retelling intervention, designed with intense, direct and systematic instructional techniques, has recently been implemented in settings with young, low-income students (including some ELLs) with dramatic outcomes considering the brevity of the intervention (Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer, Petersen, Slocum & Allen, 2015a). The research referenced below was designed to complement current intervention practices within *Response to Intervention* (RtI) models. RtI is a multi-tiered approach to organizing instruction and assessment initiated by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act in 2004. The goal of RtI is that all students receive evidence-based core instruction at the Tier 1 level and struggling students are identified early to receive progressively more intensive interventions (Tier 2) before being evaluated for special education services (Tier 3 or 4) (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006). Researchers have questioned how language services might be delivered earlier and more effectively to at-risk students in such a framework (Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2015a).

Spencer and Slocum's (2010) small group retelling intervention reflects a strong gradual release of responsibility model combined with visual scaffolding. The researchers grouped 5 low-income Head Start preschoolers, one of which was an ELL and another who was a bilingual student, with more proficient peers in small groups and led them through 10 or more sessions involving repeated retelling of the same brief story in one session. In contrast to repeated picture

book read-aloud interventions, this intervention was centered around very short stories (70 words) about daily life supported by five picture cards. After the teacher modeled the story, students engaged in group retelling and individual retelling guided by engaging story grammar icons that offered visual support. Students received copious amounts of prompting to elaborate as well as feedback related to story grammar. Utilizing a multiple baseline single subject design, the researchers observed that all students made notable progress in level or trend, albeit differentially, on daily retells in the intervention phase as compared to minimal progress in the baseline phase. Students also maintained higher retell scores when tested 2 weeks later in the absence of intervention. As only one ELL was included in the sample, results are encouraging but cannot be generalized to the larger young ELL population.

Attempting to reach more at-risk students, the same research team (Spencer et al., 2015a) scaled up the small group narrative intervention to create the *Story Champs* intervention for Tier 1 settings, using similar techniques with whole classes of low-income Head Start preschoolers, roughly 50% of whom were language minority students. After 12 sessions, intervention students increased significantly on the story retell measure with an embedded language complexity component ($d = .49$) and story listening comprehension measure ($d = .56$) and performed better on the delayed post-tests. Although this “low-intensity” intervention was successful for nearly 60% of participating students, 35% of language minority children were identified as minimal responders compared to 18% of the native English-speaking participants. While this short-term intervention provides a highly scaffolded and efficient first step towards retelling, it does not connect at-risk students to comprehending engaging storybooks and interactive discussion, as the ELC framework recommends, and thus cannot afford students the exposure to higher-order thinking or more complex language that storybooks provide.

Criterion-referenced retelling assessment and feedback. Retelling interventions may be enhanced by the feedback that more sensitive progress monitoring assessments can provide to interventionists and students. The retell outcomes of both studies by Spencer et al. were measured by a new criterion-referenced test battery, inspired by RtI models of progress monitoring reading outcomes, called the *Test of Narrative Retell* (TNR; Petersen & Spencer, 2012b). In contrast to other retell assessments, the battery provides numerous equally complex texts that are designed to be sensitive to progress and to be used for repeated testing. Although the Spencer et al. team did not use the feedback from testing to modify intervention in the interventions already discussed, recent research demonstrates how the feedback on macrostructure and microstructure offered by the TNR can inform interventionists when to adjust intervention intensity and differentiate language targets for students in individualized or small group settings. Spencer et al. (2015b) synthesize data from previous studies to show how progress monitoring allows the interventionist to increase intensity for students demonstrating a flat trend. They also demonstrate how, with the help of progress monitoring, interventionists can decide when to introduce new language targets to individuals in a small group, thereby slightly differentiating their instruction. Such techniques have been used successfully in individualizing narrative intervention with students with disabilities (Petersen et al., 2014; Spencer, Kajian, Petersen & Bilyk, 2013). The ability to adjust interventions in response to student performance is essential due to growing evidence that English speakers and ELLs demonstrate great inter-individual variability in their language growth (Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Rojas & Iglesias, 2013). As recommended earlier, a dynamic language assessment approach for at-risk students is only possible if practitioners are provided with validated progress monitoring tools such as the TNR.

Progress monitoring assessments can also provide students with more detailed, timely feedback if teachers can communicate it effectively. The RAND recommendation regarding reading comprehension most likely holds true for language comprehension intervention: “providing students who are experiencing reading difficulties with clear goals for a comprehension task and then giving them feedback on the progress they are making can lead to increased self-efficacy and a greater use of comprehension strategies (RSG, 2002, p 22-3)”. Providing timely language feedback is considered a best practice in second language teaching although the body of research supporting this principle is based largely on studies focused on grammar instruction and the provision of corrective feedback (Crabbe, 2013; Echevarria, Vogt & Short, 2008; Hill & Miller, 2013; Lyster, 2013; Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Viewed from a broader educational standpoint (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), quality feedback can be affirmative or corrective; is ideally offered in conjunction with criterion-referenced tasks or rubrics that make “success criteria” (p. 88) very clear; and allows students to set goals for future practice, which may also nurture engagement (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). According to Hattie and Timperley (2007, p. 86) quality feedback answers three questions: “Where am I going?”, “How am I going?” and “Where to next?”. Thus, providing intervention time to promote the processing of criterion-referenced feedback may help enhance oral language interventions.

In sum, research shows that young students may benefit three-fold by receiving a research-based repeated reading and retelling intervention with increased retelling skills, listening comprehension and more sophisticated language complexity being likely outcomes. All of these language comprehension outcomes are particularly significant for the ELL population because they represent predictors of future reading comprehension. Fusing research-based techniques for repeated interactive read-aloud interventions with the research-based techniques

of direct retelling interventions may provide the instructional support that ELLs need to accelerate their language comprehension growth. The final component of this literature review looks at how direct instruction within a repeated read-aloud and retelling intervention can be enhanced for ELLs with the lowest English language proficiency by incorporating native language support.

Parallel Bilingual Scaffolding

Notably, none of the interventions discussed until this point have used ELLs' L1 strategically for ESOL instruction. If the L1 were used, interventions would more closely align with the ELC framework, which emphasizes the importance of capitalizing on the ELLs' bilingual capacities. The National Literacy Panel (August et al., 2008) references the need for more research on bilingual scaffolding: "Less evident but no less important, is the benefit of instructional routines that, although focused on the teaching of English, exploit students' native language – for example, by using Spanish words as synonyms in vocabulary instruction or conducting instructional conversations that permit some interpretation to take place in the home language" (p. 170). Direct and interactive instruction for ELLs may be enhanced by *parallel bilingual scaffolding*. Parallel bilingual scaffolding, a new term used for the purpose of this study, is defined as the planned use of the students' native language to preview an activity that students will attempt in English soon after or to provide simultaneous support for tasks that students are performing in English in order to make English language instruction more comprehensible. Techniques may include using the L1 to provide parallel vocabulary instruction (Calderon et al., 2005), to preview or review a reading (Carlo et al., 2004; Paez et al., 2010), or to practice new strategies or activities first in the L1 (Farver et al, 2009; Fung, Wilkinson & Moore, 2003; Gutierrez-Clellen, Simon-Cerejido & Sweet, 2012). Parallel bilingual scaffolding

is one way to incorporate the use of *translanguaging* in classrooms with bilingual students. The concept of translanguaging, located currently at the cutting edge of bilingual pedagogy, is defined most succinctly by Canagarajah as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (2011, p. 401). In contrast to earlier bilingual education practices that encouraged the separation of languages to protect the time afforded for development, translanguaging practices are inspired by the more flexible use of languages evidenced in multilingual people. Translanguaging practices in schools can include translation, multilingual listening centers or utilizing homogenous L1 small groups, among many others (Garcia & Wei, 2013). The research reviewed in this section demonstrates that parallel bilingual scaffolding does not detract from English instruction; in fact, recent studies show that it may enhance direct instruction and interactive activities, thus accelerating growth in language comprehension and reading comprehension.

Specifically, adding a parallel bilingual scaffolding component may accelerate outcomes related to direct vocabulary instruction in the second language. Demonstrating close alignment with the bilingual zone of proximal development theory and Gee’s urge to honor primary Discourse as a support for secondary Discourse development, two recent studies conducted with low-income ELLs in preschool and kindergarten were designed to include parent training and home support using native language books to bolster English vocabulary interventions in school. The Kindergarten Language Study team (Paez et al., 2010) developed a 14-week repeated read-aloud and direct vocabulary intervention for at-risk Latino ELL kindergarteners with a culturally responsive family outreach strand revolving around parallel take-home books in Spanish. Demonstrating extraordinary attention to ELLs’ multiple contexts for learning, the researchers invited parents into the process through interactive monthly workshops, where they were

affirmed and encouraged to extend instruction at home with parallel take-home books in Spanish. Aside from the high level of engagement evidenced by the families, teachers and students, intervention students who received the combined home-school intervention outperformed their peers on the TOLD-4 standardized receptive vocabulary test, on the project-specific target vocabulary tests and, surprisingly, on the WMLS-R Letter Word Identification Subtest (Paez, Gomez & Hunter, 2011). These results are highly relevant as decoding and vocabulary are both major predictors of future reading comprehension for ELLs and monolingual readers (Nakamoto et al., 2007; Scarborough, 2001).

Roberts (2008) used a similar approach with low-income preschool ELLs and compared the benefits of sending home native language books or English books, offered in conjunction with L1 parent training sessions, prior to repeated read-aloud classroom instruction. The study is unique as it is one of very few utilizing a young Asian ELL sample and contrasting the effects of intervention on two language subgroups, Hmong and Latinos. Although the native language intervention students learned more taught vocabulary in the first phase of the study after classroom instruction than students with English books at home ($d = .87$), the same effect was not observed in the second phase when the two cohorts switched interventions. The grand mean effect sizes for taught vocabulary gains between pretest and posttest for all students were large ($d = 1.40$ for the first phase and $d = 1.93$ for the second phase) demonstrating the benefits of repeated reading in English or the native language for vocabulary acquisition. All students also improved their receptive vocabulary levels on the PPVT – III standardized test with a moderate effect size observed after phases 1 and 2 of the study ($d = .38$ and $d = .41$ respectively). Interestingly, Hmong students maintained a parallel but lower trajectory for taught vocabulary learning but made slower progress on the PPVT-III and IDEA oral language proficiency test

compared to the Latino ELLs, which points again to the need to consider ELL subgroups separately. Showing the potential for L1 home support to improve engagement and the cultural and linguistic relevance of instruction, 84% of parents responded that they preferred to receive storybooks in their native language. The strength of the study's results is limited by not including a control group in the design.

Whereas the Paez et al. and Roberts studies incorporated native language support at home for vocabulary, a few studies demonstrate that parallel bilingual scaffolding can be used profitably in the classroom with younger and older ELLs. Naqvi, Thorne, Pfitscher, Nordstokke and McKeough (2013b) organized a unique read-aloud study for language minority students in Canada utilizing dual-language books and community volunteers who spoke Urdu, Punjabi and French. The trained volunteers helped the classroom teacher perform three read-alouds a week for 11 weeks providing language minority students and their monolingual peers with concurrent translation for every page in their native languages. Treatment students outperformed the comparison students in their progress with print recognition in English but performed similarly on tests of written language conventions and meaning comprehension. In a separate qualitative study, the same research group (Naqvi, McKeough, Thorne & Pfitscher, 2013a) argued that such instructional arrangements empower the adults and students involved by affirming their “linguistic and cultural capital” and opening up cross-cultural discussion (p. 334). Although this study is singular in its use of community volunteers to provide linguistically relevant instruction to subgroups not oft referred to in bilingual research and it provides evidence for the acceleration of early decoding outcomes, the ELC framework advocates for more explicit instruction than that offered to impact language comprehension skills.

In contrast, working with 6th and 7th grade ELLs, Fung et al. (2003) used newcomers' first language (Mandarin) to introduce and practice evidence-based comprehension strategies (including summarizing, which is similar to retelling) in a reciprocal teaching scheme. Over the course of 20 days, the students were given direct comprehension strategy instruction and practice in their L1 and English on alternating days with the L1 sessions (based on L1 texts) always previewing the L2 sessions. Direct instruction was followed by dialogues, in the indicated language, guided by the teacher and students using reciprocal teaching techniques. Qualitative evidence showed L1 sessions were more "collaborative, fruitful and enjoyable" (p. 14). Using a multiple baseline single subject design, the researchers observed a change in level and trend in two of the three intervention schools on their daily comprehension tests when compared to the baseline phase. Additionally, the students made considerable gains in both expository retell ability and reading ability. Although this sample of ELLs was much older and reading independently, we can hypothesize that younger students may also benefit from having a comprehension strategy modeled in their L1 with read-alouds and having time to discuss stories in their L1.

Viewed through the lens of the ELC framework, all of the studies referenced in relation to parallel bilingual scaffolding are exemplary in aiming to include native language instruction alongside research-based strategies for boosting language or reading comprehension. As a whole, they provide evidence that a) ELLs can benefit from oral language intervention as early as preschool; b) providing L1 support does not hamper progress with English decoding, language development or comprehension but may even accelerate it; and c) partnering with language minority parents or community volunteers is beneficial for the promotion of literacy and bicultural identity development.

In sum, the research reviewed in this chapter related to repeated read-aloud interventions, retelling development, retelling interventions and parallel bilingual scaffolding points to several practices that should be considered in planning early language interventions for ELLs (Appendix E). Although a handful of the studies discussed have done notable work in bringing several of these elements together, none have used a bilingual approach for retelling intervention with young children, nor have any studies closely monitored the progress of kindergarten ELLs with their retelling skills. Whereas a few have incorporated younger and older Asian samples, none has studied the potential of accelerating language development in Vietnamese ELLs.

Research Questions

Inspired by the principles of the ELC framework and weaving together research-based techniques reviewed in this chapter, I created a highly structured, repeated read-aloud intervention, using dual language books, entitled *the parallel read-aloud* routine. Uniquely, this study researches its implementation with Vietnamese ELLs, the second largest ELL subgroup (NCELA, 2011b). The research questions that guided the intervention study described further in Chapter 3 are as follows:

1. Do Vietnamese ELL kindergarteners improve the overall quality of their narrative retelling performance in response to 8-22 weeks of the *parallel read-aloud* routine (a bilingual repeated read-aloud and retelling small group intervention)?
2. Do Vietnamese ELL kindergarteners improve their use of language complexity and productivity in retells as measured by syntactic complexity and vocabulary diversity in response to 8-22 weeks of the *parallel read-aloud* routine?

3. How does narrative retelling ability at the end of the intervention compare with the retelling quality, language complexity and language productivity indicators 4 weeks after intervention ceases?

Chapter 3

Methods

Setting

The research site was a public elementary school (PreK – grade 5) serving roughly 470 students in a suburban Connecticut town that borders a large city. Although 42% of students come from a minority group, the school's ELL population only represents 12% of the student body (50-70 ELLs in direct service annually K-5). Twenty-seven percent of students qualify for free and reduced lunch. The site was chosen because it is my current workplace and administrators gave me, the researcher, permission to use my own students to conduct this study if parents provided consent (Appendix F). I have worked as an ESOL/bilingual education teacher in the district for 9 years and at my current school for 4 years. Unique in the strength of its ESOL services, the school also employs another full-time ESOL teacher and a part-time tutor.

Participants

The participants for the intervention included five Vietnamese kindergarten ELLs ranging in age from 4 years and 10 months to 5 years and 7 months at the beginning of the study (Table 1). To avoid a classroom effect, potential subjects were assigned to the same classroom teacher. The students were selected by convenience sampling as the intervention and research design required an ELL subgroup with a homogeneous language background. This Vietnamese cluster was the only substantial subgroup available this particular year in kindergarten as ELL enrollment is unpredictable at this school. It was a fortunate occurrence, however, because Vietnamese ELLs represent an understudied population.

There were four steps in the selection process. First, in accordance with district policy for placement testing of ELLs, all of the participants scored below the cutoff score of 4 on the Pre -

Language Assessment Scales 2000 placement test (Pre-LAS; Duncan & DeAvila, 1998) in English in the fall of kindergarten in 2014, which qualified them for small group pullout ESOL services. Particularly, this sample's Pre-LAS scores of 1 or 2 indicated basic or pre-intermediate English language proficiency. Due to their low Pre-LAS scores in English, difficulty with English retelling ability and the subsequent need for intervention can be assumed as retelling is one of the subtests of the Pre-LAS. Secondly, following a new district practice, a benchmark test of the Test of Narrative Retell for Kindergarten (TNR:K; Petersen & Spencer, 2012b) was also administered (described in detail below), which helped confirm the need for retelling intervention. Students scoring at or below the criterion level established by the developers for ELL and non-ELL kindergarteners (score of 16) were chosen as potential intervention candidates pending the results of the parent information meeting.

Table 1

Demographic Information and Initial Test Scores of Subjects

Student	Age	Gender	PreLAS score	TNR Fall Screen	F/R Lunch	Home Language	Preferred Language
Alex	5;6	M	2	1	Y	English/Vietnamese	English/Vietnamese
Jessica	4;10	F	2	16	N	English/Vietnamese	English
Huy	5;7	M	1	2	Y	English/Vietnamese	English
Tiffany	5;1	F	1	3	N	Vietnamese	English/Vietnamese
Thuy	5;4	F	1	11	Y	Vietnamese	Vietnamese

Note. Names have been changed to protect identity. Age reported in years and months. F/R Lunch = family qualifies for free/reduced lunch benefits due to low income.

Third, following an information meeting conducted in English and Vietnamese, parents were invited personally to sign a bilingual consent form allowing the children to participate in the enhanced ESOL program, which included the bilingual intervention. It was made clear that a

decision not to participate would in no way affect their child's academic services or results nor the family's relationship to the ESOL teacher. The intervention was scheduled to take place during and in addition to the students' regular ESOL pull-out instructional time with their ESOL teacher (the researcher) three times per week. Generally, kindergarten ELLs receive three sessions of ESOL per week in addition to three sessions of a decoding intervention in the classroom if required. The read-aloud intervention sessions enhanced the ESOL program by replacing one of the ESOL sessions and adding two additional sessions to their small group instruction, leaving students with two sessions of general ESOL instruction and three sessions of the bilingual repeated reading/retelling intervention. Two students in the sample (Thuy and Tiffany) also required the additional decoding intervention provided three times a week.

Finally, parents were also asked to fill out a brief bilingual Vietnamese language screener questionnaire (Appendix G) at the information meeting, which helped to determine that the subjects had enough Vietnamese language ability to benefit from the intervention. The results depicted a variety of language and literacy profiles. The survey indicated that three subjects were sequential bilinguals, who learned Vietnamese first and English later, and two subjects were simultaneous bilinguals, who learned both languages simultaneously. The parent survey indicated that the two girls who were sequential learners (Tiffany and Thuy) lived in Vietnamese-dominant homes, but Alex' home now used both languages (perhaps due to his older siblings) and his language preference reflected this pattern as well. The simultaneous learners were unique. Jessica was exposed to both Vietnamese and English at home but English was her first and dominant language according to her parents. Although some might question her ELL designation, her placement scores indicated she was not proficient in English. Bedore, Fiestas, Peña and Nagy (2006) refer to such students as "functional monolinguals" (p. 237), reflecting a

category of students who receive over 80% input in their family's second language and speak that language predominantly. Huy's parent survey indicated concerns about his language ability and school documentation reviewed reporting recent speech/language testing indicated that he started life speaking Vietnamese but experienced a delay qualifying him for Birth to Three services. After starting preschool, he became English-dominant but still experienced difficulties in both languages. Huy entered kindergarten with a documented speech/language impairment (SLI) and an Individualized Education Plan recommending speech-language services.

Throughout the study, Huy saw the school's English-speaking speech language pathologist once a week but his goals and activities did not involve retelling. His goals included asking and answering questions, following directions and understanding basic concepts. Answers to questions about reading at home indicated that Thuy was read to only in Vietnamese, Tiffany was read to in Vietnamese and English, Huy and Jessica were read to in English and Alex was never read to. Although students varied in the degree of productive ability reported in Vietnamese, all were reported to have some receptive ability and were deemed eligible for participation. Interestingly, Thuy's father questioned whether she had enough English ability to benefit from the intervention.

Further information about the subjects was gathered from additional school documents. Sixty percent of subjects were identified as low-income as established by participation in the free and reduced lunch program. All had received some preschool education in English the year prior to the study in a half-day or full-day public PreK program or in a private school program (Thuy started preschool late the prior year but left for Vietnam for a long period). Uniquely, Thuy was the only student who was born in Vietnam and had immigrated the year before. Huy and Alex were cousins.

Intervention

The independent variable was a bilingual instructional intervention, entitled *parallel read-alouds*, which was inspired by the ELC framework in Chapter 1 and which blends research-based practices gleaned from the literature review in Chapter 2 (Appendix E). The intervention group heard the same engaging picture book read aloud interactively in Vietnamese or English 3 times over a period of a week and was guided through scripted activities (described below). The procedure was repeated over several weeks with different storybooks. Attendance for intervention sessions was very high ($M = 94\%$), ranging from 90 - 97% per student.

Interventionists. The Vietnamese portion of the intervention was conducted by a Vietnamese research assistant. The research assistant was an adult college student, with a child in the town's public school system, who had immigrated to the United States 8 years ago. She was trained by the researcher by observing pilot intervention sessions in English for one hour and practicing twice in Vietnamese with other students until treatment fidelity of 100% was reached.

The English portion of the intervention was conducted by the researcher. The researcher is a certified ESOL teacher in Connecticut with 17 years of teaching experience. She was the subjects' ESOL teacher during the time of the intervention. She holds a Master's degree in TEFL and is also in the final stages of doctoral study at UCONN. She was also present during all of the Vietnamese sessions.

Intervention materials. The core of the intervention materials were dual language picture books (Appendix H). The selection consisted largely of classic European American literature (eg. *The Little Red Hen*) but also included a few Aesop's fables (eg. *The Lion and the Mouse*), a few modern tales (eg. *Augustus and His Smile*), and a few multicultural fictional picture books (eg. *The Buri and the Marrow*). Considering the ELC framework, it was highly

desirable to also include culturally relevant texts for Vietnamese children. However, given the paucity of bilingual Vietnamese books, none could be located that were appropriate for kindergarteners. Instead, two books were chosen that reflected Chinese culture because the Vietnamese share some similar traditions: *Yeh-Hsien: The Chinese Cinderella* is similar to the Vietnamese Cinderella story *Tam Cam* and *Li's Chinese New Year* was chosen because the Vietnamese Tet Festival originated with the Chinese New Year festival. All of the titles were available in dual language format in English and Vietnamese at an estimated late-first or second grade independent reading level (a suitable but challenging listening comprehension level for kindergarteners). Guided by the principles of engagement and text choice in the ELC framework, the storybooks were chosen due to their universal appeal for children, their length, and their strong narrative structure. Uniquely, this collection of books balances the academic and affective needs of culturally and linguistically diverse children to understand folklore from the dominant culture, to see characters and settings from multiple cultures and to hear stories that validate their own culture. Books were chosen weekly considering the level of complexity, the themes/topics being used for classroom or ESOL instruction, students' interests and the potential for comparing and contrasting texts. Although the ELC framework recommends increasing text complexity with time, due to the staggered introduction of students and the need for consistency, the interventionist mixed the levels of text complexity throughout the study. The teacher and students consistently used retelling ropes (Appendix I), with colorful story grammar icons, when modeling retells and performing group and individual retells. Notably, the retelling rope draws attention to most of the story grammar elements on the TNR (eg. *character, setting, problem, events, ending, end feeling*). The *events* and *most important event* categories on the rope overlap with the TNR categories of *attempt* and *consequence*. However, the rope does not include *plan*

or *middle feeling* or reference language complexity items on the TNR. The model lesson plan (Appendix J) demonstrates what the subjects viewed on the Smartboard during lessons: learning goals, vocabulary visuals borrowed from Google Images with bilingual labels, an image of the retelling rope to assist in modeling or feedback, instructions for the Vietnamese assistant and a group vocabulary cloze activity.

Intervention Steps. In session 1 of the parallel read-aloud routine, the Vietnamese assistant started by establishing a purpose for the unit by explaining the language objective of using more sophisticated vocabulary and the content objective of adding more story elements when retelling. Next, the assistant taught 5-6 key vocabulary words in English and Vietnamese and set the background for the story. Vocabulary items were chosen based on how essential they were to performing a retell of the story and usefulness for further academic work. Following Beck, McKeown and Kucan's (2002) framework delineating three tiers of vocabulary instruction, preference was given to *Tier Two* vocabulary, defined as "words that are of high frequency for mature language users and are found across a variety of domains" (p.8), while also providing instruction of *Tier One* vocabulary, "the most basic words"(p. 8), which ELLs may need (Calderon et al., 2005; Cruz de Quiros et al., 2010). Building on both Silverman's analytical approach to vocabulary instruction and Calderon's model of teaching vocabulary bilingually (2005), word study included the use of a visual with the word written in English and Vietnamese, student-friendly definitions, repeating the word chorally and review within the story context and extending to other contexts. The major component of the first lesson was an interactive read-aloud in Vietnamese, including literal and inferential questioning prior to, during and following the reading (eg. story elements, predictions, inferences, connections, summarizing, etc.). The

lesson concluded with the assistant reviewing the story elements in Vietnamese and modeling a retell in Vietnamese using the retelling rope.

In session 2, the ESOL teacher started by reviewing the lesson's purposes and briefly presenting verbal affirmative and corrective group and individual feedback derived from the weekly TNR results, while referencing the retelling rope visual. Feedback concentrated on story grammar elements from the retelling rope but occasionally referenced language complexity targets from the TNR, the two additional story elements on the TNR (plan and middle feeling), and the use of sophisticated vocabulary. Feedback consisted of statements such as "Wow, you all used the character's name last week!", "We need to work on ending our stories like this: 'Julia was HAPPY BECAUSE she got to play on the swings again.'", or "Listen to how nicely Thuy stated the problem last week". Subsequently, she reviewed the same key vocabulary words in English with visuals. Before starting the read-aloud in English, the teacher asked students to orally recall parts of the story in English. The ESOL teacher then conducted the second interactive read-aloud including more literal and inferential questioning followed by an English group retell using the story grammar manipulatives from the retelling rope. In a group retell, students were provided with one or two manipulatives from the rope and then took turns retelling their corresponding parts in order with prompting and feedback from the teacher.

In session 3, the ESOL teacher restated the purpose of the lesson and reviewed the vocabulary using a group cloze procedure with contexts unrelated to the story. She then performed a final, fast-paced read-aloud in English to allow time for individual retells in English in a dyad or trio using retelling ropes and responding to teacher feedback. The teacher continuously prompted students in sessions 2 and 3 for more extended responses in English and provided feedback on the use of story grammar, language complexity (use of "then", "when",

“after” and “because”) and target vocabulary. The intensity of prompting (Table 2) and the type of feedback were differentiated according to student need as much as possible based on the results of weekly progress monitoring. Students remained in the intervention phase until the end of the project (22 weeks maximum).

Table 2

Types of Teacher Prompts During Intervention Sessions

Level	Type of Prompt	Examples
1	Indirect Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What’s next ? • Then what happened? • How do we start a retell ?
2	Direct Questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who were the <i>characters</i>? • What was the <i>end feeling</i> ?
3	Cloze Procedure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • So he climbed up the big beanstalk and found a • A fox was out walking in the country when
4	Models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He was grateful because the mouse saved his life. Can you repeat that? • Li’s class was getting ready for a Chinese New Year assembly. Can you repeat that?

Note. Adapted from Story Champs procedures recommended in teacher’s manual (Spencer & Petersen, 2013).

Measures

Dependent variables. For the purpose of this study, the primary dependent variable, overall narrative retelling quality, is defined as students’ ability to listen to a story and orally report the story including central macro-structural story elements such as *character*, *setting*,

problem, attempt, consequence and *ending* and additional macro-structural elements such as *emotion* and *plan* (Hughes et al., 1997; Petersen & Spencer, 2012b). Overall retell quality is also enhanced by the use of microstructure such as transition words and subordinating clauses to create more coherence. Minimally, a quality retell for school-age students involves reporting an *episode*, a benchmark in retelling ability representing the ability to report the problem, attempt, and consequence (Hughes et al., 1997; Petersen & Spencer, 2012b). Researchers do not agree on the age at which the ability to report an episode emerges, but a review of the literature reveals that age 5 (kindergarten) may represent the onset of this continually developing ability for monolingual English speakers (Hughes et al., 1997; McCabe, 1997b; Muñoz, Gillam, Peña, & Gulley-Faehnle, 2003; Petersen & Spencer, 2012b). However, evidence from retell intervention research, conducted largely with monolinguals as well, points to the potential for preschoolers to be taught to produce episodes earlier (Hayward & Schneider, 2000; Spencer, 2009).

As retell quality also depends on the appropriate use of language complexity or microstructure (Hughes et al., 1997), two additional micro-structural dependent variables, which demonstrate developmental sensitivity for ELLs (Miller et al., 2006; Uccelli & Paez, 2007), were used to measure language productivity and complexity. Number of diverse words (NDW) was analyzed to measure if the subject was improving the breadth of vocabulary used in retells and mean utterance length (MLU) was analyzed to measure whether the subject was increasing syntactic complexity. As directly teaching and reviewing target vocabulary is a best practice for ELLs (Calderon et al., 2005; Gersten et al., 2007), it formed a component of the intervention routine as a means of supporting comprehension and retelling skill; however, taught vocabulary was not measured as a dependent variable because students' entry into the intervention phase, and exposure to vocabulary, was staggered.

Several measures were utilized to document students' growth in retell ability and language complexity and productivity. The most critical measure, the Test of Narrative Retell, will be discussed first as it was used to document response to intervention throughout the phases of the multiple baseline single subject design.

The Test of Narrative Retell: Kindergarten (TNR:K). The TNR:K (Petersen & Spencer, 2012b) was used for the purpose of progress monitoring of retell quality during baseline, intervention and maintenance phases. The battery provides numerous, unfamiliar assessment stories that were created for regular progress monitoring of retell ability (Appendix K). The short stories used were created to be similar in structure, complexity and length. Specifically, kindergarten stories include 108-112 words, three instances of "because", two instances of "then", one instance of "when" and one instance of "after" in addition to two adverbs, one double pronoun adjective and one single pronoun adjective (T. Spencer, personal communication, June 30, 2014). Additionally, the stories were based on a number of personal, daily life themes to control for the effects of background knowledge on retelling. The authors describe the test as a "standardized, criterion-referenced assessment" (Petersen & Spencer, 2012b, p. 9) and report research demonstrating that the measures are sensitive to change over a short period of time.

In Petersen and Spencer (2012b), the designers state that validity and reliability tests of this cutting-edge test battery are ongoing. For the preschool version, they report alternate form reliability as a bi-variate Pearson correlation of .77 and inter-rater reliability of 96%. Evidence of construct validity is provided by a correlation of .88 with the norm-referenced Renfrew Bus Story and .93 with the Index of Narrative Complexity, which correlates highly with the norm-referenced Test of Narrative Language (Petersen, Gillam & Gillam, 2008). Such correlations

with well-known, lengthier narrative tests are impressive considering that the TNR can be administered in less than 5 minutes. Fidelity of administration is reported at 91%. In personal communication with D. Petersen (personal communication, February 21, 2014), it was confirmed that inter-rater reliability for the school-aged tests has been established at 95% and other psychometric measures are comparable to the preschool version.

The TNR:K includes 14 categories to score creating a maximum score is a 32. The Total Score is the combination of a story grammar score, a language complexity score and an episode complexity score. The story grammar score indicates how many story elements the child includes from the model story focusing on macrostructure elements (eg. character or problem) scored on a range of 0-2. Students score higher per element depending on the level of specificity used. As discussed above, the episode complexity score provides a measure of coherence: it “weights the inclusion of main story grammar parts” (Petersen & Spencer, 2012b, p. 7). The maximum score of 5 for episodic complexity on the kindergarten TNR requires students to retell the problem, attempt, consequence and ending. Previous retell and narrative research projects (Hayward & Schneider, 2000; Petersen, Gillam, Spencer & Gillam, 2010) have also incorporated a similar measure of episodic complexity in addition to story grammar elements to gauge the effectiveness of narrative intervention. The brief language complexity section of the TNR allows students to get extra points for attending to microstructure, the use of linguistic features such as “then” and words introducing subordinate clauses such as “because,” “when,” etc.. Overall, however, the TNR Total Score is largely weighted towards macrostructural, not microstructural, variables.

While the authors are clear that normative information is not yet available for different age levels, preliminary testing and conclusions from the developers’ research suggest that an approximate score of 16 may represent a reasonable target for 5-year-olds (Petersen & Spencer,

2012b). This entails narrating most critical story elements to create an episode, including a few markers of language complexity and receiving bonus points for episode complexity. As norms are not yet available for ELLs and research regarding the narrative development for native speakers is inconclusive (Hughes et al., 1997), one of the goals of this study was to contribute to the knowledge base regarding retelling development for ELLs under intervention conditions.

Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts Software (SALT) Language

Complexity Measures. To progress monitor language complexity and productivity weekly, TNR retells were transcribed and analyzed using the SALT procedures (Miller, Andriacchi & Nockerts, 2011). First, the SALT software was used to calculate number of diverse words (NDW) or vocabulary diversity, which represents the number of different word roots used in the narrative. NDW has been correlated with narrative quality in native speakers and ELLs (Heilmann, Miller, Nockerts & Dunaway, 2010; Uccelli & Paez, 2007) and may represent a more authentic measure of vocabulary proficiency compared to standardized testing (Miller et al., 2006). In addition, students' syntactic complexity was measured using mean length of utterance (MLU), which provides an average of the number of words per utterance in the sample. Utterances in retell samples were segmented using communication units (C-units) following recommended SALT procedures. A C-unit is "a main clause with all its dependent clauses" (Miller, Andriacchi & Nockerts, 2011, p. 34). MLU and NDW were only calculated for complete and intelligible utterances. Both measures are used to document growth in the proficiency of native speakers and ELLs (McGregor, 2000; Miller et al., 2006; Petersen, Gillam, Spencer & Gillam, 2010; Rojas & Iglesias, 2013; Spencer, 2009).

Frog Where Are You? Retells. Overall retelling quality and language productivity and complexity was also measured prior to and following the intervention using retell samples based

on wordless picture books. An English retell was elicited prior to starting intervention using SALT procedures for the book *Frog Where Are You?* (FWAY; Mayer, 1969) and following the intervention using the same book. The same book was used before and after the intervention because the resulting retells can be compared to two norm-referenced retell databases, one created with native English speaking children and the other created with ELLs. In addition, the developers cannot provide parallel form reliability measures for the other Frog books (J. Miller, personal communication, May 5, 2013). This additional retell measure was chosen to provide further information on retelling skill using longer, fictional materials with multiple episodes and picture support. Additionally, various Frog wordless books by Mercer Mayer and the FWAY story, in particular, have been used extensively to study narrative development and measure the impact of intervention (Berman & Slobin, 1994; Miller et al., 2008; Muñoz et al., 2003; Pearson, 2002; Petersen, Gillam & Gillam, 2008; Rojas & Iglesias, 2013). The FWAY retells were scored using the Index of Narrative Complexity for overall narrative structure and using the SALT databases for language complexity.

The Index of Narrative Complexity (INC). In order to measure overall retelling quality before and after intervention, the Frog story retells were scored using the INC rubric (Petersen, Gillam & Gillam, 2008, Appendix L). The INC, designed by one of the developers of the TNR:K, is unique as a criterion-referenced narrative assessment because it is designed to be used with any story and to have the sensitivity needed for progress monitoring, unlike standardized assessments. It has highly detailed prescriptions for scoring macrostructural and microstructural variables contributing to high inter-rater reliability. The instrument includes 13 categories and the maximum score is 30. The categories used for macrostructure are nearly identical to the TNR:K. Although there is no section awarding extra points for different episodic complexity

levels, the INC categories are weighted to favor episode complexity. Subjects receive extra points for language complexity, which includes the use of formulaic markers, temporal markers and subordinating clauses, among other variables. Petersen, Gillam, & Gillam (2008, n=12) and Petersen et al. (2010, n=3) reported over 90% inter-rater reliability. The INC has demonstrated criterion validity through correlations with the standardized Test of Narrative Language ranging from .602 - .828 for different samples in Petersen, Gillam & Gillam (2008). Evidence of test-retest reliability, Petersen et al.'s (2008, p. 128) subjects' INC scores "reflected no improvements in narration" after a month without intervention.

FWAY SALT Database Comparisons. In order to assess language complexity and productivity for the Frog story retells before and after intervention, the subjects' retells were transcribed using SALT procedures and analyzed in comparison to the SALT retell databases. The SALT software and database were used to provide norm-referenced scores for NDW and MLU to document what subjects' incoming micro-structural skills were in English and whether the subjects were approaching age-appropriate norms in English in response to the intervention. The ELL database contains 2,070 English retells from students ranging from 5 years old to 9 years and 9 months of age for the FWAY story. All the samples from the ELL database were produced by typically developing bilingual Latino public school students of a variety of socioeconomic backgrounds from Texas and California. A separate database also contains 145 FWAY retell samples of typically developing English-speaking public school students from Wisconsin and California from a variety of socioeconomic backgrounds ranging from 4 years and 4 months of age to 7 years and 5 months of age (Miller, Andriacchi & Nockerts, 2011). Research has confirmed that transcribers can reach over 90% inter-rater agreement using SALT transcription rules (Heilmann et al., 2008). While the Latino ELL database does not provide a

direct match with the Vietnamese ELL sample, it can provide a helpful reference point as to how the subjects compare to other ELLs alongside the data comparing them to native-speaking English students.

Design

This study investigated the effect of the *parallel read-aloud* intervention using a multiple baseline, across-participants single-subject design (Kazdin, 2011; Riley-Tillman & Burns, 2009). This design suited this study well because I desired to study how the addition of a retelling intervention to an existing ESOL program impacts individuals in a small group. Single-subject research design (SSD) is especially suited to research in applied educational settings where the impact of the intervention is hypothesized to create an immediate effect and where the use of control groups is not feasible. Single subject design lends itself to investigating how interventions may impact the subjects differentially (Spencer & Slocum, 2010) by using each subject's own pre-intervention performance as a control and documenting progress individually. Tracking students' performance regularly creates a pattern of growth that immediately informs the teacher if instruction needs to be modified and also indicates when the subject has reached a criterion level of performance (as opposed to waiting for a post-test). SSDs have been used successfully with narrative retelling or story grammar interventions in the past (Idol & Croll, 1987; McGregor, 2000; Petersen, Gillam, Spencer, & Gillam, 2010; Spencer & Slocum, 2010). However, this study expands the use of SSD in narrative research to the population of school-aged ELLs. Finally, SSD is highly aligned with RtI models currently being used to track response to reading interventions through the use of frequent progress-monitoring assessment (Riley-Tillman & Burns, 2009). A similar approach may prove useful in progress monitoring language comprehension with ELLs if this study and future studies can provide validation. Pre-

and post-intervention measures were also used to gather further evidence regarding the effects of the intervention.

Baseline phase. The baseline phase for the sample included classroom instruction in English and typical ESOL instruction three times a week in a small group outside the classroom that is structured around National Geographic's Reach curriculum (Frey et al., 2011) and students' academic needs emanating from classroom work geared towards the CCSS. Although story elements may be introduced through read-alouds, repeated read-alouds and intensive retelling instruction are not part of typical instruction in the classroom or in the ESOL setting. Two subjects also received three sessions a week with the ESOL teacher providing an early decoding intervention that does not target oral language or comprehension. The Vietnamese research assistant visited the baseline ESOL sessions twice to build rapport with students before starting the intervention.

Intervention phase. Following multiple baseline single subject design, students entered the intervention phase at different intervals. The first two subjects were chosen to start intervention because their baseline trends were the most stable across four weeks of measurement. Two students entered intervention together in the first leg of the intervention, in contrast to subsequent legs of intervention, to allow for cooperative work as dictated by the intervention steps. After the intervention trend stabilized for the first two subjects, intervention subject 3 entered the same intervention group. Subjects 4 and 5 were introduced individually after a stable intervention trend was observed for previous subjects. Students who entered the existing intervention group were provided with a short 5-minute orientation by the teacher/researcher as to the expectations, goals and procedures of the small group before starting the intervention. However, the location, participants and interventionists were already familiar to

them. Logistical constraints disallowed the ability to run parallel intervention groups to control for group size. While the intervention group size changed when new subjects were introduced, the points in time when the group size changed is indicated on subjects' line graphs (subjects' phase change lines) to help identify the potential effect of group size on students' language growth. Students remained in intervention until the study concluded in March, 2015: subjects 1 and 2 received 22 weeks of intervention; subject 3 received 18 weeks; subject 4 received 12 weeks; and subject 5 received 8 weeks of intervention.

Maintenance phase. Students returned to baseline instructional routines after intervention ceased. The maintenance phase began 4 weeks after the conclusion of the intervention. Subjects were administered two TNR stories during the same week, which were also transcribed, to determine if students maintained their retell ability, including overall quality and language complexity measures, in the absence of intervention. Two retell samples were used to provide a more accurate representation of performance (considering the variability inherent in retell testing).

Agreement and Fidelity

Inter-rater agreement. In accordance with the recently published standards for single subject design (Kratochwill et al., 2013), 20% of weekly retell tests across all phases and across all subjects were transcribed and scored twice. For overall retell quality, I scored the weekly TNR retells first; a trained research assistant, who was blind to participants' identity and phase, subsequently scored 20% of the weekly retells using the TNR. For language complexity and productivity, 20% of the TNR retells were transcribed again by another research assistant, a speech/language graduate student experienced in transcription, after being transcribed by the researcher. Training for the SALT transcribing process involved over 10 hours of online training

for the researcher. Training for the SALT research assistant required 30 minutes of orientation to SALT conventions and two hours of practice scoring until 90% inter-rater agreement was established. For the TNR, the researcher provided a separate research assistant with one hour of orientation and another hour of practice scoring retells until the researcher and assistant achieved greater than 90% agreement. Agreement for the TNR was defined as providing the same score for specificity for the same category. The goal for inter-rater agreement was over 90% for transcription and over 90% for the TNR using point-by-point agreement. Point by point agreement was calculated by the number of agreements divided by the number of agreements plus disagreements multiplied by 100 (Kazdin, 2011). Scoring agreement between the researcher and a research assistant for TNR Total Score was 92% with a range of 85%-100%. Agreement between the researcher and the transcription research assistant was 95% for C-Units (range of 71-100%) and 93% for number of words (range of 74 – 100%). Procedures were reviewed once after a month of administration with both assistants to clarify guidelines for TNR scoring (eg. degree of specificity needed) and future transcriptions (eg. slow speech, mumbling, false starts, etc.).

Testing fidelity. To control for potential testing effects, 20% of recorded TNR testing sessions were evaluated by the research assistants who transcribed the recordings to measure how closely testing sessions followed the guidelines for elicitation (Appendix M). The goal for testing fidelity was 95% accuracy across testing sessions. Treatment fidelity was calculated at 98% with a range of 83 - 100%.

Treatment fidelity. Treatment fidelity was monitored for 20% of lessons across the intervention phase using a checklist (Appendix N). Adhering to recommendations that treatment fidelity be measured in various ways (Smith, Daunic & Taylor, 2007), the checklist was

completed twice: it was used as a means of self-report by the teacher and for a separate observer and the results were averaged. The Vietnamese assistant provided treatment validity data through self-report and Vietnamese sessions were observed by the researcher, who was present for all the Vietnamese lessons. Twenty percent of the English lessons were also evaluated through self-report on behalf of the ESOL teacher/researcher and also videotaped so they could be scored by a research assistant using the treatment fidelity checklist (Horner et al., 2005; Sanetti & Kratochwill, 2009). The treatment fidelity scores for each lesson were averaged. The goal for treatment fidelity was 95% agreement regarding adherence to the instructional steps for the 3-day lesson sequence on average across the course of the intervention. If treatment fidelity did not reach goal levels, intervention procedures were reviewed. Treatment fidelity across the timeline for intervention (October through March) was calculated at 96% for the Vietnamese assistant and 100% for the ESOL instructor/researcher.

Data Collection

Test of Narrative Retell: Kindergarten. During the baseline, intervention and maintenance phases, weekly retells using the TNR were collected individually by the researcher/interventionist. Baseline and intervention testing was done at a weekly frequency to measure the impact of the three-day weekly instructional units. Previous studies with the TNR have performed both daily and weekly probing (Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2013). Maintenance tests were administered two separate days (one sample per day per child) four weeks after intervention ceased.

Students were tested individually in a quiet room following the testing guidelines (Appendix M) and audio-recorded using an Olympus VN-702PC digital recorder. One day after finishing a three-day unit of intervention, students were read a new TNR assessment story and

asked to retell it. The researcher used the audio recordings to score the samples using the TNR rubric and to create transcripts using SALT software. The SALT software was used to calculate weekly NDW and MLU scores. NDW and MLU scores were only calculated for complete and intelligible utterances in the subjects' retells. The subjects' progress with overall narrative retelling quality, NDW and MLU was documented by entering the weekly scores into Excel to create a separate line graph for each subject for each dependent variable (Riley-Tillman & Burns, 2010).

FWAY Retells. The FWAY retells were collected by the researcher individually with students the first week of the study and again after concluding the intervention phase. Students were tested in a quiet room and audio-recorded using an Olympus VN-702PC digital recorder. Following SALT developers' guidelines, students were read the FWAY story transcript as they looked at the pictures in the book. Immediately after hearing the story, they were asked to tell the researcher the story using the pictures. The researcher used the audio recordings to score their retells using the INC rubric and to create transcripts using the SALT software. The SALT software also generated the database comparison scores for NDW and MLU (one for the native speaking English database and another for the bilingual database).

Social Validity

Social validity measures in SSD assess the practical relevance of the intervention goals, procedures and results as perceived by the target population of consumers (Horner et al., 2005; Kazdin, 2011; Wolf, 1978). This additional component to data collection confirms if subjects' performance is approaching norms, if evidence of change can be observed by others working with the subjects, and if the intervention procedures are likely to be implemented by others. Following Kazdin's guidelines (2011), the social validity measures considered students'

performance in terms of *social norms* (recognized benchmarks) and *subjective evaluation* of procedures and outcomes by various stakeholders.

To evaluate whether the subjects' performance approached normative levels, their TNR scores were analyzed to see how many intervention sessions were required before the subject was able to produce a minimal episode (problem, attempt, and consequence) and/or achieve a score of 16. It should be noted that these norms are based largely on research with native English speakers: a minimal episode is a tentative norm for 5 or 6-year-olds (Peterson & McCabe, 1983) and the TNR developers have set the score of 16 as a benchmark for kindergarten (Petersen & Spencer, 2012b).

To measure the social validity of outcomes through subjective evaluation, the four kindergarten classroom teachers that work at the school, who regularly assess the quality of retells in classroom instruction and reading assessment, were asked to provide their opinion regarding the outcomes. The four teachers were Caucasian women, ranging in age from 29 – 50, with teaching experience ranging from 7 years to 17 years. They were presented with four transcripts including two subjects' two best baseline retells and two best intervention retells to confirm if they could determine which retells had improved in terms of story grammar elements included and language complexity and productivity used. A percentage was calculated to determine how consistently they chose the two intervention retells as being superior.

To measure the social validity of the goals and the intervention procedure, the researcher administered a modified version of the Usage Rating Profile – Intervention (URP-I; Chafouleas, Briesch, Riley-Tillman & McCoach, 2009; Appendix O) to 5 bilingual education / ESOL teachers. Teachers were recruited by convenience sampling by requesting that administrators from the Connecticut Administrator's of Programs for English Language Learners' (CAPELL)

bilingual education interest group help recruit ESOL/bilingual education teachers from different districts. Teachers from 5 different districts in Connecticut volunteered to take the survey. They were all female; one was Latina and the others were Caucasian. Their ages ranged from 27 – 51 and their teaching experience ranged from 3 – 26 years. Following similar procedures to those used originally to test the URP-I, teachers were read a brief intervention summary on the phone and then asked to fill out the questionnaire and return it by mail to indicate the extent to which they believe the intervention is appealing, time-worthy and practical. The URP-I includes four subscales of factors that could affect future implementation: acceptability, understanding, feasibility, and systems support. *Acceptability* refers to the interventionists' perception of how appropriate and effective the intervention is and their level of enthusiasm. *Understanding* refers to how well the interventionist understands the steps and feels capable of carrying them out. *Feasibility* refers to the practicality of implementation as regards time and disruptiveness. *Systems support* refers to the need for others' support or permission (eg. parents, administrators or other adults) to implement the intervention. Results of the original validation study (Chafouleas et al., 2009) support the four factor structure indicating the factors had strong internal consistency reliabilities between .84 - .96. Some items were reworded slightly to reflect the nature of the retelling intervention. Designed to be used across different types of intervention contexts, versions of the URP-I⁵ have been used successfully to measure the social validity of behavior and academic interventions (Briesch, Chafouleas, Leven & Blom-Hoffman, 2008; Sanetti, Collier-Meek, Long, Kim & Kratochwill, 2014). Teachers' scores for each factor were averaged into a single score for each survey respondent and then averaged across respondents for a group score. The scores for each factor were also averaged separately to compare the

⁵ This instrument has recently been revised to include 6 subscales. It is described in Briesch, Chafouleas, Neugebauer & Riley-Tillman (2013).

differential response to considerations of acceptability, understanding, feasibility, and systems support. Following instructions from the developers, scores for the systems support subscale were reverse scored in order to align with the other subscales (i.e. higher score indicates more favorable response in terms of having required external resources already in place).

Finally, considering the sociocultural power issues mentioned in the ELC framework above, the children were also given a voice in determining the social validity of the intervention. The subjects were also given a brief Likert-scale questionnaire (Appendix P) inviting them to share their opinions about the parallel read-aloud routine and their retelling ability. The researcher read the questionnaire individually to the students in a quiet room prior to taking the FWAY post-test. The percentage of common responses across children was calculated for each question.

Data Analysis

In alignment with recent WWC Standards for single subject research (Kratochwill et al., 2013), for research questions 1-3, the subjects' line graphs for TNR Total Story Score, NDW and MLU were analyzed using visual analysis to compare data in baseline, intervention and maintenance phases. In addition, statistical procedures were used to confirm effects observed for the TNR Total Story Score and NDW. Visual analysis in multiple baseline SSD involves analyzing the data from all phases for all subjects for changes in level, trend and variability (Horner et al., 2005; Kratochwill et al., 2010). Following Kazdin's guidelines, level was studied by looking for sharp step-like changes in performance in addition to the overall phase mean. However, in contrast to Kazdin, the concept of level was expanded to include sharp changes in performance at any time during the phase as opposed to only when the phase changed. Horner et al. (2005) defines trend and variability succinctly:

Trend references the rate of increase or decrease of the best-fit straight line for the dependent variable within a condition (i.e., slope). Variability refers to the degree to which performance fluctuates around a mean or slope during a phase. (p.171)

Additionally, data was analyzed for latency of change, amount of overlap and consistency between phases (Kratochwill et al., 2010). Latency of change refers to how immediately the dependent variable changes after the introduction of the intervention. The amount of overlap refers to the quantity of data points that are found within the same range of scores across two phases. To align with recent single subject narrative research (Petersen et al., 2014; Spencer et al., 2013), the percent of non-overlapping data non-parametric statistical technique (PND; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998) was used to calculate individuals' overlap. The goal in calculating PND is to observe a large percentage of non-overlapping scores between baseline and intervention performance indicating that the intervention has caused a change in the level of scores. Finally, consistency between phases refers to finding patterns of performance in baseline and intervention across subjects. Researchers using multiple baseline SSD can claim evidence of an intervention effect when visual analysis confirms the introduction of the intervention caused changes in performance for a subject and when a similar effect is replicated for two or more subjects with staggered lengths of the baseline phase (Horner et al., 2005; Kratochwill et al., 2010).

To calculate an overall effect size for the intervention, the non-parametric statistical procedure of Percentage of All Non-Overlapping Data, one of several effect sizes used in SSD, was used to measure overlap (PAND; Parker, Hagan-Burke & Vannest, 2007). Overlap is defined most simply as “the proportion of treatment phase data that exceed baseline

observations” (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2013, p. 11). Although there is no firmly established measure for calculating effect sizes in single subject design (Kazdin, 2011), PAND has several advantages over other techniques. Unlike PND, which calculates an effect size for each individual, PAND utilizes all the data from baseline and intervention phases to calculate a single effect size across subjects. It can also be used to calculate Pearson’s *Phi* and *Phi*² or to calculate Cohen’s *d*, which are more recognized effect sizes. PAND, similar to other overlap techniques, quantifies a change in the level of data but does not account for trend or variability (Wolery, Busick, Reichow, & Barton, 2008). Also, it should be noted that effect sizes using overlap techniques do not measure the magnitude of change as effect sizes do in between-group research and, thus, cannot be compared to between-group research results (Parker, Vannest & Davis, 2014; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2013). Vannest et al. (2008) recommend interpreting phi as a “percentage of improvement” and provide guidelines for interpretation: phi values of .43 or below are small; values of .43 to .76 are medium; and higher values are considered large (p. 21). Maggin, Briesch & Chafouleas (2012) recommend interpreting phi as a correlation: “the results can be understood as a measure of the strength of association for the improvement between phases” (p.8). Given their limitations, single-subject effect sizes must be interpreted alongside the results of visual analysis.

In order to provide a more detailed analysis of what story elements emerge in ELLs’ retells as a response to intervention, individual grid analysis was used (Spencer, 2009). For grid analysis, a Word table was used and boxes were color-coded to indicate the degree of specificity used by the student (black = score of 2; grey = score of 1) in accordance with TNR scoring. Students’ use of story grammar elements and markers of language complexity were charted for weeks 1 - 4 during the baseline phase and again for weeks 5 – 8 of each individual’s intervention

phase to study the change in performance in a more qualitative manner. These specific weeks were chosen to compare performance during equal intervals of baseline and intervention instruction. The maximum of 8 weeks of intervention was chosen because the last subject only received 8 weeks of intervention and it also represents a practical dose of intervention to study. Using the grid, the frequency of the occurrence of story grammar elements and markers of language complexity across all five subjects' retells was calculated as a percentage to compare baseline and intervention performance.

For pre- and post-tests using the FWAY story, the researcher used the non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test to measure whether subjects had made statistically significant gains on the INC, MLU and NDW respectively. This test was used because the small population from which the data was drawn cannot be assumed to be normally distributed and the INC provides ordinal data.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter reports the results of the multiple baseline single subject study of the parallel read aloud intervention. The results of the study are organized by the three research questions. Subsequently, the results of social validity measures are summarized. The research questions proposed were the following:

1. Do Vietnamese ELL kindergarteners improve the overall quality of their narrative retelling performance in response to 8-22 weeks of the *parallel read-aloud* routine (a bilingual repeated read-aloud and retelling small group intervention)? (RQ#1)
2. Do Vietnamese ELL kindergarteners improve their use of language complexity and productivity in retells as measured by syntactic complexity and vocabulary diversity in response to 8-22 weeks of the *parallel read-aloud* routine? (RQ#2)
3. How does narrative retelling ability at the end of the intervention compare with the retelling quality, language complexity and language productivity indicators 4 weeks after intervention ceases? (RQ#3)

Prior to considering the results of the intervention, it is important to highlight the heterogeneity of language and literacy profiles observed in the sample for this study through the use of tests, parent questionnaires and anecdotal observations. This is important to advance knowledge concerning the types of ELLs schools may receive and to consider this heterogeneity in judging intervention effectiveness.

Despite all having received preschool in English the previous year, the five Vietnamese ELL participants started kindergarten with very low overall English language ability as determined by their PreLAS scores. This finding aligns with recent research suggesting that

Vietnamese ELLs may be more at risk for low English oral language proficiency compared to other Asian subgroups (Han, 2012). Interestingly, there was considerable variety in the initial TNR retelling screen scores among the five students within this low band of English proficiency, indicating that ELLs with low oral proficiency can perform an English retell with differing degrees of mastery. Huy faced particular difficulty as, in addition to being an ELL, he also struggled with a speech-language disorder.

A further difference was the reported strength of the child's use of their family's first language and the child's use of their home language in the small group. The children fell on a wide spectrum of L1 language use ranging from functional monolingualism in the family's second language (Jessica) to emerging balanced bilingualism (Thuy). Surprisingly, the two girls with the strongest reported home language background were the only ones to participate orally in the Vietnamese sessions but rarely used it in English sessions. In contrast, in English sessions, all students participated openly and regularly and even showed a competitive spirit. Providing further evidence of strong first language skills (Reyes & Ervin-Tripp, 2004), Thuy was the only student who would code-switch in baseline to start her retells consistently stating "one hôm" in English-Vietnamese for "one day."

Thuy, the most recent immigrant, was the most enthusiastic and participated the most in both Vietnamese and English sessions. She also exhibited the strongest incoming literacy background. She knew several stories already from her rich home literacy experiences and could make easily make connections between stories. She was the only one who recognized that the Chinese version of Cinderella, *Yeh-Hsien*, was similar to the Vietnamese version *Tam Cam*.

Overall Retell Quality

The main objective of the study (RQ #1) was to determine if the parallel read-aloud intervention would improve the kindergarten ELLs' overall retell quality. To investigate this potential effect, data were collected weekly in a multiple baseline single subject design using the TNR-K. Additionally, retells were collected pre- and post-intervention in response to the FWAY wordless book and scored with the INC rubric.

Test of Narrative Retell. The results of the multiple baseline study, using the Total Score results of the TNR:K, are presented in Figure 2. Table 3 displays the number of weeks each student participated in the intervention and the TNR and INC scores that were calculated to gauge improvement in overall retell quality. Attendance for intervention sessions was very high ($M = 94\%$) ranging from 90 - 97% per student. Visual analysis was conducted following the guidelines set forth in the WWC Single Case Design Pilot Standards (Kratochwill et al., 2010, 2013). Thus, the results for each student were analyzed individually to assess changes in level (phase mean), trend, variability, immediacy of effect and overlap. Following the recent recommendations for visual analysis (Horner, Swaminathan, Sugai & Smolkowski, 2012), immediacy of effect was measured by comparing the last 3-5 points in baseline with the first 3-5 points in intervention. Finally, the consistency of individuals' results were compared and synthesized across the study using visual analysis to determine whether a functional relationship was observed between the intervention and performance. Following WWC standards, the PAND and phi statistics were only calculated if evidence supported a moderate or strong intervention effect.

Table 3

Test of Narrative Retell Scores for Overall Retell Quality

	# of Interv. Weeks	TNR Baseline Mean	TNR Interv. Mean	Mean Difference	PND	Best Retell Gain
Tiffany	22	4.75	12.62	7.87	91%	9
Huy	22	1	7.68	6.68	91%	14
Jessica	18	10.88	13.67	2.79	33%	6
Alex	12	2.93	12	9.07	92%	13
Thuy	8	14.89	21.63	6.74	50%	5

Note. Interv. = Intervention. PND = percent non-overlapping data.
 Best retell gain = difference between top baseline score and top
 intervention score. TNR score ceiling = 28.

Tiffany's scores in baseline (Figure 2 – panel 1), with a baseline mean of 4.75, moderate variability and little trend, indicate low initial retelling ability. In contrast, her intervention scores rise steeply to a mean of 12.62 and display a slight increasing trend with a similar amount of variability. Tiffany's scores demonstrate an immediate effect following the introduction of the intervention: the level of scores jumped after 2 weeks of intervention from a baseline mean of 4.75 to an intervention mean of 11. Her PND was high at 91%.

Huy entered the first leg of intervention simultaneously with Tiffany. His scores in baseline (Figure 2 – panel 2) indicate great difficulty with retelling with the lowest baseline mean of all students ($M = 1$), a flat trend and no variability. Providing further evidence of his difficulty, in week 3 of baseline, Huy could not produce a retell. However, after starting intervention, Huy was always able to produce a retell in the testing sessions (the quality was extremely low, however, in week 1). Huy's level changed immediately after 3 weeks of intervention with an overall intervention phase mean of 6.68 influenced by his slow, steady

rising trend in intervention. Huy's scores were more variable in intervention as they were increasing. However, Huy's PND was very high at 91% and his score for best retell gain was the highest at 14.

Jessica (Figure 2 – panel 3) produced a strong retell with a score of 16 during the first week of baseline but her performance dropped subsequently to a steady, flat trend at an approximate score of 10 indicating moderate retelling ability that could still benefit from retell intervention. Including the outlying score, her baseline phase mean was 10.88. Jessica's level, trend and variability of performance did not change for her overall TNR score until she received 11 weeks of intervention (notably, the same week the final and strongest student entered the intervention group). At 11 weeks, her level jumped dramatically but then declined to a more stable, flatter trend around the developer's benchmark of 16. Due to several weeks of apparent non-response in intervention, the difference between baseline and intervention phase means was only 2.79. Her outlying high data point in baseline and weeks of apparently little response on the TNR reduced her PND to the lowest score of 33%.

Although it may appear that Jessica was not making progress in the initial weeks of intervention, qualitative analysis of Jessica's retell transcripts during that time period and my observations reveal that this student was indeed trying to impose a newly learned structure on her retells with a greater deal of difficulty compared to other students. Her inattentiveness during read-aloud sessions and testing sessions made it more difficult for her to demonstrate progress, however. Her initial retells during the intervention phase often demonstrate little understanding of sequencing with her often starting the retell by narrating the solution and end feeling first (Figure 3). An in-depth transcript analysis indicates that her retells gradually started to adopt a

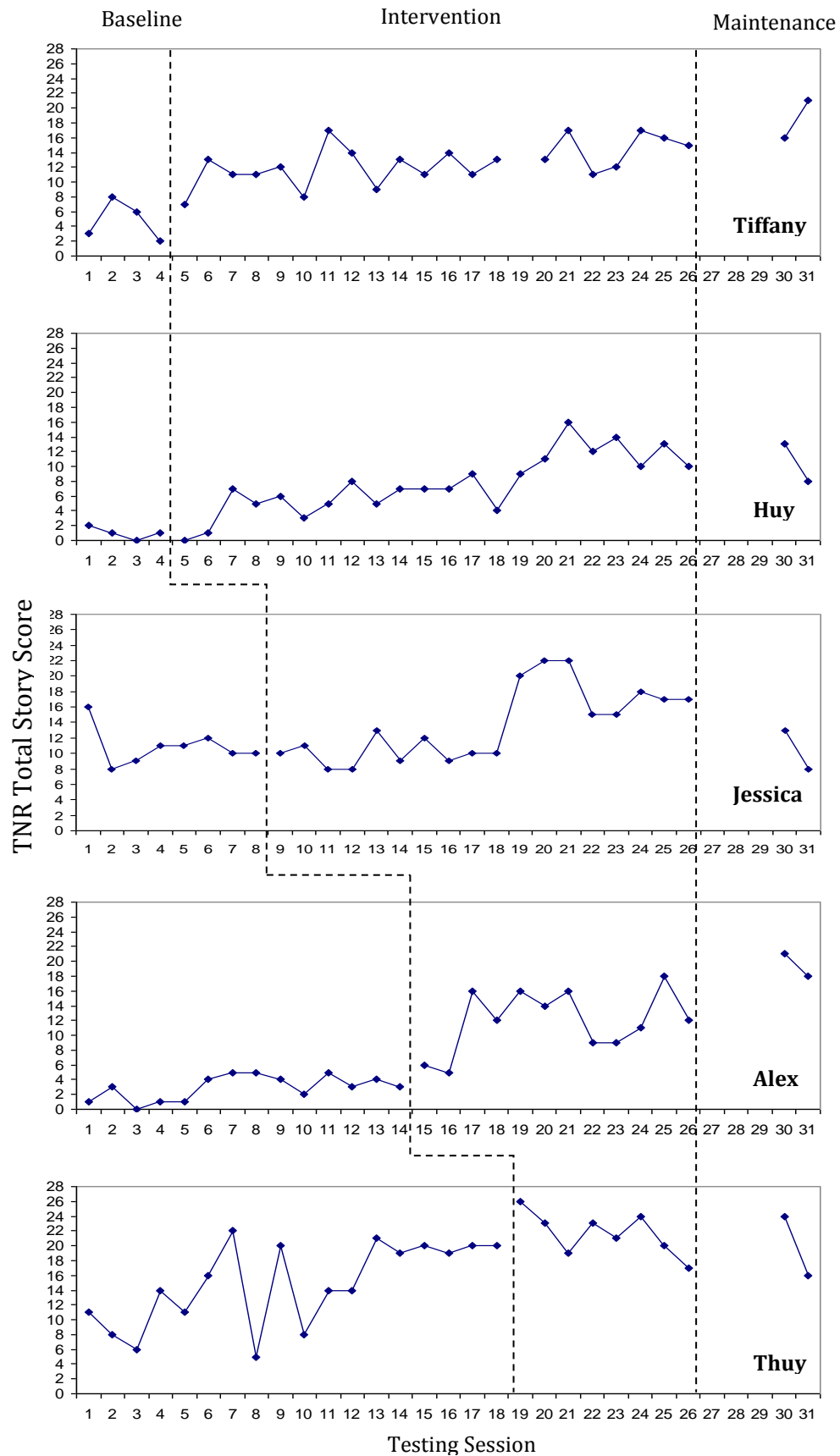


Figure 2. Weekly TNR Total Story Scores

more traditional sequence (eg. starting with a problem) after week 5. The TNR Total Score does not include a category for improved sequencing, however.

Her retell transcripts in baseline and intervention also display variable, but often very high, amounts of mazing and incomplete utterances. Mazing is defined as repetitions, revisions or disfluencies with word parts, words or phrases in speech that do not contribute to creating a grammatical utterance (Fiestas, Bedore, Peña & Nagy, 2005). Mazing, which can indicate a word-finding difficulty or language disorder, is more prominent in tasks that speakers find linguistically challenging and correlates with higher MLU and NDW (Fiestas et al., 2005; Bedore et al., 2006). Although normal speakers may exhibit mazing, according to Leadholm and Miller (1994; in reference to English monolinguals), mazing is diagnostically significant for speech-language pathologists if they observe:

increased frequency (more than 20-25%), increased number of words in the maze (more than three to four), the position of the mazes (multiple versus one, and placement prior to the verb phrase or elsewhere in the utterance), and the number of mazes per utterance. (p. 39)

These guidelines, in conjunction with comparison data offered by the ELL database below, point to potentially disordered language performance for Jessica although more extensive testing would be required to confirm this. As an extreme example, her retell for intervention week 2 consisted of 41% maze words for all the utterances produced and 50% abandoned utterances (Figure 3). Jessica's mazing in baseline ($M = 20.38\%$; range of 11 – 32% per retell) could indicate initial difficulty with the retelling task and the increased mazing in intervention ($M = 32.58\%$; range of 18 – 55%) could further indicate that processing the explicit instruction in retelling increased the challenge. Ironically, although Jessica's MLU was the highest at pre-test

(indicating greater language proficiency), Jessica's scores for the longer FWAY retell samples compared to the SALT databases indicated that her percentage of mazing was very high compared to English speakers and ELLs especially after receiving intervention. Her pre-test mazing (17%) was 1.53 *SD* above the mean for English speakers and .4 *SD* above the mean for ELLs. Her post-test mazing (35%) was 4.72 *SD* above the mean for English speakers and 2.62 *SD* above the mean for ELLs.

Towards the end of intervention, notwithstanding, her mazing was slowly decreasing and her retells were more focused, traditionally sequenced and included a variety of story elements although they were very fast-paced (Figure 3). Considering this student's difficulties, I argue that her data supports the interpretation that she was a delayed responder. Jessica's response after intervention week 11 may have been facilitated by the introduction of a stronger peer to the group (Thuy). Notably, I overheard Thuy tell Jessica, "I better than you." The combination of hearing a more proficient peer's performance, teacher feedback towards that peer, and direct feedback from that same peer all may have influenced Jessica's sudden growth. Relatedly, I immediately addressed the need to use kinder words with peers.

Alex' baseline scores demonstrate a rather flat trend over several weeks and a phase mean of 2.93, indicating low retell ability. In contrast, when Alex started intervention, his level rose immediately after 3 weeks of intervention to a dramatically higher phase mean of 12. In fact, his mean difference in phases was the highest of all students at 9.07 and his best retell gain was the second highest at 13 points. His flat baseline trend changed to a sharply increasing trend in intervention. Although his scores were variable in intervention, his PND was the highest at 92%.

Figure 3

Comparison Samples for Jessica

Intervention Week 2 Retell	Intervention Week 17 Retell
<p>(Tammy had fun Tammy had fun cuz) Tammy had fun cuz (she she) her friend (can/'t her friend) find her long day. And then (and then Tammy Tammy) Tammy was mad cuz > Tammy was (Tammy was Tammy was) > Tammy was happy cuz (cuz cuz cuz cuz)> (Tam*) Her friend (her friend) cannot find her (cuz she was) cuz she was for long day. (And then Tammy Tammy) and then Tammy cannot find her friend too (cuz) cuz she was in the closet finding some dirty stuff.</p> <p>Maze words = 41% of sample TNR Total Story Score = 11</p>	<p>Rosa was (Rosa was Rosa was um) going swimming. (Then she l*) Then she forgot her towel. (Then then) Then her cousin said she can use her towel. Then (um) she was happy that she got to use the towel. (And then) And then when Rosa was happy that (um) they get to throw rocks in the lake.</p> <p>Maze words = 24% of sample TNR Total Story Score = 17</p>

Note. Mazing is marked by words in parentheses. > = abandoned utterance.

* = incomplete word.

Thuy's baseline scores were unique (Figure 2–panel 5). Across the long baseline measurement period, Thuy's retell scores were highly variable and demonstrated a sharp increasing trend that leveled off after week 13 of baseline (overall baseline mean =14.89). Over the six weeks before intervention started, Thuy's trend was flat and stable demonstrating the highest baseline level of all students. This level may have been her personal growth ceiling in the absence of intervention. Despite her high scores, Thuy was considered a good candidate for retell intervention because she still had room for growth on the TNR in certain categories. In addition,

she often lacked fluency with grammar and vocabulary, which affected her scores for specificity on the TNR and contributed to the wide variability in her scores. Because of her rapid progress in baseline, parents were asked if they practice retelling at home. They explained that they did not practice retelling but added that Thuy had always been a voracious consumer of stories in Vietnamese. After starting intervention, Thuy's level rose to an intervention phase mean of 21.63, representing the highest intervention level of all students. Thuy's scores rose immediately following intervention but showed great variability once again at the upper limits of the TNR. Her PND was 50% and, because she was unable to maintain her very high score following the start of intervention, her data showed a slight decreasing trend thereafter. Uniquely, a closer analysis of TNR tests reveals that, whereas she only produced an episode intermittently in baseline, she produced a complete episode 6 out of the 8 weeks of the intervention phase.

Overall, experimental control was achieved demonstrating that the introduction of the parallel read-aloud intervention produced five individual effects across three different points in time in the direction of improved retelling performance. Whereas Tiffany, Huy and Alex demonstrate clear, strong effects, Jessica's and Thuy's effects are less dramatic. With the exception of Thuy, baseline trends were consistently stable indicating low retell ability in the absence of intervention. After entering intervention, students demonstrated immediate changes with the exception of Jessica. Tiffany and Huy improved immediately in level and trend respectively (time #1 – two students responded to intervention simultaneously), Alex demonstrated an immediate sharp level change (time #2) and both Jessica and Thuy responded differently at week 19 (time #3). Whereas Thuy demonstrated an immediate small level improvement over her higher baseline performance, Jessica demonstrated a delayed level change. Thuy's upward trend in baseline occurred before the first leg of intervention began

(rather than simultaneously); thus, it most likely does not represent an environmental confound casting doubt on the intervention effect evidenced in the others' performance. Thuy's upward trend could be explained by interdependence theory. Altogether, her rich home literacy background, strong L1 skills evidenced in group sessions, and surprisingly high initial TNR scores for a recent immigrant point to the potential for strong incoming L1 narrative abilities. Such skills may have transferred over quickly to English with mere exposure to English instruction and repeated retell testing.

According to WWC standards (Kratochwill et al., 2013), as the visual analysis supports a moderate intervention effect, PAND and phi statistical analyses were conducted to support the results. A strong effect cannot be claimed due to the short baseline periods for the first two students and Jessica's delayed effect. PAND was calculated at 84% indicating a large degree of non-overlap. Phi was calculated at .66, representing a moderate effect size (Maggin et al., 2012; Vannest et al., 2008).

In sum, visual analysis and the statistical analyses support the conclusion that the parallel read-aloud intervention produced a moderate effect for overall retelling quality in these five students. Both Figure 2 and Table 3 demonstrate considerable intra-individual variability and inter-individual variability in individuals' patterns of response. Intra-individual variability was demonstrated by sudden increases and decreases in individual student's scores. These may have occurred due to topic familiarity on the retell task, attention or competing language-processing demands (Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Spencer & Petersen, 2013). As for inter-individual variability, Huy and Alex, the lowest performers initially, showed the greatest gains in response to the intervention. Considering Huy's language difficulties, his progress, as evidenced by a best retell gain of 14, was impressive. Also remarkable, Alex reached the TNR developers' benchmark of

16 in only three weeks. However, the intervention was also effective in improving the retells of higher performers, such as Thuy, who demonstrated a best retell gain of 5. Notably, Thuy had the strongest reported Vietnamese language background and she also had the highest intervention level.

FWAY Pre- and Post-Tests / Index of Narrative Complexity. Results for the pre- and post-tests for retelling the FWAY wordless book, which were evaluated using the Index of Narrative Complexity rubric, support the conclusion that all students improved their overall retelling ability from September 2014 through March 2015. Results for the INC are presented in Table 4. This assessment measure differs from the TNR because the story is longer and fictional in nature and students are provided with picture support to aid in retelling.

Table 4

Index of Narrative Complexity Scores for Overall Retell Quality

Name	# of Intervention Weeks	INC Pretest	INC Posttest	INC Gain
Tiffany	22	7	15	8
Huy	22	8	10	2
Jessica	18	7	10	3
Alex	12	7	11	4
Thuy	8	6	13	7

First, it should be noted that although the pre-test and post-tests were conducted for all students before the study started in September and following the last intervention session in March, students received variable amounts of retell intervention in between as noted in Table 4. Students improved their retelling performance with a range of gain scores (2 – 8). Although the students' highest maintenance TNR score correlated highly with their INC post-test score ($r = .82$), students' performance on this measure differed slightly from that of the TNR. Tiffany and

Thuy made the most progress on the INC, improving 8 and 7 points respectively. Interestingly, considering her low TNR screening score in the fall, Tiffany was the top performer on this measure instead of Thuy. In contrast, Huy, whose scores improved greatly on the TNR in intervention, made the least growth on the INC (gain score of 2). The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test indicated that the students' improvement was statistically significant ($W = 15, p \leq .05$). Although visual analysis of the TNR line graphs supports the effect of intervention on performance, the time period that elapsed between the INC pre- and post-test periods also included sharp baseline improvement for Thuy, which needs to be accounted for in interpreting the pre- and post-test INC results. In sum, the INC scores confirm that students made significant growth in their retelling scores over the 26 weeks of the study and were able to demonstrate their new abilities with a longer retelling task of a fictional nature. For four of the five students, the majority of their growth in retelling ability was related to variable amounts of the parallel read-aloud retelling intervention provided during the time period between pre- and post-testing.

Grid analysis. A selective grid analysis was performed to provide a qualitative look at the elements on the TNR that showed improvement comparing the first four weeks of baseline testing and performance during weeks 5 through 8 of intervention. Weeks 1 through 4 of baseline were chosen to study a consistent amount of baseline instruction (as baseline periods varied) and Weeks 5 through 8 of intervention were chosen to study the effect of a consistent and practical dose of intervention (the last student only had 8 weeks of intervention). Each student's grid analysis is provided in Appendix P. The percentage of story elements observed in baseline and intervention collapsed across participants is displayed in Table 5.

Students' performance during the baseline phase indicates that this sample as a whole struggled to use all of the components of the TNR (range of 0 – 35%). More salient categories

included the use of the character’s attempt to solve the problem (30%) and use the word “then” (35%). However, this result was due to the performance of the more proficient retellers in

Table 5

Story Elements Present in Baseline and Intervention Phases on TNR-K

TNR Category	Percent in Baseline	Percent after Intervention	Change
<i>Story Grammar</i>			
Character	25	80	55
Setting	10	15	5
Problem	25	65	40
Emotion	20	30	10
Plan	0	15	15
Attempt	30	35	5
Consequence	15	60	45
Ending	20	40	20
End Emotion	25	65	40
<i>Language Complexity</i>			
then	35	70	35
because	20	40	20
when	5	20	15
after	0	0	0

Note. Percentages reflect instances of scores of 2 (indicating strong specificity of language used) across 5 students during first 4 weeks of baseline and weeks 5-8 of intervention for story grammar. Use of the *Plan* category and *Language Complexity* categories only required a score of 1 in adherence to the TNR design.

baseline. Jessica and Thuy were the only ones to clearly express the attempt and use “then” in baseline. Jessica was the only one to produce the character’s name consistently (Thuy did this once). In baseline, this sample never produced the character’s plan to act and very rarely

referenced the setting or consequence or produced the subordinating conjunctions “when” and “after”.

During weeks 5 – 8 of intervention, the grid analysis indicates this sample’s performance has improved greatly. They demonstrate greater proficiency at producing all of the elements (range of 15 – 80%) except the word “after”, which was almost never prompted because most students were not developmentally ready for it. It was easiest for them to produce the character’s name (80%), report the problem (65%), the consequence (60%) and the end feeling (65%). Also, the use of “then” was much more frequent (70%) compared to the use of “because” or “when”. Instances of referencing the setting and the plan were still low (15%). Three students were able to report an episode including a problem, attempt and consequence (Tiffany, Alex and Thuy). Again, there was evidence of inter-individual variability in the development of story grammar and language complexity. Whereas most students showed more consistent use of a strong problem statement, Huy was not able to state it specifically at this point in time. Whereas most students did not report a feeling in the middle of the story (related to the problem), Huy and Thuy were more attuned to this feature. Tiffany demonstrated hesitation towards reporting the end feeling or using “because” even though this was prompted repeatedly. There was also some evidence of intra-individual variability. Perhaps showing the instability of certain retelling skills, whereas Jessica was able to consistently state the attempt in baseline, she no longer did so in weeks 5-8 of intervention when her problem statements and endings were becoming stronger. Thuy produced the word “because” twice in baseline but did not do so in weeks 5-8 of intervention while other elements were improving.

In sum, these data indicate that certain retelling skills were sensitive to a short period of explicit retelling intervention in this sample. The categories of character, problem, consequence

and end emotion all experienced large amounts of change (percent of change ranging from 40 – 55%). Other categories experienced less change perhaps due to difficulty or lack of practice as certain categories did not appear on the retelling rope and were prompted less extensively. For example, language difficulty appeared to affect students’ ability to report the character’s *attempt* (similar to *event*) with precision because it required reported speech or the use of dialogue. For example, in one story, they had to express that the character “asked them to throw the ball to him” or “said ‘throw it to me!’” to receive two points for attempt. Largely due to this difficulty, students’ performance in this category only grew by 5% between baseline and intervention. However, that students grew little in the use of *plan* could reflect a lack of practice (as it did not appear on the retelling rope) or developmental difficulty reporting mental activities. Another important finding is that weak retellers may start intervention with different profiles of retelling skills and their strengths and weaknesses may change with language intervention.

Language Complexity

The second research question addressed whether the parallel read-aloud intervention would produce an effect on language complexity, specifically on NDW and MLU. It should be noted that data collection, in alignment with the research questions and in an effort to maintain the study’s timeline, prioritized students’ performance on the TNR over NDW and MLU. If NDW and MLU had been afforded greater importance, students’ baseline phases would have been extended to confirm trends in the absence of intervention. First, the results for weekly NDW and MLU testing will be discussed. Subsequently, the language complexity results obtained from pre- and post-testing using the FWAY books will be reviewed in comparison to the SALT databases. Following WWC standards (Kratochwill et al., 2013), visual analysis was conducted for the students’ NDW and MLU line graphs created with scores generated from weekly TNR

transcripts (Figures 4 and 5). As an intervention effect was not consistently observed for MLU, statistical procedures were only used to confirm the results observed for NDW.

Number of diverse words (TNR samples). While it is difficult to say for certain without an additional data point, a conservative interpretation supports the view that Tiffany’s baseline trend for NDW (Figure 4–panel 1) displays a slight rising trend with moderate variability. The rising trend continued for three weeks into the intervention phase. Subsequently, her performance with NDW changed to a flat trend with mild variability around an intervention phase mean of 25.9 (Table 6). Her PND was the highest at 95% but the results cannot be attributed to intervention due to the potential rising trend in baseline. Notably, her flat trend in NDW in intervention is highly similar to her slightly increasing TNR trend in intervention (Appendix R).

Table 6

NDW Scores from TNR Samples

Name	# of Interv. Weeks	<u>NDW Phase Mean</u>		Mean Difference	PND
		Baseline	Intervention		
Tiffany	22	13.25	25.9	12.65	95%
Huy	22	11.75	18.36	6.61	50%
Jessica	18	19.88	27.94	8.06	67%
Alex	12	9.86	25.42	15.56	92%
Thuy	8	30.5	41.25	10.75	13%

Note. Interv. = Intervention.

Huy’s baseline performance with NDW (Figure 4–panel 2) was variable with an overall low phase mean of 11.75 and a flat trend. After starting intervention, Huy’s performance started a steady rising trend with great variability, which was similar to his upward trend on the TNR (Appendix R). After week 15, his performance hovered between a NDW of 20 and 30, which

was similar to other students in intervention (except Thuy). This change may have been facilitated by his highly instruction-responsive cousin joining the intervention group. Despite a few short periods of stability in intervention, his performance was variable throughout baseline and intervention. Due to the variability displayed in his slow upward trend line, his PND was only 50%.

Jessica's baseline performance with NDW (Figure 4–panel 3) was variable with a moderate baseline phase mean of 19.88 and a flat trend. Five weeks after starting intervention, her performance with NDW demonstrated a sharp level change placing her performance between an NDW of 30-40 for a few weeks before settling at a more stable lower level of approximately 30 NDW. This dip in performance occurred one week before she began to make progress on the TNR (week 18 - Appendix R). Her performance in intervention displayed less variability towards the end and her PND reflected improvement at 67%.

Alex's baseline performance with NDW (Figure 4–panel 4) started extremely low and demonstrated a very slight increasing trend. His overall baseline phase mean was the lowest at 9.86 and demonstrated little variability towards the end of the baseline period. Immediately after starting intervention, his performance started to climb steeply and this trend continued through the intervention period (similar to his intervention trend on the TNR). Although his performance displayed more variability in the intervention phase, his PND was high at 92% demonstrating much improved performance. His phase mean difference of 15.56 was the highest of all students.

Finally, Thuy's initial baseline performance for NDW (Figure 4–panel 5) started higher than her peers (with the exception of Jessica) and demonstrated a sharp increasing trend in baseline similar to her increase in TNR scores; however, her NDW scores displayed less variability compared to the TNR. Her performance in baseline reached very high NDW scores between 40

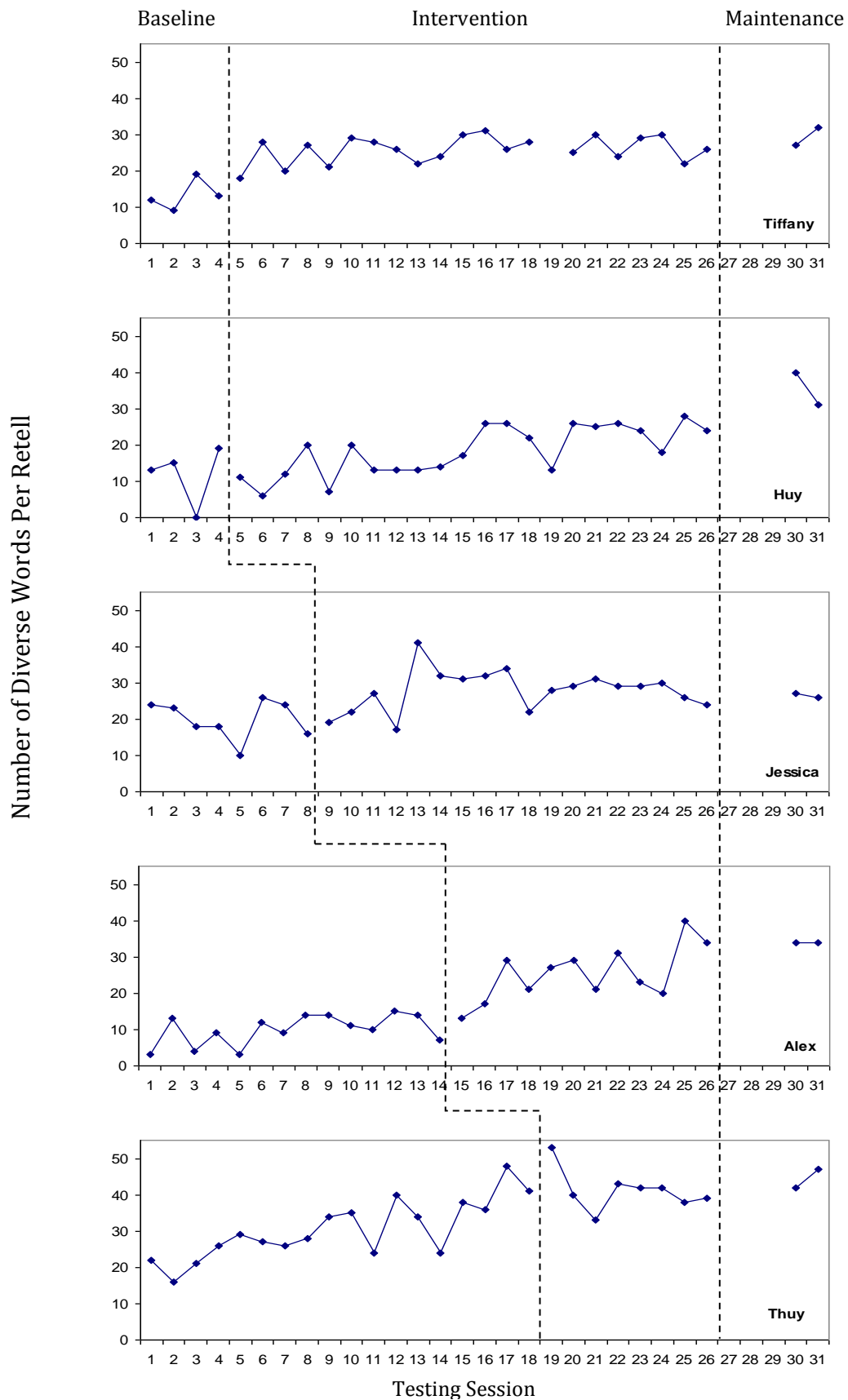


Figure 4. Weekly NDW Scores from TNR Retell Samples

and 50. Immediately after starting intervention, her NDW score rose even higher but, subsequently, her scores settled at a very high level of 41.25 with a flat trend. Interestingly, her TNR scores show a similar pattern in intervention (Appendix R). Because her scores settled after starting intervention, her PND for NDW was low at 13%.

Overall, experimental control was achieved demonstrating that the introduction of the parallel read-aloud intervention produced three effects across time in the direction of improved NDW in students' retells. Huy, Jessica and Alex were not demonstrating growth in NDW in the absence of intervention. An intervention effect was, however, observed with Huy's slow increasing trend after starting intervention (time #1). In contrast to her delay with her TNR scores, Jessica displayed a more immediate level change five weeks after starting intervention which decreased to a lower, but still-improved, level (time #2). Alex displayed a strong immediate trend change in the direction of improved NDW performance after starting intervention (time #3). Tiffany's and Thuy's NDW scores grew before starting intervention. Starting intervention may have influenced their change to a flatter trend in NDW. Their upward trend started before the intervention was introduced to the three responders and, thus, does not reflect an environmental confound to the intervention effect observed in the other students' data.

Following the WWC Standards, the study's three intervention effects provide moderate evidence in favor of the parallel read-aloud intervention improving NDW in retells. Therefore, PAND and phi were calculated to support the conclusions of visual analysis. PAND was calculated at 80% representing a moderate amount of non-overlap. Phi was calculated at .57 representing a moderate effect size (Maggin, Briesch & Chafouleas, 2012; Vannest et al., 2008), though smaller in comparison to the TNR results.

In sum, visual analysis and the statistical analyses support the conclusion that the parallel read-aloud intervention produced a moderate effect for NDW in English retells in these five students. In addition to gaining proficiency on the TNR, students' vocabulary breadth was also increasing with their retells. Interestingly, Thuy, the student with the strongest reported L1 background, again scored the highest at the end of the intervention testing period and Huy, the student with speech-language impairment, again had the lowest scores. It should be noted, however, that Huy could not produce any words in week 3 of baseline and that towards the end of intervention, his NDW was similar that of his ELL peers.

Mean length of utterance (TNR samples). Similar to the observations on Tiffany's baseline performance for NDW, another baseline point would have clarified the status of her MLU performance (Figure 5–panel 1). A conservative analysis approach, however, supports the interpretation that she had a small increasing trend with slight variability in baseline. Her baseline phase mean for MLU⁶ in baseline was 4.37 (Table 7). After starting intervention, her MLU performance reflected a similar rising trend with greater variability for 16 weeks with a decrease and leveling off of performance towards the very end of intervention. Although her PND was the highest at 86%, this improvement cannot be attributed to the intervention due to the unchanging rising trend from baseline into intervention similar to that observed in her NDW performance.

Huy's performance during the baseline phase (Figure 5–panel 2) depicts the lowest baseline level of all students with a phase mean of 2.92 (indicating his sentences on average were about 3 words long). His trend was rather flat and slightly variable considering he could not perform a retell on week 3. After starting intervention, Huy's MLU displayed similar

⁶ As a reference, Leadholm and Miller (1994) reported their sample of 5-year-old European American children had a mean MLU of 6.06 in a narrative sample of 100 utterances.

characteristics for 10 weeks with his scores remaining around a low MLU of 4. His results then display a strong rising trend with mild variability. Similar to his rise in NDW on week 10 of his intervention, this change in performance occurred when his cousin entered the group (Appendix R). Although his three trend lines are similar for the three dependent variables, displaying a somewhat consistent rising trend, visual analysis reveals that MLU was more resistant initially to improvement. Due to the delayed response, his PND was only 55%.

Table 7

MLU Scores from TNR Samples

Name	# of Intervention Weeks	<u>MLU Phase Mean</u>		Mean Difference	PND
		Baseline	Intervention		
Tiffany	22	4.37	6.35	1.98	86%
Huy	22	2.92	4.67	1.75	55%
Jessica	18	7.76	8.86	1.1	11%
Alex	12	4.3	7.31	3.01	83%
Thuy	8	6.88	7.56	.68	0%

Jessica's baseline performance (Figure 5 – panel 3) reflects a flat trend in baseline with high variability. Her overall baseline phase mean for MLU (7.76) was remarkably high for her age (being the youngest of the students) and compared to the other students. After starting intervention, her level increased immediately demonstrating a similar amount of variability. However, after six weeks of intervention (also the time when Alex entered the group), her performance declined and leveled off around an approximate MLU of 8 until the end of the intervention period. Her final intervention performance for MLU reflected a similar level

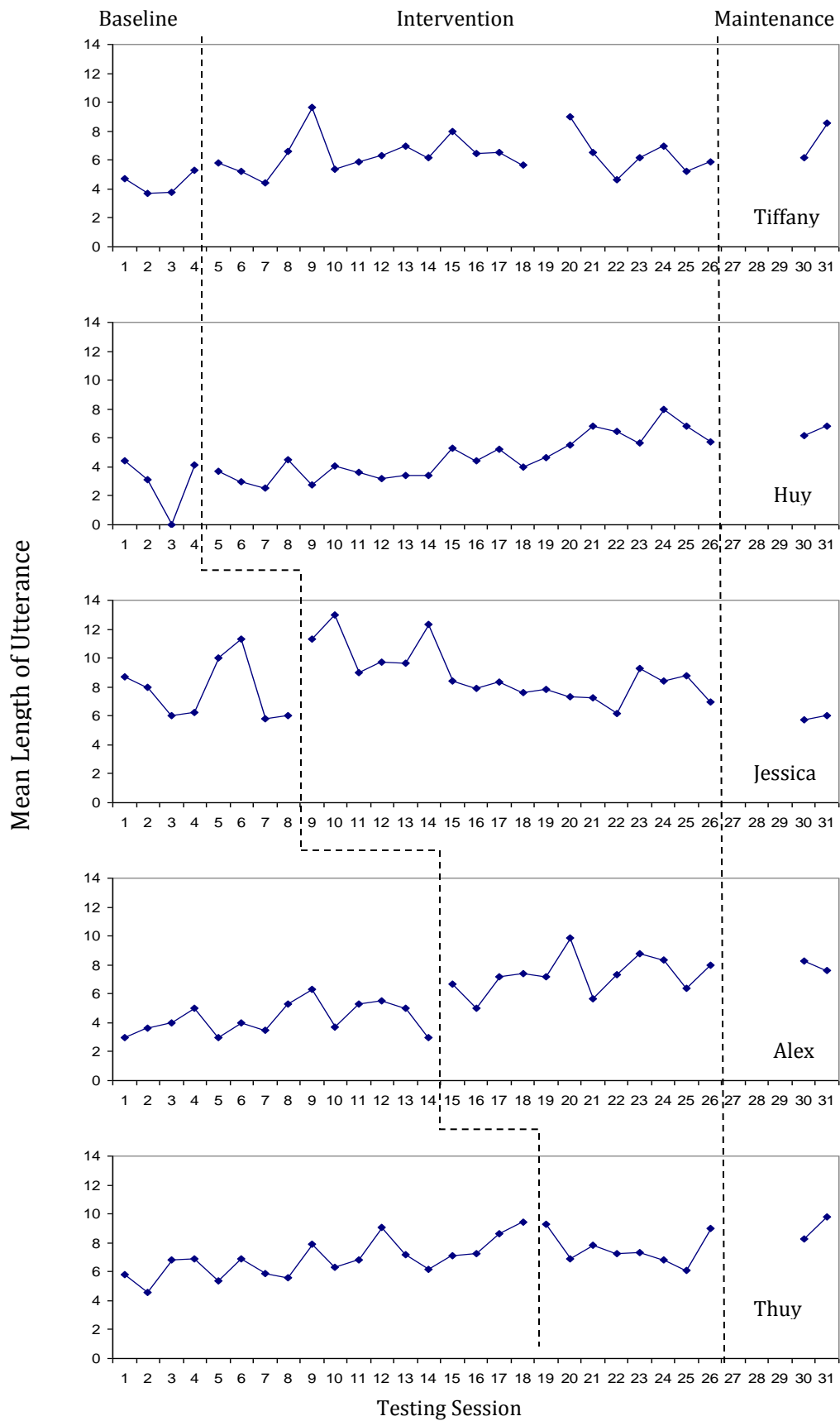


Figure 5. Weekly MLU Scores from TNR Samples

compared to baseline with less variability, however. Her intervention phase mean of 8.86 remained the highest of all students and reflected a small improvement (PND = 11%). Interestingly, her NDW and MLU displayed rather flat trends and decreased levels towards the end of the intervention period when her TNR scores were increasing (Appendix R), reflecting a potential trade-off in language production.

Alex's performance in baseline (Figure 5–panel 4) was flat with an overall phase mean of 4.3. His scores showed moderate variability. However, after starting intervention, his level increased immediately and his performance started to rise steadily. Although his performance still displayed moderate variability, his PND was high at 83%. His phase mean difference was the highest reflecting a change of 3.01. His immediate change in performance and rising trend paralleled his performance with the other dependent variables although the increase was not as rapid for MLU (Appendix R).

Finally, Thuy's performance in baseline (Figure 5 – panel 5) was strong compared to the others (besides Jessica) and continued to steadily improve with mild variability. This increase in scores parallels her baseline performance for the other dependent variables although the trend was not as steep for MLU (Appendix R). After starting the intervention, Thuy's MLU dropped slightly and leveled off with a flat trend and mild variability reflecting a high phase mean of 7.56. This change in performance parallels her response to intervention for NDW as well. Her phase mean difference .68 and the PND of 0% reflect the very slight change after starting intervention in terms of stabilizing performance.

In sum, the results of visual analysis do not provide evidence of an overall intervention effect for improved MLU. Performance in baseline was variable across the students. Tiffany and Thuy displayed increasing MLU trends in baseline, similar to their performance with NDW. The

other three students did not show evidence of growth in the absence of intervention. Again, the students' response to intervention displayed great inter-individual variability. The two students with the lowest MLU at the beginning of the study, Huy and Alex, demonstrated an intervention effect in terms of increasing their MLU. Huy's effect was delayed but Alex' was immediate. Jessica also demonstrated an immediate effect in terms of an increased level change in intervention that, however, could not be sustained. It should be noted that her MLU in baseline and at the end of intervention was very high, even for native English speakers, and her temporary level after starting intervention (approximately 11) was extremely high. One area of similarity is that students ended the intervention period with more similar MLU scores within a smaller range (5.86 – 9; $M = 7.11$, $SD=1.4$) compared to the larger range at the beginning of the study (3 – 8.7; $M = 5.34$, $SD=2.14$).

FWAY Pre- and Post-Tests / SALT Databases. Students were given a pre-test and post-test for narrative retelling using the *Frog Where Are You?* wordless picture book in order to utilize the SALT databases, which provide norms for language productivity in English-speaking monolinguals and Latino ELLs (who represent the closest available match for our students). The students' results for NDW are summarized in Table 8 and the results for MLU are summarized in Table 9. Students' scores were compared to database norms in reference to the number of standard deviation units (SD) their scores differed from the mean. For these particular analyses, the students' scores for MLU and NDW were compared only to kindergarteners' scores in both databases. The Bilingual English Story Retell database summarizes the performance of 617 Latino ELL participants. The Narrative Story Retell database (English monolinguals) references the performance of a more limited sample of 79 participants.

Number of Diverse Words (FWAY). The students' pre-test and post-test NDW scores in reference to the SALT database norms are summarized in Table 8. The pre-test performance for NDW was dramatically lower than the mean for English-speaking students with SD from the mean ranging from – 2.13 to – 3.61. A large discrepancy from native English-speaker norms would be expected for a group of ELLs with low incoming oral proficiency scores. Thuy's score was the lowest at 23, perhaps reflecting low English vocabulary due to her recent entry to the country. Jessica's score was the highest, perhaps reflecting her English language dominance. However, this sample's NDW performance was also lower than the Latino ELL mean with SD from the mean ranging from -.37 to – 1.56. This indicates that these students were, to different degrees, at-risk in the fall in terms of vocabulary use even compared to ELL peers, which corroborates their basic to low-intermediate English proficiency scores on their fall Pre-LAS placement tests.

Table 8

NDW Scores Compared to SALT Database Norms

Name	# of Interv. Weeks	NDW Pre-Test	NSR Score	BESR Score	NDW Post-Test	NSR Score	BESR Score	NDW Gain
Tiffany	22	44	-2.46	-.64	88	-.04	1.29	44
Huy	22	27	-3.39	-1.38	61	-1.53	.11	34
Jessica	18	50	-2.13	-.37	66	-1.25	.33	16
Alex	12	35	-2.95	-1.03	59	-1.64	.02	24
Thuy	8	23	-3.61	-1.56	93	.23	1.51	70
Mean (SD)		35.8 (11.3)			73.4 (15.9)			

Note. Scores for NSR and BESR databases reported in SD from mean. NSR = Narrative Story Retell database with English monolinguals. BESR = Bilingual English Story Retell database with Latino ELLs. Interv. = Intervention.

The students' post-test performance indicates that their NDW performance grew closer to native-speaker norms and surpassed ELL norms over the combined baseline and intervention phases. Their final performance ranged from -1.64 to .23 *SDs* from the mean compared to native English speakers and .02 – 1.51 *SDs* from the mean compared to Latino ELLs. Interestingly, the students who made the most progress on the INC also had NDW scores near the norm for native English speakers and made the most growth: Tiffany (-.04 *SD* from NSR mean) and Thuy (.23 *SD* from NSR mean). Thuy, in fact, demonstrated outstanding growth in NDW (70) changing her status from the lowest NDW performer to the highest. These were also the students whose Vietnamese home language background was reported to be the strongest. Whereas the other three students still had NDW performances at post-test that were much lower than native English speaking norms, all students' vocabulary usage was at or above ELL norms at the end of the study. Notably, Jessica, who was the highest performer in the fall for NDW, made the least growth. This result may be related to the great difficulty she faced with making progress on the TNR. Also, by comparing the group means and *SDs* for the pre-test and post-test, the variability in NDW scores is observed to grow over the course of time.

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test indicated that the improvement in NDW scores was statistically significant ($W = 15$, $p \leq .05$). Although visual analysis of repeated TNR testing supports the effect of intervention on NDW performance, again, the time period that elapsed between the two FWAY testing periods also included strong baseline improvement for Thuy and Tiffany, which needs to be accounted for in interpreting the pre- and post-test results.

In sum, FWAY NDW scores confirm that students made significant growth in their vocabulary diversity in retelling over the 26 weeks of the study and were able to demonstrate this sub-skill on a different retelling task. Considered in the light of TNR results, for three of the five

students (Huy, Alex and Jessica), the majority of their growth in vocabulary usage was a direct result of variable amounts of the parallel read-aloud retelling intervention provided during the time period between pre- and post-testing. For the students who responded to intervention, the intervention appears to have helped close the vocabulary gap with ELL peers and narrow the gap slightly with English-speaking peers.

Mean Length of Utterance (FWAY). The students' pre-test and post-test MLU scores in reference to the SALT database norms are summarized in Table 9. The pre-test scores indicate that, with the exception of Jessica, these students' MLU in the fall differed greatly from that of their native English-speaking peers with SDs from the mean ranging from -1.68 to - 3.61. Their results in comparison to the ELL norm were mixed. Whereas Jessica's score was high above the mean for ELLs, Huy's score was far below (-1.9 SD below the mean), perhaps reflecting significant difficulty with sentence formulation as a result of his speech-language disorder.

Table 9

MLU Scores Compared to SALT Database Norms

Name	# of Interv. Weeks	MLU Pre	NSR Score	BESR Score	MLU Post	NSR Score	BESR Score	MLU Gain
Tiffany	22	4.85	-2.19	-.81	6.5	-.3	.65	1.65
Huy	22	3.62	-3.61	-1.9	5.94	-.95	.16	2.32
Jessica	18	7.21	.51	1.28	6.71	-.07	.84	-.05
Alex	12	5.29	-1.68	-.41	6.48	-.33	.63	1.19
Thuy	8	4.93	-2.1	-.73	6.81	.06	.93	1.88
Mean (SD)		5.18 (1.3)			6.49 (.34)			

Note. Scores for NSR and BESR databases reported in SD from mean. NSR = Narrative Story Retell database with English monolinguals. BESR = Bilingual English Story Retell database with Latino ELLs.

The other students' scores were slightly below the mean compared to their ELL peers. Similar to their NDW scores, this pattern could be predicted from their low Pre-LAS entry scores.

The post-test results, with the exception of Jessica, indicate growth in MLU over the course of the baseline and intervention phases. Jessica's MLU for the FWAY post-test was lower than her score from the fall, perhaps reflecting a trade-off in production to concentrate on story grammar. Whereas the results for MLU were all above the mean for ELLs, they were less than 1 SD below the mean for native English speakers at post-test, with the exception of Thuy, who scored slightly above the norm for native speakers. Huy made the largest growth in MLU across time, nearly catching up with his Vietnamese peers. In contrast to NDW, the five students started the study with more variable MLU scores ($M = 5.18$, $SD = 1.3$), which were more similar at the end of the study ($M = 6.49$, $SD = .34$).

Results from the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test indicated that the observed growth in MLU as evidenced with the FWAY pre- and post-tests was not statistically significant ($W = 13$, $p > .05$). However, it should be noted, in light of the MLU (TNR) visual analysis, that two of the students (Huy and Alex) required intervention to grow in their MLU across this period of time. This experience helped bring them closer to native speaker norms for MLU as reported by the SALT database and helped a particularly vulnerable student, Huy, to make remarkable gains.

Maintenance of Effects

The third research question addressed whether intervention effects could be maintained after four weeks without intervention. Two TNR tests were administered after four weeks without intervention and the results for the TNR Total Story Score, NDW and MLU were plotted on students' line graphs (Figures 2, 4, & 5).

Maintenance data for TNR Total Story Score (Figure 2) indicated that four students maintained or improved intervention phase retell scores four weeks after finishing intervention. Tiffany and Alex continued to grow without intervention and Huy, the student with speech-language difficulties, was able to maintain his improved retelling ability. This may be explained by Huy's and Tiffany's strong doses of intervention (22 weeks) because they started with the first leg of intervention. Although Thuy's results in maintenance continued to vary, her very high score of 24 demonstrates similar retelling ability as that displayed in intervention. Jessica's two low TNR scores in the maintenance phase indicate she needed further intervention to maintain retelling growth. Providing another example of a linguistic trade-off, Thuy's MLU (9.78) and NDW (47) were both extremely high for the maintenance retell sample on which she scored a post-intervention low of 16 on the TNR. Thuy may have needed more time in intervention to coordinate her skills and stabilize her high retelling performance.

As an example of the growth students experienced for TNR Total Score, Figure 6 demonstrates the qualitative difference in best retelling samples from the baseline and maintenance phases for Alex, who demonstrated immediate, impressive growth in response to the intervention. By the spring of kindergarten (week 30 sample), Alex learned to use a story starter "one cold day", include proper names and partially reference a setting (character's activity). He was able to narrate events largely in the past tense including a problem, attempt and consequence (creating an episode). He also ended his retell with a conclusion using the character's feeling and the subordinating conjunction "because".

Maintenance data for NDW (Figure 4) indicated that whereas Huy improved his vocabulary usage in the absence of intervention, the other students maintained their intervention

phase levels. Therefore, in the cases of Huy, Jessica, and Alex, the effects of the parallel read-aloud intervention on NDW observed in the intervention phase remained.

Maintenance data for MLU (Figure 5) indicated that all students, with the exception of Jessica, maintained or slightly grew in their MLU in the absence of intervention. Jessica's score
Figure 6

Best Retell Samples from Alex

Best Baseline Retell – Week 11	Best Maintenance Retell – Week 30
<p>The girl clean the bathroom. The girl wanna play with the boy. The boy helped her. The girl get to play outside.</p> <p>TNR Total Story Score = 5</p>	<p>One cold day Jay was playing with his neighbors and his neighbors throw a snowball at his nose. And then it bleed. So he was sad. And then he decided to ask his friends to follow the rules. And he said to his friends... His neighbor said I'll follow the rules. And he was happy because he got to play with his neighbor.</p> <p>TNR Total Story Score = 21</p>

demonstrated a decline to her lowest performance level in the baseline phase. As only two students demonstrated an intervention effect for MLU (Alex and Huy), it can be concluded that these students' growth in MLU was maintained in the absence of intervention.

In sum, considering the intervention effects noted above for TNR Total Story Score, NDW and MLU, maintenance data indicates the intervention results are durable in general and may even improve across a short period of time without intervention. For students like Jessica, however, who display more difficulty making gains, more sustained individualized intervention may be needed to maintain growth.

Social Validity

Several social validity measures were administered to evaluate the outcomes of the intervention and the acceptability of the procedures in the eyes of various stakeholders.

Social Norms. First, to assess the acceptability of the results of intervention in terms of social norms, students' TNR Total Scores were analyzed compared to two separate criterion levels for performance. The TNR developers use the score of 16 as a tentative benchmark for kindergarteners as a result of field testing (Spencer & Petersen, 2012b). Alternatively, narrative development researchers reference the creation of an episode (including a problem, attempt and consequence) as a milestone for 5 and 6-year-olds (McCabe, 1997b; Muñoz et al., 2003). Students' TNR scores were analyzed to capture how many intervention sessions were necessary to score a 16 or create an episode (Table 10).

Table 10

Number of Intervention Sessions to Reach Criterion Levels

Name	# Intervention Weeks to TNR Benchmark	# Intervention Weeks to Episode
Tiffany	7	2
Huy	17	--
Jessica	11	11
Alex	3	7
Thuy	--	--

Note. Thuy reached the benchmark TNR level and produced her first episode in week 6 of the baseline phase.

As can be observed in Table 10, all students reached the TNR developers' benchmark of 16 at different rates. Alex reached the benchmark very quickly after only three weeks of intervention whereas Huy took the longest time (17 weeks). The amount of time he needed may be related to his speech-language impairment. Although Jessica scored a 16 during her first baseline retell, this was not counted as reaching the benchmark because she did not demonstrate proficient retelling thereafter. In fact, she needed 11 weeks of intervention to reach a score of 16

again. In contrast, Thuy reached the benchmark of 16 in week 6 of the baseline phase and continued to improve. In general, students' line graphs indicate that it was difficult to maintain the benchmark TNR score in the short term but that, in the long term, their performance continued to climb and even surpass norms in the maintenance phase. Huy needed more intervention to reach benchmark levels more regularly and Jessica, as noted earlier, did not maintain benchmark levels in the maintenance phase.

Producing a clear episode on the TNR requires that the student include a problem, attempt and consequence and use exact language to reach a score of 2 for each of these categories. The rates for some children to produce an episode were identical to their rates for producing a score of 16 on the TNR (Jessica and Thuy). Whereas Tiffany was able to produce an episode before reaching a total score of 16 on the TNR, both Huy and Alex demonstrated greater facility reaching the TNR benchmark score of 16 compared to producing an episode. Huy, in fact, never created a clear episode due to his scores for specificity. Although four of the five students were able to produce an episode during the study, observing the TNR tests in more detail revealed that maintaining consistent episode structure proved very difficult for everyone except Thuy. Although Thuy was a stronger reteller, she required intervention to maintain episode structure.

In sum, this intervention was able to help ELLs with very low English proficiency reach the TNR benchmark in their first year of formal schooling in a range of 3 – 17 weeks. In addition, although Huy never produced an episode, other students were able to do so with 2 – 11 weeks of intervention. It should be noted, however, that maintaining these levels of performance required longer periods of intervention.

Subjective evaluation. In order to assess how kindergarten classroom teachers perceive the results of the intervention, two transcripts of two unidentified students’ transcribed retells (best baseline and best intervention samples) were shared with four kindergarten teachers at the students’ school. Teachers were asked to choose the two retells that they judged were better in terms of story grammar and language complexity. All four teachers judged the two intervention retell samples as being superior examples of retelling ability over the baseline samples.

In addition, five bilingual elementary education teachers were surveyed to assess the desirability and feasibility of implementing the parallel read-aloud intervention using a modified version of the Usage Rating Profile–Intervention (URP-I; Appendix O). Scores on the URP-I are reported in terms of four subscales: acceptability, understanding, feasibility and systems support (Table 11). Teachers rated 34 statements using a Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree).

Table 11

Social Validity Scores from URP – I

Teacher	Acceptability	Understanding	Feasibility	Systems Support	Overall Score
1	5.2	5	4.88	3.5	4.65
2	5	4.6	5	1.3	3.97
3	5.8	5.75	4.13	5.17	5.21
4	5.25	4.75	5	2.5	4.28
5	3.66	4.63	3.43	4	3.93
Average	4.98	4.95	4.49	3.29	4.41

The overall score averaged across the five teachers for all subscales was 4.41 (maximum of 6 would indicate strong agreement) indicating a moderate, positive response towards potential implementation of the new intervention. Teacher 3 felt more positively than others, providing an

overall score of 5.21, whereas Teacher 5 had concerns about its philosophical match with dual language pedagogy, providing the lowest score of 3.93. Her comment was that the “intervention was limited” as it did not include “some characteristics of a dual language program”. This teacher may have misunderstood the aims of the intervention to reach Vietnamese ELLs, who would not otherwise get any native language attention under Connecticut law or under common practice. Another teacher displayed a quite different response stating “something is better than nothing”. In addition, one teacher shared “retelling is an area of extreme difficulty for second language learners. Storytelling intervention, particularly this type using the student’s native language, should bring about positive results.” High scores for acceptability and feasibility (4.98 and 4.95 respectively) show that future implementers, with the exception of a teacher who adheres closely to balanced dual language philosophy, are enthusiastic about its aims and the procedures. Low scores for systems support (3.29) indicate that teachers understand that implementing this type of intervention entails requirements such as obtaining instructional support from another adult (the Vietnamese volunteer) and, potentially, gaining permission from administrators and parents. The teacher with the least experience also indicated strong agreement with the statement “I would need consultative support to implement this intervention”.

Finally, at the end of the intervention phase, the five students completed a short questionnaire that elicited their opinions regarding the intervention procedures and their retelling results (Appendix P). All five students indicated they were “happy” or “very happy” about discussing storybooks in Vietnamese and 80% of students said the same for discussing storybooks in English. Tiffany indicated she was unhappy about discussing books in English. All five students indicated they were “happy” or “very happy” about their retelling skills in English. Whereas Thuy claimed she liked all the books equally (including the FWAY testing book), the

others students each recalled different books as being their favorites: *The Golden Goose*, *The Fox and the Goat*, *Li's Chinese New Year*, and *Yeh-Hsien: The Chinese Cinderella*. Notably, two of the texts chosen were included for their cultural relevance for Vietnamese students (*Li's Chinese New Year* and *Yeh-Hsien*).

Chapter 5

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the parallel read-aloud intervention on Vietnamese kindergarten ELLs' overall retelling quality and language complexity in English. The intervention was designed based on principles of the Early Language Comprehension framework described in Chapter 2 which emphasizes the need to address ELLs' language comprehension needs early through carefully planned, explicit instruction using read-alouds and bilingual scaffolding. The intervention also included best practices for language intervention summarized in Chapter 3 (Appendix E), particularly repeated, scaffolded exposure to picture books, direct vocabulary and retelling instruction utilizing students' L1 skills, and regular assessment and feedback. The effects of the intervention were studied using a multiple baseline single-subject design wherein five students were introduced to the intervention at different intervals and their progress was documented with weekly progress monitoring assessments. This chapter reviews the results and considers their contribution to the field of second language and literacy research; describes limitations of the study; suggests implications for current instruction and assessment of young ELLs; and provides direction for future research.

Overall Retelling Quality

The first research question considered whether Vietnamese kindergarten ELLs improved their overall retelling quality in response to the addition of the parallel read-aloud intervention program to their existing ESOL program. According to WWC Standards (Kratochwill et al., 2013), the results of visual analysis of their TNR line graphs and statistical analyses ($\phi = .66$) suggest that the intervention produced a moderate effect on their overall retelling skills, which included both macrostructural and microstructural components. In four of the students, the

improvement in retelling skills was immediate but the fifth student (Jessica) responded after a longer period of trying to restructure her retells with great difficulty. In general, the students demonstrated rather flat baseline trends, which changed by different degrees with intervention, leading to the conclusion that for many ELLs, narrative retelling is a taught skill and typical ESOL instruction may not be sufficient. Interestingly, the lowest performers across the baseline phase, Huy and Alex, made the largest gains in intervention (when considering “best retell gain”). The INC pre- and post-tests confirm that students also made statistically significant growth in their overall retelling quality for the FWAY fictional story ($W = 15, p \leq .05$). However, students received variable doses of intervention between pre- and post-tests disallowing strong conclusions as to the contribution of the intervention to their progress on the INC. The high correlation between students’ top maintenance TNR score and the final INC score ($r = .82$) suggest that the skill base being evaluated may be similar. However, Tiffany’s and Thuy’s very strong gains on the INC, compared to the boys, may indicate that some students needed more practice with generalization tasks. The girls’ strong performance may also be related to their high MLU and NDW scores, indicating that the FWAY task presented a greater linguistic challenge than the TNR.

The results of this retelling intervention for overall retelling quality contribute to the research base for repeated read-aloud and retelling intervention in ELLs. Previous research with explicit retelling intervention indicates that monolinguals and dual-language-learner preschoolers can benefit from such instruction (Morrow, 1985; Spencer et al., 2014a), particularly interventions that involve repeated retelling (Petersen, 2011). This study extends the same conclusion to Vietnamese school-aged ELLs. This study also suggests that practitioners can profit from fusing retelling intervention with repeated read-aloud interventions. Previous

research with repeated read-alouds generated conclusions that the practice can incidentally impact retelling and vocabulary (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Verhallen et al., 2006) and that adding direct vocabulary instruction can accelerate vocabulary outcomes (Silverman, 2007b). As suggested by the ELC framework, this study demonstrates that bilingual, explicit retelling instruction in the context of repeated read-alouds can greatly improve English retelling skills in kindergarten ELLs as well. Whereas Nielsen and Friesen (2012) could not demonstrate a significant improvement in retelling with ELLs with their small group read-aloud intervention, the single subject design used in this study documented immediate progress for most students. The immediacy of response is similar to that demonstrated in studies using similarly explicit intervention techniques (Brown, Garzarek & Donegan, 2014; Spencer et al., 2014a). Also, in contrast to the Spencer et al. large group Story Champs study (2014b), in which researchers lamented that 35% of the dual language learners made minimal progress due to a lack of English language ability, this study produced a moderate intervention effect for a sample of ELLs with low English language proficiency.

As this intervention represented a comprehensive package of best language intervention practices identified in research (Appendix E), it is difficult to attribute the results to a particular strategy. A salient component of the ELC framework that informed this study is the theory of the bilingual ZPD+++, which is supported by emerging research on the value of bilingual parallel scaffolding (Paez et al., 2010; Roberts, 2008). Both point to the principle that allowing students to use their L1 skills in instructional contexts will enhance their L2 outcomes. Uniquely, this intervention allowed young Vietnamese ELLs, a subgroup who has not previously been studied in bilingual education research, access to regular L1 instruction as a preview to L2 instruction and, consequently, their English retelling improved. However, the students' stronger retell

growth could also be a result of more intensive, explicit instruction and the use of regular progress monitoring and feedback. The ability for this intervention to improve retelling outcomes in typical ELLs and ELLs with special education needs is a valuable finding in terms of streamlining service delivery.

Qualitative Changes. The more qualitative grid analysis indicated that certain retelling elements on the TNR were more sensitive to instruction. In particular, the categories of character, problem, consequence and end feeling all experienced large amounts of change between baseline and intervention when students' performance was considered collectively (percent of change ranging from 40 – 55%). This tendency was probably influenced by the inclusion of these categories on the retelling rope, which was used in every session. Students responded to intervention by increasing their usage of numerous story elements and by simultaneously using more markers of language complexity. The grid analysis also indicated that the students started and ended the study with differing strengths and weaknesses in terms of producing the story and language elements required on the TNR. Observing such variety supports the need for interventionists to slightly individualize instruction by targeting each student's weaknesses through instruction and feedback (Spencer, Petersen & Slocum, 2015).

As a group, the ELLs' development of retelling elements in an intervention context as documented by grid analysis shares commonalities with studies of narrative development in monolinguals. Stein and Glenn (1979) hypothesized that, as a whole, elementary American monolingual students' retell structure would favor story grammar elements representing episode structure and omit elements that were less essential. Indeed, their students showed greater facility starting retells with a major setting (the character) and including problems and consequences and less facility with stating the minor setting (the location), the attempt and internal response in the

middle of the story (feeling). This study's sample demonstrated a similar pattern under intervention conditions. Peterson and McCabe (1983) also noted the propensity of young monolinguals to omit the attempt/action. Whether this sample's tendency to report certain categories and omit others is a result of development, language constraints or an intervention effect (or a combination) is unknown. The grid analysis also indicated that ELLs made simultaneous progress with both story grammar elements and language complexity markers. This indicates they can learn both simultaneously even when the main objective of instruction is story grammar. The different individual orientations demonstrated in learning story elements (eg. Huy's strength with stating the character's feelings) has also been documented in a recent study with African American children using the TNR as well (Brown et al., 2014).

Individual Differences. The students' performance in baseline and intervention differed greatly for overall retelling quality. However, the intervention was successful for students with a variety of incoming retelling profiles. Thuy experienced rapid growth in baseline but experienced great variability throughout the study. Her unstable microstructure in English as a recent immigrant may not have been able to consistently support her rapidly growing macrostructure. Huy's depressed performance on almost all of the outcome measures, despite the intervention provided, can be understood in light of research demonstrating that bilingual students with speech-language impairment do not make as much progress with retelling macrostructure or microstructure in either language in early elementary school as compared to their typically developing peers (Squires et al., 2014). Despite his speech-language disorder, Huy was able to make slow, steady progress in intervention compared to the other students. Tiffany and Alex represented more typical low-proficiency ELLs, who responded strongly to the addition of the targeted retelling intervention in the intervention phase.

Uniquely, Jessica manifested a high percentage of mazing in baseline and intervention. Research is not conclusive on the role of mazing in ELLs. The one study that investigated maze use in bilinguals found a non-significant slightly higher trend towards mazing in Mexican-American bilinguals ($n = 66$; mean age = 5;9) compared to their functionally monolingual Mexican-American peers (Bedore et al., 2006). However, high mazing was identified in certain students in a small sample of functional monolingual English-speaking children ($n = 8$) with varying exposure to Filipino (Lofranco, Peña & Bedore, 2006). The student with the most exposure to Filipino displayed the highest amount of mazing in narratives (range of 34.8% - 61.9%). The other students showed less variability in mazing over time as they produced more samples suggesting a task familiarity effect. Lofranco et al. (2006) recommend that researchers continue to collect similar data on different subgroups of children to verify what is typical and what influences mazing behavior. They also tentatively suggest that students with language impairment may not decrease mazing behavior with models or practice as their typically developing peers appear to do. Given the paucity of evidence, it is unknown whether mazing is more prominent in functionally monolingual students with exposure to other languages such as Jessica. The SALT database confirmed its value by providing critical evidence indicating that Jessica's high level of mazing is atypical for ELLs and provides cause for concern. If mazes reflect an "imbalance between a child's linguistic knowledge and his or her language formulation and production abilities" (Lofranco et al., 2006, p. 31), this tendency may also explain her difficulty making and maintaining progress in the intervention.

The variety of response patterns evidenced in this study was also documented in Spencer et al.'s Story Champs study with Head Start classrooms (2015b). Because the sample was larger, the researchers were able to categorize intervention students by responsiveness (considering

post-test scores and progress) into four groups: Minimal Responders, Gainers, Levelers, and Responders. Spencer et al. (2015a, 2015b) argue, and demonstrate through a single-subject design, that minimal responders may benefit from a more intense dose of intervention.

The role of initial knowledge on the effect of language interventions is not clear considering past research. In reading research, the *Matthew effect* describes the phenomenon where stronger students gain more than weaker students in educational settings (Stanovich, 1986). This pattern has been observed in certain language intervention studies (Fien et al., 2011; Loftus & Coyne, 2013) but the reverse has been observed in others (Hammer et al., 2011; Silverman & Hines, 2009). Although this study's very small Vietnamese sample disallows strong conclusions regarding the role of initial status in intervention conditions, it provides tentative evidence that the parallel read-aloud intervention may differentially benefit low-performing ELLs (such as Alex and Huy considering their baseline TNR scores) in terms of mastering overall retelling skills. This may be explained by the fact that retelling is a rather constrained skill and, accordingly, the TNR has a score ceiling. Higher performers entering intervention had less room to grow and the skills needed to grow may have required more complex language. Thuy's results, in particular, may provide support for the existence of a bilingual Matthew effect called the *Mateo effect*, a term related to the interdependence theory used to describe the tendency for bilinguals' strong L1 skills to transfer quickly over to the L2 (Goodrich, Lonigan & Farver, 2013). Thuy's results point to the need to test initial ability in both languages as second language scores may be misleading.

In sum, the growth evidenced by all is encouraging. Whereas research has demonstrated that ELLs with low oral language proficiency (as determined by NDW) remain lower retellers across grades K-2 in non-intervention settings compared to their more proficient ELL peers

(Olszewski, 2013), the data collected in this study indicate that intervention may be able to elevate ELLs at the lowest levels of retelling proficiency to a higher growth trajectory, closer to native English-speaking norms, through intervention.

Language Complexity

The second research question considered whether the parallel read-aloud intervention would also improve ELLs' language complexity as measured by NDW and MLU. Improving language complexity is as important as improving overall story structure. When students use more literate language, it adds sophistication and "sparkle" to their retells (Hughes et al., 1997, p.154). It also may imply that ELLs' overall language proficiency is improving in addition to their retelling skills. Results for NDW and MLU will be discussed in turn.

Number of Diverse Words. According to WWC Standards (Kratochwill et al., 2013), the results of visual analysis for NDW graphs and statistical analyses ($\phi = .57$) suggest that the intervention produced a moderate effect on the breadth of vocabulary the students were producing in retells. In three of the students, the trend or level of NDW clearly improved in the intervention phase whereas the other two students demonstrated growth in baseline, which then leveled off in the intervention phase. These data lead to the conclusion that some ELLs may need an intervention such as the parallel read-aloud intervention to change their growth trajectory for vocabulary usage. It also demonstrates that improvement in retelling ability may either depend on or drive improvement in vocabulary usage. Similar to the results for overall retelling, the lowest performer, Alex, made the largest level change between baseline and intervention. Perhaps a further result of language interdependence, Thuy's NDW intervention level was the highest at 41.25.

The SALT pre- and post-tests confirmed that students also made statistically significant growth in their NDW performance for the FWAY fictional story ($W=15$, $p \leq .05$). However, students received variable doses of intervention between pre- and post-tests disallowing strong conclusions as to the contribution of the intervention to their progress on NDW. The SALT pre-test indicated that this sample had extremely low vocabulary scores compared to monolinguals with SD from the mean ranging from -2.13 to -3.61. The post-test indicated that the girls that experienced vocabulary growth without intervention reached monolingual norms for vocabulary but the students who needed intervention (Huy, Jessica and Alex) still trailed behind by more than 1 SD in the spring of kindergarten.

The findings for NDW add to the body of narrative intervention research that indicates that intervention targeting macrostructure can also influence microstructure either directly or incidentally (Petersen, 2011; Spencer, 2009). The parallel read-aloud intervention also included bilingual direct vocabulary instruction, which may have strengthened the effect on NDW. As the students' growth on the TNR occurred simultaneously with growth in NDW (Appendix R), this study also complements second language development research that demonstrates a correlation between vocabulary and retelling ability. As mentioned above, NDW and receptive vocabulary measures have been found to be predictors of English narrative ability in young Latino ELLs (Uccelli & Paez, 2007; Uchikoshi, 2005). Whereas intervention research with monolingual students has demonstrated that vocabulary and retelling can be strengthened simultaneously (Fien et al., 2011), this is the first study to demonstrate the same effect in ELLs.

The Vietnamese students' facility with reaching norms for retelling structure (as discussed in Social Validity below) was not evidenced overall in their final NDW scores when compared with monolingual children in the SALT database. The ability for ELLs to catch up

more quickly for macrostructure as opposed to microstructure was also a finding in Pearson's (2002) cross-sectional study of narrative development in Latino ELLs. Whereas macrostructure scores differed little between bilingual and monolingual students in second and fifth grade, there was a large gap in narrative microstructure evidenced in second grade (especially in the areas of lexicon, complex syntax and accuracy) that closed progressively across elementary school.

The finding that the parallel read-aloud intervention can impact two critical language comprehension skills in Vietnamese ELLs, both retelling and vocabulary, is very encouraging as both skills are important predictors of academic performance and reading comprehension (Howard, Paez, August, Barr, Kenyon & Malabonga, 2014; Miller et al., 2006). However, the low NDW scores for three of the students compared to the SALT database indicate that further intervention was necessary for vocabulary development.

Mean Length of Utterance. The results of this study did not indicate a consistent response to intervention for MLU in these students largely due to inconsistent performance in baseline. Some ELLs were growing in MLU without intervention similar to their results for NDW (Thuy and Tiffany); the students with the lowest baseline MLU levels (Alex and Huy) responded to intervention by improving their MLU level or trend; and Jessica's MLU decreased and leveled off as she made progress in overall retelling. With the help of the intervention for the lowest performers, all students ended the study with less variability in MLU ($M = 6.49$, $SD = .34$ at post-test compared to $M = 5.18$, $SD = 1.3$ at pre-test) and closer to monolingual English speaker norms (SD from Narrative Story Retell database norm ranging from $-.95$ to $.06$ at post-test compared to -3.61 to $.51$ at pre-test).

Observations of the students' growth in NDW and MLU add to developmental research with ELLs. Rojas' and Iglesias' (2012) found that Latino ELLs demonstrate linear growth as a

whole in NDW and MLU during the school year across grades K-2 and reduced growth over the summer although there was great inter-individual and intra-individual variability in development. This study demonstrated similar trends for this small sample of Vietnamese ELLs in kindergarten in terms of positive growth trends and the effect of input and instruction. Adding to the support for the role of instruction and interaction in English, although not conclusive, this study also indicates that extra intervention may be needed for ELLs at the lowest levels, especially those with SLI, to catch up. Rojas and Iglesias (2012) refer to the limited growth by higher performers with NDW and MLU as a “‘topping out’ phenomenon” (p.643), which also may have been evidenced in flatter trends towards the end of the study in stronger students such as Thuy and Tiffany.

The finding that MLU was not impacted by intervention needs to be interpreted with caution. For this study, tracking the students’ MLU was subordinate to tracking their overall retelling scores. For that reason, the sample, who was at risk for overall retelling ability, included Jessica, whose MLU was comparable to native speakers, and Thuy and Tiffany who demonstrated MLU growth in baseline. Considering Huy’s and Alex’ results, it can be hypothesized that a different sample, composed of ELLs with low MLU growth in baseline, may have demonstrated more consistent results in terms of an intervention effect.

Considering this finding may be largely due to methodology, the conclusion that MLU was not impacted by the parallel read-aloud intervention can be evaluated alongside conflicting results from other studies. Morrow’s study with monolingual English speakers (1985) revealed a significant increase in T-unit length (a similar measure) for students who received one-on-one retelling intervention. Gutierrez-Clellen, Simon-Cerejido and Sweet (2012) found that providing preschool Latino ELLs with speech-language impairment with a small group pull-out bilingual

read-aloud intervention (the Vocabulary, Oral Language and Academic Readiness program / VOLAR) helped the students make greater growth in their English MLU compared to their peers in an all-English intervention. The researchers also observed a Mateo effect (Goodrich, Lonigan & Farver, 2013) with students with stronger MLU in Spanish both growing more in their MLU in English and benefiting more from the all-English intervention. However, when the VOLAR program was used in Head Start classrooms as a large group model for a shorter period of time (9 weeks vs. 12 weeks), targeting typically developing students and those with SLI, the results did not reveal an effect on MLU in Spanish or English. The differing results for ELLs could be attributed to the sample used (typically developing vs. SLI) and/or to the dosage differences (group size and duration).

Considering that MLU is a widely used measure of language proficiency (Miller et al., 2006) and correlates with more global language proficiency measures (Bedore, Peña, Gillam & Ho, 2010), future research should confirm if the parallel read-aloud intervention can indeed accelerate MLU outcomes in at-risk ELLs.

Maintenance Effects

The third research question was concerned with whether intervention effects would be maintained by students after four weeks without intervention. Students were asked to produce a TNR retell on two separate days. Observation of students' line graphs indicate that for the TNR and for NDW (Figures 2 and 4), which both demonstrated an overall intervention effect, final performance for overall retelling and NDW either remained the same or improved without intervention with one exception: Jessica's TNR Total Story Score returned to baseline levels. Although the intervention did not produce a strong intervention effect across students for MLU,

the two students that benefited from intervention also maintained their improved intervention levels after four weeks (Figure 5).

This study's maintenance data is similar to the few studies of retelling intervention which have collected such data. In general, the effects of explicit retelling intervention for at-risk elementary students, including those with special education needs, appear to be durable in the short term. In a few recent studies utilizing Story Champs and the TNR (Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2014a) or explicit retelling instruction and the TNR (Brown et al., 2014), the students that provided maintenance data 2-3 weeks after receiving retelling intervention maintained or improved their performance on the TNR for overall retelling. This study extends the finding that retelling intervention is durable to a school-aged ELL population. As an exception, Jessica's discouraging results for the TNR in the maintenance phase confirm that she may be a candidate for either more intense language intervention or a different model of instruction. There is not enough research on the effects of retelling intervention on microstructure to make conclusions about maintenance effects. Overall, the maintenance data from this study points to the conclusion that the parallel read-aloud intervention produced lasting change in three language measures (TNR Story Score, NDW and MLU) for the students who required intervention.

Social Validity

The social validity measures used indicated that the outcomes of the study and its procedures were socially valid in the eyes of various stakeholders. Firstly, the evidence that the majority of the students reached the developers' benchmark at different intervals and was able to create an episode (with the exception of Huy) by March of their kindergarten year is very promising. Nevertheless, the line graphs indicated that some students would have benefited from

more intervention to maintain or surpass benchmark levels, especially in the area of episode structure. Pearson's research (2002) with Latino ELLs indicated a gap in overall retell performance at grade 2 between Latino ELLs and monolingual English-speaking peers. If ELLs are able to catch up with their native English-speaking peers earlier in terms of retelling skills, this could have positive repercussions on their academic self-concept, social skills, oral language and future reading comprehension performance. The observation that several students had greater facility maintaining the TNR benchmark as opposed to consistently creating an episode converges with Olszewski's (2013) research showing that Latino ELLs demonstrated greater success with retelling story elements (similar to TNR Story Score) in early elementary school as opposed to producing episodic structure. Further research would be helpful to elucidate the relationship between the two skills.

Additionally, further validation of the students' progress was provided by the kindergarten teachers, who unanimously chose the students' intervention retell samples as clearly improved examples of retelling performance over the baseline samples. This confirms that the students made noticeable growth in the eyes of a population that regularly judges kindergarteners' reading comprehension using oral retells.

The URP-I, administered to bilingual education teachers in Connecticut, generated favorable results, in particular for the factors of acceptability and understanding ($M = 4.98$ and 4.95 on a scale of 6, respectively). A score of 4 indicates that a teacher "slightly agrees" and a 5 indicates that a teacher "agrees" with a statement. This indicates that the parallel read-aloud intervention may find favor with teachers that need to improve retelling and language skills in an ELL subgroup, such as Vietnamese children, who do not qualify for bilingual education by law but who may benefit from native language support. The response that "something is better than

nothing” speaks first to the paucity of programming available that caters to Asian ELLs and to the lack of research-based guidance overall for English oral language teaching (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). The more negative responses from a teacher who had strong dual language immersion philosophy expresses the view that schools should offer a more balanced bilingual education model where the students’ L1 gets more attention. However, as was observed in the recruitment process for this study, many districts do not have large, consistent subgroups of ELLs for whom a balanced model would be feasible and such districts need alternative, more flexible models such as the one offered here. However, it is agreed, in light of the research on bilingual language attainment and language attrition in the U.S., that young bilinguals in the U.S. need more input and output in their home language in their elementary years if they are to remain bilingual. The lower results on the reverse-scored systems support subscale ($M = 3.29$) confirm that this is not a common educational model. In fact, there is only one other research team that has investigated the benefits of L1 read-alouds using community volunteers (Naqvi et al., 2013). Interested teachers may need support in gaining approval from stakeholders, getting assistance from a community volunteer, and coaching regarding the procedures. The designers of the URP-I (Briesch et al., 2012) confirm that the factors of acceptability and systems support may be weakly correlated, as they were in this study, because having a practitioner approve of an intervention and be ready address systemic constraints are two different phenomena.

The students’ overall approval for the parallel read-aloud intervention, as demonstrated by the results of the student questionnaire, was critically important. In general, students indicated that they were happy with hearing books in both languages and they approved of their English retelling skills. That the two culturally relevant books used in the intervention featured as some of the students’ favorites tentatively confirms the importance of using culturally relevant text for

the purpose of engaging ELLs (Martinez-Roldan & Sayer, 2006). It should be noted that attempts to be culturally relevant may be frustrated by lack of published materials associated with a particular ELL subgroup, as was the experience in the creation of this intervention. The finding that all of the Vietnamese ELLs, despite differing home language levels, enjoyed hearing their home language at school and responded to an intervention using parallel bilingual scaffolding also adds to the research base on linguistic relevance for ELLs (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

Interrelationships Across Language Domains

This study was unique in its aim to study three language domain measures simultaneously in a single subject design. This allowed for the comparison of growth trajectories between the three measures, which have been related empirically in past narrative research (Morrow, 1985; Uccelli & Paez, 2007).

As mentioned previously, students' trajectories for NDW development in intervention tended to fluctuate in relationship to the TNR overall story score development demonstrating a facilitative, perhaps reciprocal, relationship (Appendix R). This finding aligns with previous research indicating that both NDW and receptive vocabulary scores predict English narrative ability in young Latino ELLs (Uccelli & Paez, 2007; Uchikoshi, 2008). However, at times, the more proficient students' performance with NDW had to level off for them to make progress on the TNR (Jessica and Thuy), revealing a competitive relationship. Likewise, at several data collecting sessions across students, it was noted that higher MLU scores correlated with lower TNR scores. In fact, Jessica's and Thuy's late intervention MLU trend lines show a decrease and leveling off as they made progress on the TNR. It was also observed that different individuals had separate orientations at times, concentrating on NDW, MLU or TNR growth.

These results lend support to the theory and empirical evidence supporting *emergentism*, or a “complex, dynamic systems view” of second language development (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 591). According to Larsen-Freeman, emergentism encourages second language researchers to observe multiple subsystems of development rather than prioritizing one measure and to appreciate individual variation in development in addition to highlighting group development. In Larsen-Freeman’s longitudinal study of adult Chinese ESL students, individuals’ line graphs demonstrated a variety of growth patterns for fluency, accuracy and complexity. The interrelationships between the measures were variably facilitative or competitive. Similar to the students in this study, individuals’ data demonstrated distinct paths or orientations towards certain skills at different points in time. The competition between different language subsystems, periods of non-linear growth and sudden phase shifts are normal according to emergentism theory and, according to Larsen-Freeman, are due to “humans’ limited working memories, attention and time-on-task” along with contextual variation (p. 593).

Olszewski (2013) also found support for emergentism theory in her longitudinal study of Latino ELLs’ retelling skills in grades K – 2. At times, students’ success in reporting story elements competed with their ability to impose episodic structure and vice versa. The results of this study, together with Larsen-Freeman’s and Olszewski’s findings, suggest the need to consider multiple subsystems at work as ELLs develop macrostructure and microstructure.

Peer Interaction Effects

Due to contextual constraints, this study used a design in which students were introduced in staggered fashion into the same intervention group. Whereas this was not ideal for studying the effect of the intervention itself, it did allow for observation of the effects of peers on struggling students.

On two occasions, students' progress was observed to improve upon the introduction of stronger peers to the group. Huy's progress with NDW and MLU appears to improve abruptly after the introduction of this cousin Alex to the group in intervention week 14. Also, Jessica's performance on the TNR did not improve greatly until week 19 when Thuy was introduced to the intervention group. Thuy and Alex were both fast learners. Both Jessica and Huy could have been influenced by hearing their peers' participation, listening to feedback from the teacher towards their peers, or receiving feedback from the peers themselves.

The power of peer models has been referenced in narrative research (McGregor, 2000; Spencer & Slocum, 2010). McGregor (2000), in particular, harnessed the power of peer mediation by utilizing peer tutors in narrative intervention to bridge a cultural mismatch between a European American interventionist and young African American children in Head Start (3-4 years old). Struggling language students ($n = 2$) were paired with peer models for narrative intervention and, subsequently, were exposed to peer models of narration and interventionist feedback for their peers' performance and their own repeatedly over 10 sessions. Although McGregor's conclusions are limited by the sample size for her single subject design, both tutees increased their use of story elements in the intervention phase and maintained them without intervention. One tutee also responded to the intervention in terms of language complexity whereas the other improved in baseline (similar to students in this study). McGregor's results, together with the observations of this study, point to the value of considering group composition and how students are paired when designing interventions and evaluating dosage (see below).

Heterogeneity of Vietnamese ELL Kindergarteners

The results of this study were highly influenced by the heterogeneity of the sample. Such heterogeneity in terms of bilingual/bicultural language and literacy background is consistent with

research investigating the language development of young ELLs (Hammer et al., 2014).

Students' differing degrees of first language development and maintenance can be explained by the educational contexts offered by both home and school and the degree to which they are given adequate input and output opportunities in both languages (Bohman, Bedore, Peña, Mendez-Perez, & Gillam, 2010). The students' weak Vietnamese skills in general (as reported and observed) converge with studies with young low-income Latino ELLs demonstrating that they may enter school with L1 and L2 skills far below monolingual norms (Lindholm-Leary, 2014; Paez et al., 2010). However, the Vietnamese children's observed hesitance to use their L1 could also be influenced by cultural norms that encourage a more observant, restrained stance in children and respect for authority (Cheng, 1989). The observation that students' adopted this more reserved stance with the Vietnamese assistant but not with their ESOL teacher could indicate that ELLs can adapt to different cultural contexts or that familiarity played a role.

Indicating another possible cultural trend, one study with adolescent Vietnamese students in the U.S. indicated that they self-reported less in-group peer interaction and ethnic language proficiency compared to Mexican and Armenian students (Phinney, Romero, Nava & Huang, 2001). Research also demonstrates that bilingual children's first language may be susceptible to attrition if they experience early immersion into all-English education (Hammer, Scarpino & Davison, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2014; Wong-Fillmore, 1991); if they exhibit a speech-language disorder (Simon-Cerejido & Gutierrez-Clellen, 2014); and if students prefer English-speaking friends and media sources early on (Jia & Aaronson, 2003). Similarly, the research reviewed in Chapter 2 explains that their differing levels of retell development may be due to varied exposure to stories and to language scaffolding by teachers or adults in either of the child's languages (McCabe, 1997).

Research from bilingual education settings has uncovered different language patterns. Studies in bilingual education settings indicate that bilingual children can maintain growth in their L1 while also achieving similar or accelerated growth in English language compared to their English-educated peers (Farver, Lonigan & Eppe, 2009). Of particular relevance to this study, Pham and Khonert's (2014) sample of Vietnamese children in Florida demonstrated a unique pattern of Vietnamese foundational skills and development. The sample differed from that of the current study in that only half were born in the U.S.; 20% of the school population was also Vietnamese; and parents reported that the majority of students (93%) spoke Vietnamese and English very well in grades K -2. Their stronger Vietnamese skills may have been largely due to the school offering a heritage language program for 90 minutes a day (which some students traveled an hour to access). Pham and Khonert's longitudinal study indicated that students' Vietnamese and English vocabulary and language processing skills both continued to grow through the early elementary years but a shift towards greater expressive vocabulary in English occurred before age 8.

Some may question whether a bilingual intervention, including culturally relevant texts, was an appropriate match for this sample. However, the academic and affective outcomes of this study indicate that a variety of ELLs may find home language and culturally relevant texts especially engaging and respond strongly to instruction that incorporates them. Also, given the evidence that schools lack a multicultural orientation (Gay, 2000; Willet, Solsken & Wilson-Keenan, 1999) and that young bilinguals are experiencing language attrition, administrators need to plan more proactively to celebrate linguistic and cultural diversity and encourage language maintenance using bilingual programs of varying intensity. Promoting L1 maintenance may be particularly important for the Vietnamese population as there is empirical evidence that L1 skills

are related to older Vietnamese students' ethnic identity and academic achievement (Bankston & Zhou, 1995; Phinney et al., 2001). Incorporating more L1 instruction in elementary school may require partnering with parents and community liaisons more systematically. Additionally, more parent outreach in the early years would be helpful to encourage families to preserve their language.

Implications

The findings of this study add to the very limited research base focused on accelerating young ELLs' language comprehension (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010). Students' positive academic and affective responses to the parallel read-aloud intervention suggest new directions for the instruction and assessment of language comprehension in young ELLs.

Second Language Instruction. The first implication of this study is that early language comprehension for Vietnamese ELLs, as measured by retelling, can be accelerated when at-risk students are provided with an early, research-based repeated read-aloud intervention (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010; Tong et al., 2008). This particular subgroup's ESOL instruction in baseline was not sufficient to help them reach norms for retelling early in elementary school, with the exception of a student who had a rich language and literacy background in her L1. This study also shows that improvement in retelling can happen simultaneously with improvement in vocabulary (NDW) and potentially with MLU for those most at risk. Improving retelling ability and language complexity earlier on may accelerate ELLs' progress with overall language proficiency (Romeo, Gentile & Bernhardt, 2008) and future reading comprehension tasks (Miller et al., 2008), thus potentially narrowing the reading achievement gap in the upper elementary grades. This intervention is the first to validate the ELC framework, which argues that ELLs need earlier, carefully constructed instruction with read-alouds in an environment that nurtures

their linguistic and cultural identity. It most likely generated results because it fused together research-based practices that have proved fruitful in isolation (Appendix E): repeated read-alouds, repeated retelling, direct vocabulary instruction, bilingual scaffolding, progress-monitoring and the provision of feedback. Such instruction should be made available to kindergarten ELLs at the lowest levels of oral language proficiency to differentiate their ESOL programming and help them meet with oral language success earlier on. It should also be explored with preschoolers as there is even less research available to guide ESOL instruction in the preschool years. Strengthening academic language earlier may lead to stronger outcomes in elementary school and beyond (Galindo, 2010; Reese, Garnier, Gallimore & Goldenberg, 2000). ESOL and bilingual education teachers, or classroom teachers with large numbers of ELLs, should be trained to more consistently use research-based strategies to enhance their read-alouds given the evidence that explicit oral language development is not a core component of preschool or early elementary classroom instruction (Saunders, Foorman & Carlson, 2006; Simon-Cerejido & Gutierrez-Clellen, 2014).

This study lends more support to those who argue that vocabulary and narrative intervention should be offered in a multi-tiered system of support such as RtI (Loftus & Coyne, 2013; Spencer et al., 2014b). These students benefited from RtI practices such as universal screening to identify students at-risk, the provision of secondary intervention, and frequent progress monitoring. However, given the numbers of kindergarten ELLs that may need such instruction, it could also occur within the domain of a multi-strand, comprehensive ESOL program at the Tier 1 level where lower-performing students get small-group intervention for their decoding and language needs in addition to ESOL instruction similar to that offered in the ELLA model (Tong et al., 2008). Clearly, students like Jessica benefit from an RtI-like model,

where progress monitoring is used to diagnose when a change in programming or consult with a specialist is needed. However, strict RtI processes could also become unwieldy to staff and students when the same low-performing ELLs qualify for secondary intervention in reading, math and language and require regular progress monitoring and documentation.

This study demonstrated that some ELLs need intensive, long-term support in the early elementary years to reach grade-level norms for language. Whereas some ELLs in this study responded rapidly by reaching norms, others needed more time. To make progress with retelling, the ELLs in this study were seen in a small group three times a week in addition to two other sessions of ESOL and three other sessions for decoding (just Thuy and Tiffany). Huy and Jessica's end result for the TNR indicated they needed several more weeks of retelling intervention. The NDW SALT database scores for Alex, Huy and Jessica indicate they needed further intervention for vocabulary. This study provides more support for the notion that ELLs need a non-negotiable language block during the school day and research-based interventions to make progress with language comprehension (Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2010). It also confirms the complexity of teaching oral language, which necessitates the assessment and instructional support for a variety of subskills (Ucelli & Paez, 2007).

Uniquely, this study adds to the growing research base asserting the value of parallel bilingual scaffolding for ELLs and extends the finding to Vietnamese ELLs. Whereas this study adds to the evidence that bilingual approaches can improve English outcomes, other studies are also accumulating that demonstrate that bilingual language intervention students may even outperform all-English intervention students in English and in Spanish (Farver et al., 2009; Simon-Cerejido & Gutierrez-Clellen, 2014). Accordingly, subgroups of ELLs that share a home

language should be offered regular read-alouds in their home language that allow them to process higher-level concepts, practice academic skills, and celebrate their home language.

Language Assessment. Several of this study's assessment procedures should become more consistent assessment practices for ESOL professionals, namely the use of retells for progress monitoring and the gathering of parent input on intake. These recommendations align with those of Espinosa in her synthesis on assessment for young ELLs, particularly that ESOL professionals should use "multiple measures that may include standardized tests and curriculum-embedded assessments, in addition to narrative language samples" and "include the family as important informants on the assessment team" (2010, p. 137).

Collecting retell samples is important because retell assessments, being more naturalistic, are purported to provide additional data regarding language performance that standardized tests do not provide (Pearson, 2002). They can also be collected repeatedly, ideally in both of the ELL's languages if the tester is proficient, in a short period of time. The TNR battery is exceptional as it provides numerous equivalent probes; tools such as the TNR can help ESOL/bilingual education teachers collect more useful assessment data. Experts in language comprehension have argued that schools need to monitor language comprehension more closely in the early years, in tandem with decoding assessments, with assessment tools similar to those used by speech-language teachers (Adlof, Perfetti & Catts, 2011). Having a progress monitoring assessment could help determine which ELLs, at similar bands of English language proficiency, are truly at risk by repeated testing during a baseline period. Dynamic assessment, which provides intervention between pre- and post-testing, can also help determine which students simply need extra intervention (eg. Alex) and which may have a disability (eg. Huy or Jessica). These determinations are more culturally valid when students' growth is compared to true peers

(i.e. ELLs of a similar background and in similar educational contexts). Having a language progress monitoring measure allows teachers to look at language growth rate, which may be a significant predictor of early literacy performance in ELLs (Hammer et al., 2011). Data analysis from progress monitoring measures can immediately inform instruction as it did in this study. The interventionist was able to praise students on aspects of retelling they had mastered and gently lead them towards greater use of weaker skills identified through assessment.

Additionally, getting parent input through the use of a bilingual questionnaire provided invaluable information regarding the students' background. Schools need to be prepared to more comprehensively assess incoming ELLs from a variety of subgroups in terms of all their previous language and literacy experiences to plan for their early language instruction. One important strategy is to gather more information on native language ability and language concerns from parents. Gutierrez-Clellen and Kreiter (2003) found that Latino parents' assessments of their children's native language abilities correlated highly with Spanish grammaticality measures collected ($r = .75$) and that the amount of native language input they reported children received at home accounted for 26% of the variance in Spanish performance. The extensive Gutierrez-Clellen and Kreiter (2003) questionnaire, conducted through an interview, is not practical under teachers' time constraints; however, having parents provide more detail regarding the percentage of children's input and output in their different languages and who their interlocutors are would be highly valuable. Young ELLs who have a rich literacy and language background in either of their languages are unlikely to need the extra language intervention required by those who have not had those experiences. It is helpful for ESOL/bilingual education teachers to account for such strengths if students appear to be struggling.

Future Research

Future research should seek to replicate this study with a more homogenous sample of at-risk Vietnamese ELLs to see if the results were similar and with other ELL subgroups to compare results. Students' progress with baseline instruction could be observed before qualifying for the study. Given the promising results, a larger between-group design could be used with Vietnamese ELLs and include L1 testing at pre-test and post-test to confirm the Mateo effect potentially observed in Thuy and to verify a cross-language transfer effect for retelling skills after intervention. More English assessments could be used such as a more global, standardized language comprehension measure to gauge the effects of the intervention on overall language comprehension beyond retelling (see Hammer et al. 2011) and a researcher-designed test to verify the results of the bilingual, direct vocabulary instruction from the storybooks. It would also be helpful to do follow-up testing with both groups one or two years later to see if there was a generalization effect on early literacy outcomes. A parent outreach strand, where parents are asked to collaborate with retelling instruction at home, would also be beneficial to increase instructional time and validate primary Discourses as the ELC framework recommends.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study that should be considered when evaluating the results. One threat to internal validity is that the researcher was not blind to students' identity or phase when conducting assessments as the researcher was also the ESOL interventionist. To combat fluctuating scores due to observer bias, 20% of students' weekly retells were scored or transcribed twice, once by the teacher/researcher and once by a research assistant with high agreement scores. Also, the weekly testing done by the interventionist allowed for the slight

individualization of instruction. This may have proved more difficult if a blind tester had been used.

A further threat to internal validity was the addition of small group ESOL instruction time needed to conduct the intervention. The provision of extra small group instruction in the intervention phase compared to baseline ESOL instruction provides a confound for the effect of the parallel read-aloud intervention as students were simultaneously provided with more time and input from an ESOL teacher. Other researchers looking to improve current ESOL instruction have had to increase instructional time in intervention groups, as compared to control conditions, to target language and comprehension skills in the past (Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999; Tong et al., 2008). In fact, increasing the time allotted for structured ESOL instruction is considered a “best practice” by the ELLA project researchers (Tong et al., 2008). Given the evidence from retelling intervention studies which have not increased students’ oral language instruction time between baseline and intervention (Brown et al., 2014; Spencer & Slocum, 2010), it can be surmised that it was the quality of explicit instruction that influenced results rather than the longer language block itself (Saunders et al., 2006).

Because this study was done in a naturalistic setting with low numbers of ELLs of a single subgroup, it was not possible to run multiple intervention groups to control group size. Thus, the group size changed slightly as students were added to the intervention group (noted with each student’s intervention phase line). It is therefore not possible to draw strong conclusions as to the influence of group size on results other than to say that this intervention may function for small groups of two to five students and that the inclusion of strong peers may have a facilitative effect on students’ retelling results. Strong results were achieved in the beginning of the study when there were only two students (Tiffany and Huy) and again when

there were four (Alex); also, the trend lines for students like Tiffany and Huy, who participated the longest, did not change as students were added. The concept of dosage in intervention is multi-faceted and very complicated to control even when researchers control group size or attempt to calculate the number of teaching episodes offered per lesson because students' response is affected by unpredictable motivational, affective and contextual variables as well (Warren, Fey & Yoder, 2007). Overall, in this study, considering the high level of treatment fidelity across sessions (96% for the Vietnamese assistant and 100% for the ESOL teacher), it can be concluded that students were offered very similar opportunities for learning.

Threats to external validity include the small sample size limited to Vietnamese kindergarteners participating in one ESOL instructional model in one geographical location. Results cannot be directly generalized to ELLs of other socioeconomic and language backgrounds in other grades or in other types of ESOL programs in other parts of the country.

Summary

The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of the parallel read-aloud intervention on the English retelling skills and language complexity of kindergarten Vietnamese ELLs. The intervention was designed based on principles of the ELC framework and fused together multiple promising research-based practices, drawn from the fields of early literacy, communication sciences and second language education, to improve language instruction for ELLs. The study utilized a multiple-baseline single subject design wherein students' progress with retelling and language complexity was documented in baseline ESOL instruction, in the intervention phase with enhanced ESOL instruction (including the intervention) and in the maintenance phase. Results pointed to a moderate intervention effect for overall retelling scores and for NDW, which was maintained overall after four weeks without intervention. Additionally, two students

responded to the intervention in terms of their MLU; however, an overall intervention effect for MLU was not observed. Social validity data collected support the acceptability of the intervention and its outcomes for bilingual education teachers, kindergarten teachers and the Vietnamese ELLs themselves. The major implications of this study relate to differentiating instruction for young ELLs with low English oral proficiency by offering bilingual, repeated read-aloud intervention such as the parallel read-aloud intervention and using progress monitoring assessments to accelerate their growth with language comprehension in English. Although this single-subject design highlighted the heterogeneity of ELLs in terms of language, literacy and economic background, it also confirmed the power of early, targeted, oral language instruction for at-risk students. Hopefully this study provides ESOL and bilingual teachers and their teammates with both the theoretical and empirical foundation to provide bolder language comprehension instruction and a practical research-based intervention to empower young ELLs to be successful earlier on with oral language and future reading comprehension instruction.

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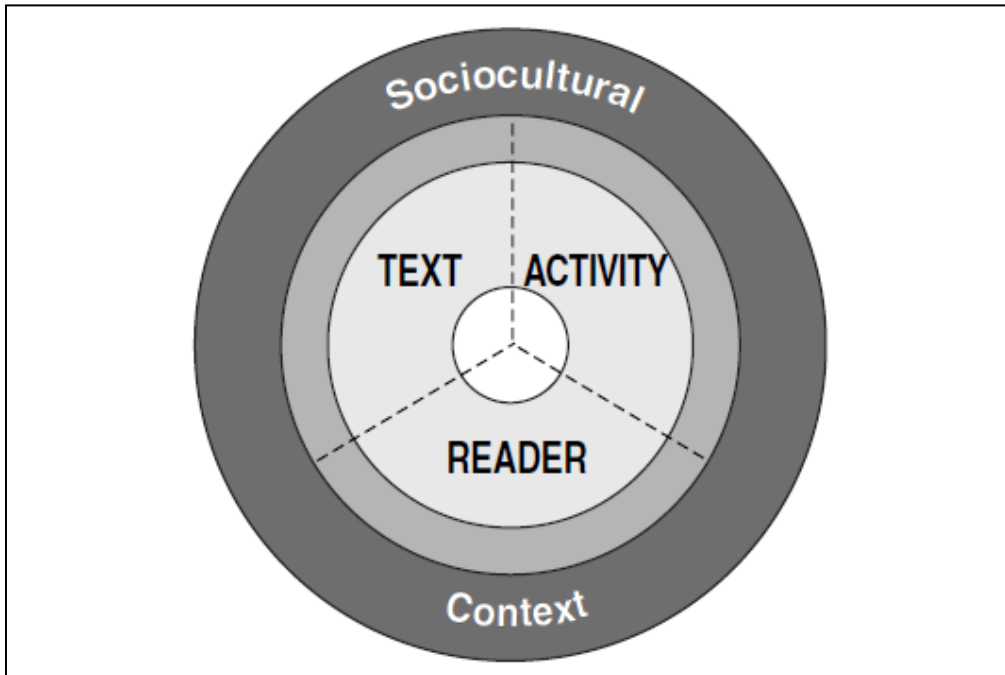
Zadeh, Z., Farnia, F., & Geva, E. (2012). Toward modeling reading comprehension and reading fluency in English language learners. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 25(1), 163-187.

Appendix A

Key Terms

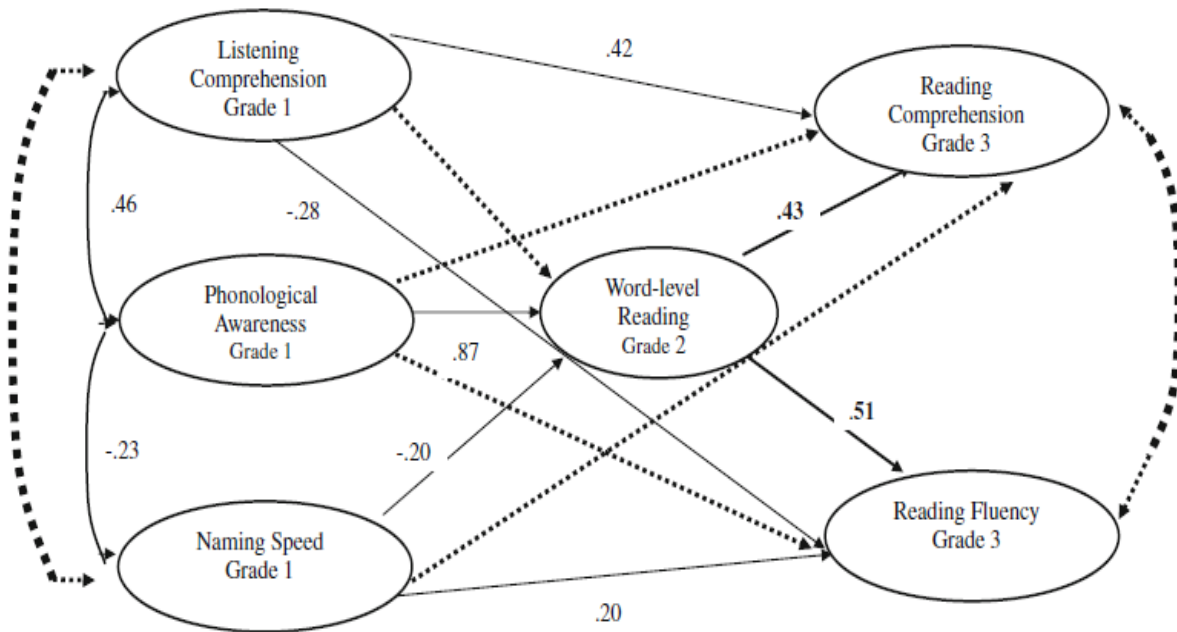
- **Asian** - people from East Asia (e.g. China, Japan), India, Vietnam/Thailand/Cambodia/Laos, and other countries in Southeast Asia (e.g. Indonesia, Malaysia) (Han, 2012).
- **Dual language books** - books in which the text is presented completely in two languages.
- **English Language Learner (ELL)** - students who “have a primary language other than English, and who, on the basis of some objective criteria, have been found to be limited in English proficiency” (Aguila, 2010, p. 14)
- **Engagement** – engaged readers are “motivated to read for a variety of personal goals, strategic in using multiple approaches to comprehend, knowledgeable in their construction of new understanding from text, and socially interactive in their approach to literacy” (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000, p. 403).
- **Language minority student** - students who come from homes where a non-English language is the primary language (Galindo, 2010).
- **Latino** – “persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central and South American, Dominican, Spanish, and other Hispanic descent” (Beltrán, 2012, p. 1). May be used interchangeably with the term “Hispanic”.
- **Narrative** – discourse where speakers “orally present causally related events or an experience in temporal order” (Spencer & Slocum, 2010, p. 179). May be used interchangeably with “retell”.

Appendix B



RAND model of reading comprehension. From *Reading for Understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension* (p. 12), by RAND Reading Study Group, 2002, Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation. Copyright by RAND.

Appendix C



Mediation model of reading comprehension and fluency in ELLs based on expanded simple view of reading. From “Toward modeling reading comprehension and reading fluency in English language learners,” by Z. Yaghoub Zadeh, F. Farnia, F., and E. Geva, 2012, *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 25(1), p. 179.

Appendix D

Reading Standards for Literature K-5

RL

The following standards offer a focus for instruction each year and help ensure that students gain adequate exposure to a range of texts and tasks. Rigor is also infused through the requirement that students read increasingly complex texts through the grades. Students advancing through the grades are expected to meet each year's grade-specific standards and retain or further develop skills and understandings mastered in preceding grades.

Kindergartners:	Grade 1 students:	Grade 2 students:
Key Ideas and Details		
1. With prompting and support, ask and answer questions about key details in a text.	1. Ask and answer questions about key details in a text.	1. Ask and answer such questions as who, what, where, when, why, and how to demonstrate understanding of key details in a text.
2. With prompting and support, retell familiar stories, including key details.	2. Retell stories, including key details, and demonstrate understanding of their central message or lesson.	2. Recount stories, including fables and folktales from diverse cultures, and determine their central message, lesson, or moral.
3. With prompting and support, identify characters, settings, and major events in a story.	3. Describe characters, settings, and major events in a story, using key details.	3. Describe how characters in a story respond to major events and challenges.

Key ideas and details strand of CCSS Reading Standards. From “Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science and Technical Subjects,” by National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010, p. 11. Retrieved from <http://www.corestandards.org/the-standards>

Appendix E

Research-Based Practices to Enhance Early Language Comprehension of ELLs/ Second Language Learners

Interactive Read – aloud Practices

Practice	References
Repeated reading of storybooks	Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Silverman, 2007; Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin, 2009; Nielsen & Friesen, 2012
Interactive, dialogic approach	Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Tong et al., 2008; Vaughn et al., 2006
Extended, direct vocabulary instruction	Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin, 2009; Paez et al., 2010; Roberts, 2008; Silverman, 2007; Tong et al., 2008; Vaughn et al., 2006
Scripted literal and inferential comprehension questions	Cruz de Quiros et al., 2012; Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin, 2009; Tong et al., 2008; Vaughn et al., 2006
Retelling practice	Cruz de Quiros et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2008; Vaughn et al., 2006
Small group instruction	Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Vaughn et al., 2006
Emphasis on engaging and/or culturally relevant books	Paez et al., 2010; Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin, 2009; Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Tong et al., 2008

Retelling intervention

Practice	References
Small groups for individualized feedback	Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Spencer & Slocum, 2010
Repeated retelling	Cruz de Quiros et al., 2012; Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2014
Use of story grammar for feedback	Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2013; Tong et al., 2008
Use of graphic organizers, icons and/or manipulatives	Nielsen & Friesen, 2012 (puppets); Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2013
Gradual release of responsibility: modeling, group work, partner work	Nielsen & Friesen, 2012; Spencer & Slocum, 2010; Spencer et al., 2013;

	Vaughn et al., 2006
Incorporating peers as models	Spencer & Slocum, 2010
Use of regular progress monitoring assessment	Spencer & Slocum, 2010

Parallel Bilingual Scaffolding

Practice	References
Use of L1 texts to preview or provide parallel support for vocabulary instruction	Paez et al., 2010; Roberts, 2008
Use of L1 to introduce and practice comprehension strategies	Fung et al., 2003 (older students)
Use of L1 for interactive discussion	Fung et al., 2003 (older students)

Appendix F



Webster Hill Elementary School

125 Webster Hill Boulevard, West Hartford, CT 06107 • Phone (860) 521-0320 Fax (860) 561-1230

Jeffrey Wallowitz, Principal



June 7, 2014

Dear Dr. DePalma,

I am writing to confirm my support for Darci Melchor's dissertation research project at Webster Hill Elementary School for the 2014-15 school year. This project is being conducted as the final stage of her Ph.D. program in Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Connecticut.

We have discussed the need for her to use 5 kindergarten Vietnamese ELLs to conduct a bilingual repeated read-aloud and retell intervention over the course of several weeks. My understanding is that this will be offered as an enhancement to the current ESOL program that is being offered to kindergarten students to verify if the extra time and systematic attention can increase their both their retelling ability and overall language ability. We have discussed the need for parent consent and the extra assessments the students will receive.

As the leader of a school that believes strongly in early intervention, I feel that this research project will add to our knowledge and resources regarding earlier support for the oral language and comprehension skills of a subgroup that is at risk for literacy underachievement. If the results are positive, it can help initiate discussions about the procedures used for read-aloud sessions, retelling instruction and progress monitoring to help build consensus in the building regarding early comprehension development.

Please let me know if you have any further questions about Webster Hill Elementary School's involvement with this project.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Jeff Wallowitz".

Jeff Wallowitz

Appendix G

Vietnamese Language Screener (English):

Name of student: _____

Parent / guardian: _____

Please help us determine how much Vietnamese your son/daughter uses with family and friends.

What is your dominant home language?	Vietnamese	English	Both
--------------------------------------	------------	---------	------

What language did your child speak first?	Vietnamese	English	Both
---	------------	---------	------

What language does your child prefer now?	Vietnamese	English	Both
---	------------	---------	------

Does your child respond to instructions in Vietnamese?	YES	NO
--	-----	----

Does your child respond to questions appropriately in Vietnamese conversations?	YES	NO
---	-----	----

Can your child speak in complete sentences in Vietnamese?	YES	NO
---	-----	----

Does anyone read Vietnamese books at home with your child? If yes, who?	YES	NO
--	-----	----

Does anyone read English books at home with your child? If yes, who?	YES	NO
---	-----	----

Do you have concerns about your child's language development? If YES, please describe:	YES	NO
---	-----	----

Did your child's language use change when he/she started preschool? If YES, please describe:	YES	NO
---	-----	----

Vietnamese Language Screener (Vietnamese) :

Tên học sinh: _____

Phụ Huynh/Người Giám Hộ: _____

Vui lòng giúp chúng tôi xác định con quý vị sử dụng tiếng Việt ở mức nào với gia đình và bạn bè.

Vui lòng cho biết ngôn ngữ chủ yếu ở nhà của quý vị? Tiếng Việt Tiếng Anh Cả hai

Con quý vị nói ngôn ngữ nào trước tiên? Tiếng Việt Tiếng Anh Cả hai

Con quý vị hiện nay thích ngôn ngữ nào hơn? Tiếng Việt Tiếng Anh Cả hai

Con quý vị có đáp ứng các hướng dẫn bằng tiếng Việt hay không? CÓ KHÔNG

Con quý vị có trả lời các câu hỏi một cách thích hợp khi nói chuyện bằng tiếng Việt hay không? CÓ KHÔNG

Con quý vị có thể nói các câu hoàn chỉnh bằng tiếng Việt hay không? CÓ KHÔNG

Có bất kỳ ai đọc sách tiếng Việt ở nhà cùng với con quý vị không?
Nếu có, ai? CÓ KHÔNG

Có bất kỳ ai đọc sách tiếng Anh ở nhà cùng với con quý vị không?
Nếu có, ai? CÓ KHÔNG

Quý vị có quan ngại về sự phát triển ngôn ngữ của con quý vị không?
Nếu CÓ, vui lòng mô tả: CÓ KHÔNG

Việc sử dụng ngôn ngữ của con quý vị có thay đổi khi con quý vị bắt đầu đi nhà trẻ không?
Nếu CÓ, vui lòng mô tả: CÓ KHÔNG

Appendix H

Parallel Read Aloud Vietnamese / English Book List*:

*** Books with no author or year come from either a publisher in Thailand or Vietnam and are available through VietnameseArtwork.com**

The Lion and the Mouse. Thailand: Class Publishing House.

The Fox and the Stork. Thailand: Class Publishing House.

The Shepherd Boy. Thailand: Class Publishing House

The Fox and the Goat. Thailand: Class Publishing House

Rayner, C. (2008). *Augustus and His Smile*. London: Mantra Lingua.

Camp, L. & Newton, J. (1993). *Keeping Up with Cheetah*. London: Mantra Lingua.

Barkow, H. & Finlay, L. (2000). *Buri and the Marrow* . London: Mantra Lingua.

Clynes, K. & Daykin, L. (2003). *Goldilocks and the Three Bears*. London: Mantra Lingua.

Barkow, H. (2005). *The Little Red Hen*. London: Mantra Lingua.

Waddell, M. & Oxenbury, H. (1991) *Farmer Duck*. London: Mantra Lingua.

Barkow, H. (2007). *The Elves and the Shoemaker*. London: Mantra Lingua

Casey, D. *Yeh – Hsien : A Chinese Cinderella*. London: Mantra Lingua

Mills, D. & Brazell, D. (1999). *Lima's Red Hot Chili*. London: Mantra Lingua

Mills, D. & Crouth, J. (2003). *Wibbly Wobbly Tooth*. London: Mantra Lingua

Browne, E. (1994). *Handa's Surprise*. London: Mantra Lingua

Wang, F. & Corfield, J. (2010). *Li's Chinese New Year*. London: Mantra Lingua.

The Three Little Pigs

The Ugly Duckling

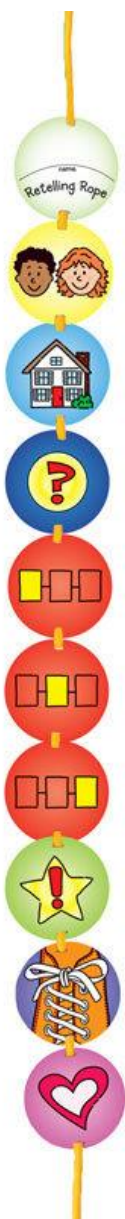
Golden Goose

Town House and Country Mouse

Jack and the Beanstalk

The Emperor's New Clothes

Appendix I



Retelling Rope from *Really Good Stuff* catalog - <http://www.reallygoodstuff.com/>

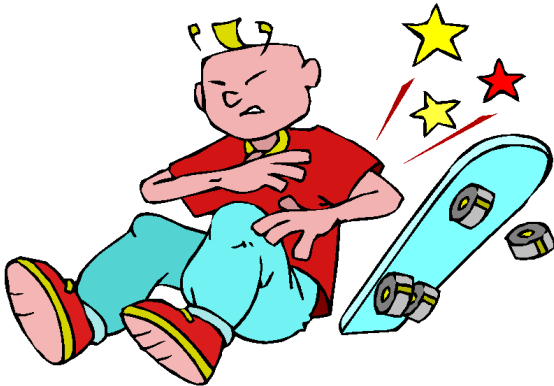
Appendix J

The Lion and the Mouse Unit Plan – DAY ONE (Vietnamese)

- 1) State objectives: To use more story words
To retell stories we have heard with more details
- 2) Introduce vocabulary in Vietnamese and English on Smartboard or using printouts



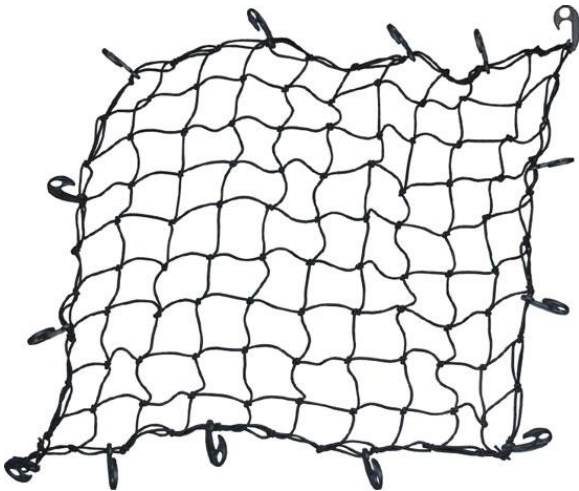
paw / chan (co vuot cua meo, ho)



accident / tai nan



tiny / ti hon



net / luoi



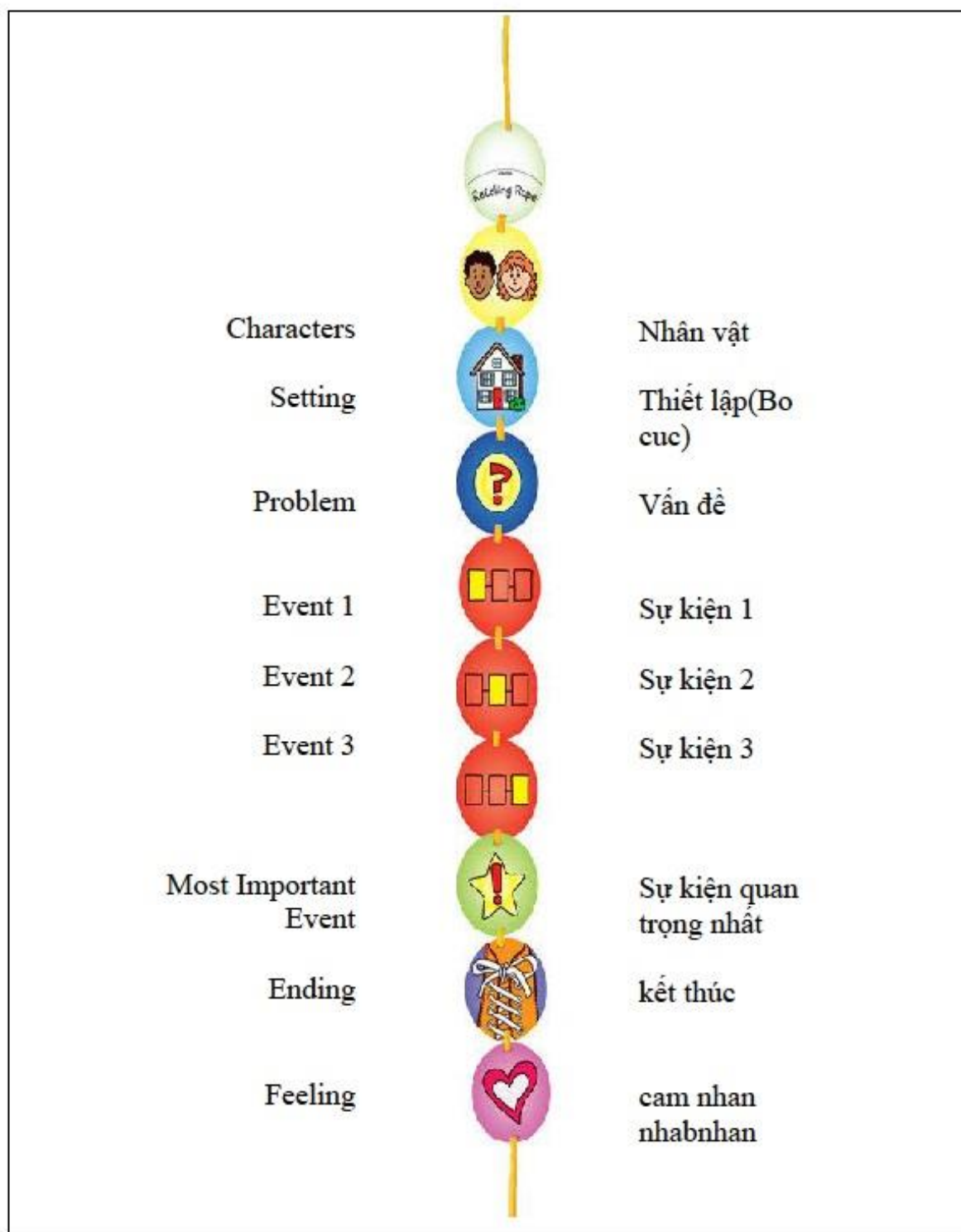
grateful / de chiu



- 3) Students repeat vocabulary in Vietnamese and English.
- 4) Look at cover of book. Ask “What do you know about the story?” OR “What do you think will happen?” in Vietnamese.
- 5) Read book asking questions on notes in book in Vietnamese (see below).

p. 1 Why did the mouse run on top of the lion?	It was an accident.
p. 3 How does the lion feel ? Why?	Angry. He got woken up.
p. 5 What is the lion thinking of doing ?	Eating the mouse.
p. 6 What deal do they make ?	If the lion lets him free, the mouse will help him someday.
p. 11 How did the mouse get the lion out?	Chewed the net.

- 6) Practice the name of story elements in Vietnamese with children using graphic organizer on Smartboard or printouts (below).
- 7) Show them how to do a retell in Vietnamese using pictures (you talk – they listen).



The Lion and the Mouse – DAY TWO (English)

- 1) Review objectives: To use more story words
 To retell stories we have heard with more details
- 2) Review performance feedback from progress monitoring testing briefly (if recent).
Praise particular successes with story elements and language used. Set goals for weak areas individually or as a group.
- 3) Discuss same vocabulary above in English using Smartboard or printouts. Have students repeat the words.
- 4) Ask students to recall details from story in English.
- 5) Read book interactively in English using scripted questions and allowing students to start retelling story.

p. 1 Why did the mouse run on top of the lion? It was an accident.

p. 3 How does the lion feel? Why? Angry. He got woken up.

p. 5 What is the lion thinking of doing ? Eating the mouse.

p. 6 What deal do they make? If the lion lets him free, the mouse will help him someday.

p. 8 What is the lion's problem? He's stuck in the net.

End - How does the lion feel at the end? Why?

What is the lesson of the story?
- 6) Complete group retell: each student takes turn telling part of story corresponding to their retelling rope manipulative.
- 7) Prompt and extend responses. Provide feedback.

The Lion and the Mouse - DAY THREE (English)

- 1) Review objectives.
- 2) Review key vocabulary in English using group oral cloze task below.
- 3) Read book quickly in English.
- 4) Complete individual retell routine: one student retells to 1-2 other students using story rope. They rotate so each performs a retell using the graphic organizer.
- 5) Provide feedback on retells during and after partner work.

VOCABULARY REVIEW – ORAL CLOZE SENTENCES

Teachers reads sentences aloud on Smartboard or using printouts. Group chooses the right word together.

grateful tiny net paw accident

The dog hurt his _____ in the fence.

The boy hurt his friend by _____ .



The dollhouse had _____ furniture inside.

The fishermen caught many fish in their _____ .

My parents take good care of me. I am very _____ for them.

Appendix K

Examiner says, "I'm going to tell you a story. Please listen carefully. When I'm done you are going to tell me the same story. Are you ready?"

Last night, **Kwan** and his family were **eating dinner in the kitchen**. Kwan was eating chicken and apples because they are his favorite food. When Kwan **wanted more fresh delicious apples** he asked for more, **but they were gone**. Then he saw his **dad eating some apples**. Kwan was **mad** because he **wanted them**. He **decided to nicely ask his dad to share**. He said, "**Can you please share those apples that you are eating?**" His dad said, "**Of course, I will share with you.**" Then his dad **happily shared the apples with Kwan**. After his dad **shared the apples**, Kwan was **happy** because he **got more apples**.

Examiner says, "Thanks for listening. Now you tell me that story."
 Acceptable Prompts, "It's OK. Just do your best"; "I can't help but you can just tell the parts you remember."
 Examiner says, "Are you finished?"

STORY GRAMMAR (SG)		2 POINTS		1 POINT		0	
Character	Kwan / any name	2	the boy / a brother	1			
Setting	eating dinner in kitchen	2	eating dinner / in kitchen	1			
Problem (P)	apples were gone / wanted more apples	2	he wanted something	1			
Emotion	sad / mad / upset / angry	2	didn't like it / cried / screamed	1			
Plan			decided / thought	1			
Attempt (A)	asked his dad to share	2	asked for help	1			
Consequence (C)	dad said "OK, I'll share"	2	got them	1			
Ending (E)	got more apples / he shared apples	2	he shared	1			
Ending Emotion	happy / excited	2	felt better / liked it / smiled	1			
STORY GRAMMAR (SG) SUBTOTAL =		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 100px; height: 20px;"></div>					

LANGUAGE COMPLEXITY (LC) (1 point for each use)			
then	1		
because	1	2	3
when	1	2	3
after	1	2	3
	1	2	3
	1	2	3
LANG. COMPLEXITY (LC) SUBTOTAL =			<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 50px; height: 20px;"></div>

EPISODE (Calculated from shaded SG)			
P+A	P+C	A+C	2
	P+C+E	P+A+E	3
		P+A+C	4
		P+A+C+E	5
EPISODE (E) SUBTOTAL =			<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 50px; height: 20px;"></div>

NLM TOTAL (SG+LC+E) =	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 100px; height: 20px;"></div>
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Test of Narrative Retell – Kindergarten (Spencer & Petersen, 2012)

Appendix L
Index of Narrative Complexity rubric
(Petersen, Gillam & Gillam, 2008, p.122-125)

Table 2. Index of narrative complexity story coding form

Narrative Element	0 Points	1 Point	2 points	3 points
Character A character is any reference to the subject of a clause in a narrative.	No main character is included, or only ambiguous pronouns are used. Examples <i>a. They were walking.</i> <i>b. He was walking.</i>	Includes at least <i>one</i> main character with nonspecific labels only. <i>Note:</i> Only code each character <i>one</i> time. Examples <i>a. Once there was a boy.</i> <i>b. The boy was walking.</i>	Includes <i>one</i> main character with a specific name for the character. Example <i>Once there was a boy named Charles.</i>	Includes <i>more than one</i> main character with specific names. Example <i>Once there was a boy named Charles and a girl named Mary.</i>
Setting A setting is any reference to a place or time in a narrative.	No reference to a specific or general place. Example <i>The boy and the girl were walking.</i>	Includes reference to a general place or time. Examples <i>a. The boy and the girl were outside.</i> <i>b. It was daytime.</i> <i>c. One day, they went to the park.</i>	One or more references to specific places or times. Examples <i>a. Once there was a boy and a girl walking in Central Park.</i> <i>b. They were walking at night.</i>	
Initiating Event An initiating event is any reference to an event or problem that elicits a response from the character(s) in a narrative.	An event or problem likely to elicit a response from the character is <i>not</i> stated. Example <i>The girl looked at the boy.</i> <i>The boy and girl were walking in the park.</i>	Includes at least <i>one</i> stated event or problem that is likely to elicit a response from the character, <i>but there is no response directly related to that event.</i> Example <i>The girl was walking in a park and saw a spaceship land (event/problem) and she saw some aliens, and she saw a dog, and a table and</i>	Includes at least <i>one</i> stated event or problem that elicits a response from the character(s). Example <i>The girl was walking in a park and saw a spaceship land and she saw some aliens (1E).</i> <i>The girl started to run away (action).</i>	<i>Two or more distinct</i> stated events or problems that elicit a response from the character(s). Examples <i>The girl was walking in a park and saw a spaceship land and she saw some aliens (1E-1). The girl started to run away (action). But while she was running, her shoe got stuck in a hole (1E2). She quickly knelt down and took off her shoe to get unstuck (action).</i> (continues)

Table 2. Index of narrative complexity story coding form (Continued)

Narrative Element	0 Points	1 Point	2 points	3 points
Internal Response An internal response is any reference to information about a character's psychological state including emotions, desires, feelings, or thoughts.	No overt statement about a character's psychological state.	One overt statement about a character's psychological state not causally related to an event or problem. Example <i>The dog was sad, the girl was happy.</i>	One or more overt statements about a character's psychological state causally related to an event or problem. Example <i>The aliens' landed. Sana saw the ship and was terrified.</i>	
Plan A plan is any cognitive verb reference that is intended to act on or solve an initiating event. It must include a "cognitive verb" that indicates a plan. Note: The plan and the action/attempt can share the same clause (see 2 Points example b)	No overt statement is provided about the character's plan to act on or solve the event or problem. Example <i>The girl was very excited and she ran out to meet the aliens.</i>	One overt statement about how the character might solve the complication or problem. Example <i>The girl thought that it would be neat to go and meet the aliens.</i>	Two overt statements about how the character might act on or solve the event(s) or problem(s). Examples a. <i>The girl was very excited and she told the boy that she wanted to go meet the aliens</i> b. <i>The boy was very scared so he decided to sneak away quietly.</i>	Three or more overt statements about how the character might act on or solve the event(s) or problem(s).
Action/Attempt Actions are taken by the main characters but are not directly related to the IE. Attempts are taken by the main character(s) that are directly related to the IE.	No actions are taken by the main character(s). Example <i>There is a girl. There is a boy. It is sunny.</i>	Actions by main character are not directly related to the IE. Examples a. <i>The boy and the girl were walking in a park.</i> b. <i>They saw a boy alien waiting.</i>	Attempts by main character are directly related to the IE. Example <i>The girl thought that it would be neat to go and meet the aliens so she got away from the boy and walked out on the grass</i>	

(continues)

Table 2. Index of narrative complexity story coding form (*Continued*)

Narrative Element	0 Points	1 Point	2 points	3 points
Complication				
A complication is an event that prohibits the execution of a plan or action taken in response to an initiating event. <i>Note:</i> A complication can also be a second initiating event. In this case code both a complication and initiating event.	No complications.	One complication that prohibits a plan or action from being accomplished. Example <i>The spaceship landed. The girl decided to get away from the aliens and started running from the spaceship. While she was running, her shoe got stuck in a hole. She could not get away from the aliens.</i>	Two distinct complications that prohibit plans or actions from being accomplished. Example <i>The girl was walking in a park and saw a spaceship land and she saw some aliens (IE-1). The girl started to run away (action-1). But while she was running, her shoe got stuck in a hole (complication-1/IE-2). She quickly knelt down and took off her shoe to get unstuck (action-2) but she was shaking too much to get her shoe off (complication-2).</i>	
Consequence				
A consequence resolves the problem or does not resolve the problem. It must be related to the IE and be explicitly stated. <i>Note:</i> A consequence for one episode can often be the IE for another.	No consequence to the action/attempt is explicitly stated. Examples a. <i>She got away from the boy and walked out onto the grass.</i> b. <i>The alien girl had a dress on.</i>	One consequence Example <i>The spaceship landed. The girl went out to see them. The aliens were scared of her. They ran back to the ship and flew off.</i>	Two consequences Examples a. <i>They told their parents the spaceship was in the park. "But their parents didn't believe them." When they took their parents to the park "the spaceship was gone."</i> b. <i>The boy wanted a frog. He went to the woods to find one. He couldn't find a frog. He decided "he really wanted a dog."</i>	Three or more consequences

(continues)

Table 2. Index of narrative complexity story coding form (Continued)

Narrative Element	0 Points	1 Point	2 points	3 points
Formulaic markers A formulaic marker is any standard utterance used to mark the beginning or ending of a narrative. For example, <i>The end, once, once upon a time, they lived happily ever after.</i>	No formulaic markers	One formulaic marker Example <i>Once upon a time</i>	Two or more formulaic markers Example <i>Once upon a time... The end.</i>	
Temporal markers For example, <i>when, next, then, immediately, instantly, after, again, already, always, before, lately, now, once, presently, rarely, today, weekly, while</i>	No temporal markers	One temporal marker Examples a. <i>The girl walked over to the aliens. "Then" they all ate some lunch.</i> b. <i>"After" the aliens landed, the girl screamed.</i>	Two or more temporal markers Example <i>"When" the girl saw the aliens, she ran out to meet them. She "already" knew they would be nice.</i>	
Causal adverbial clauses For example, <i>because, since, so that, therefore, as a result, consequently, thus, hence.</i>	No causal adverbial clauses.	One causal adverbial clause Example <i>The aliens were not nice to the girl because they were scared.</i>	Two or more causal adverbial clauses Example <i>The aliens were not nice to the girl because they were scared. Since they were mean, she ran away.</i>	
Knowledge of dialogue Knowledge of dialogue is registered by a comment or statement made by a character or by characters engaging in conversation.	No dialogue	One character makes a comment or statement Examples a. <i>He said "Ow"</i> b. <i>He said "Don't come over here"</i>	Two or more characters engage in conversation Example <i>He said "Oh look, there is an alien" and she said "Oh, lets go see them."</i>	
Narrator evaluations Narrator evaluations are any explanation provided in the story to justify why an action or event took place.	No narrator evaluations	One narrator evaluation Example <i>She ran up to say hello to the alien. She always wanted to meet one.</i>	Two or more narrator evaluations Examples a. <i>She knew that it was an alien spaceship. Everyone knows about UFOs.</i> b. <i>He wanted to run from the aliens. They were his worst nightmare.</i>	

Appendix M
Testing Fidelity Checklist

Date:

Child:

Percent correct:

Examiner...

Provides a quiet room . Y / N

Introduces story with "I'm going to tell you a story.
Please listen carefully. When I'm done you are going to retell the
same story. Are you ready?" Y / N

Reads story slowly word for word. Y / N

Says "Now you tell me the story. " Y / N

Does not prompt besides "Just do your best." Or "You can do it." Y / N

Asks whether child is finished with "Is that all?". Y / N

Appendix N

Treatment fidelity for parallel read-aloud intervention unit:

Observer: _____

Dates: _____

Unit = 3 lessons x 30 min. per week (3rd session may be 5 min. longer if there are uneven number of students)

Observed? Y / N

Session 1: Vietnamese

Teacher

1. Explains objectives for lesson. _____
2. Introduces 5 key vocabulary words in Vietnamese and English with visuals. _____
3. Students repeat the vocabulary words in Vietnamese and English. _____
4. Asks students what they know about the book or asks students to make predictions. _____
5. Reads book interactively inviting participation with scripted questions. _____
6. Introduces retelling rope naming story elements in Vietnamese. _____
7. Models how to do a retell in Vietnamese (students may help a little). _____

Notes: (absences, behaviors, disruptions, etc.)

Session 2: English

Teacher ...

1. Sets purpose. _____
2. Reviews performance feedback from testing. _____
3. Reviews same 3-5 key vocabulary words in English using visuals. _____

4. Students repeat vocabulary words. _____
5. Asks students to recall details from story in English. _____
4. Reads book interactively in English using scripted questions and allowing students to start retelling story. _____
5. Completes group retell: each student takes turn telling part of story corresponding to their manipulative. _____
6. Prompts and extends responses. _____

Notes: (absences, behaviors, disruptions, etc.)

Session 3:

Teacher ...

1. Sets purpose. _____
2. Reviews same key vocabulary in English using cloze or questioning procedure. _____
3. Reads book quickly in English. _____
4. Completes individual retell routine: one student retells to 1-2 other students using story rope. They rotate so each performs a retell using the graphic organizer. _____
5. Teacher provides feedback on retells during and after partner work. _____

Notes: (absences, behaviors, disruptions, etc.)

Elements observed: ___ / 18 = _____ % fidelity

Appendix O

**Usage Rating Profile – Intervention Revised
(Parallel Read Aloud Study URP – IR)**

	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Slightly Disagree</i>	<i>Slightly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
1. The amount of time required to use this intervention is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I would implement this intervention with a good deal of enthusiasm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The intervention could be implemented for the duration of time as prescribed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The amount of time required for record keeping with this intervention is reasonable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am motivated to try this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I would need consultative support to implement this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. All pieces of the intervention could be implemented precisely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The intervention could be implemented with the intensity as prescribed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I would have positive attitudes about implementing this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I understand the procedures of the intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I would know what to do if I was asked to implement the intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Overall, the intervention is beneficial for the child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Implementation of this intervention would require support from my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Parental consent is required in order to use this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The requirements for implementing this intervention are unclear.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I would not be interested in implementing this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. The intervention could be implemented exactly as described.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The intervention is a good way to remedy weaknesses with retelling skill.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I could only implement this intervention with assistance from other adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. The intervention is a fair way to address retelling difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. This intervention is reasonable for the language problem described.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I could implement this intervention by myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I would need support from my administrator to	1	2	3	4	5	6

implement this intervention.							
24.	I would be resistant to use this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	This intervention could be implemented as frequently as described.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	This is an acceptable intervention strategy for weak retelling skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	I am knowledgeable about the intervention procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	This intervention is an effective choice for addressing a variety of language difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	This intervention would not be disruptive to other students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	I have the skills needed to implement this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	I understand how to use this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	I liked the procedures used in this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	I would have no idea how to implement this intervention.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	The directions for using this intervention are clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Adapted from Usage Rating Profile – Intervention in Briesch, A. M., Chafouleas, S. M., Neugebauer, S. R., & Riley-Tillman, T. C. (2013). Assessing influences on intervention implementation: Revision of the Usage Rating Profile-Intervention. *Journal of School Psychology, 51*(1), 81-96.

Appendix P

Name:

How do you feel about ?

1. Discussing storybooks in Vietnamese



Very
happy



Happy



In
between



Unhappy



Very
unhappy

2. Discussing storybooks in English



Very
happy



Happy



In
between



Unhappy



Very
unhappy

3. Your retelling skills in English



Very
happy



Happy



In
between



Unhappy



Very
unhappy

4. Did you have a favorite book?

Extra comments:

Appendix Q
Grid Analysis for TNR Scores

Student 1: Tiffany	Baseline					Intervention			
	1	2	3	4		5	6	7	8
Character						■	■	■	■
Setting	■	■		■		■	■	■	■
Problem		■	■			■	■	■	■
Emotion			■						
Plan									
Attempt	■					■		■	■
Consequence	■	■		■				■	■
Ending							■	■	■
End Emotion			■				■		
then						■	■	■	■
because									
when						■			
after									

Student 2: Huy	Baseline					Intervention			
	1	2	3	4		5	6	7	8
Character						■		■	■
Setting				■			■	■	
Problem	■	■					■		■
Emotion						■			■
Plan									
Attempt									
Consequence						■	■	■	
Ending									■
End Emotion									■
then									
because						■			
when									
after									

Student 3: Jessica	Baseline					Intervention			
	1	2	3	4		5	6	7	8
Character									
Setting									
Problem									
Emotion									
Plan									
Attempt									
Consequence									
Ending									
End Emotion									
then									
because									
when									
after									

Student 4: Alex	Baseline					Intervention			
	1	2	3	4		5	6	7	8
Character									
Setting									
Problem									
Emotion									
Plan									
Attempt									
Consequence									
Ending									
End Emotion									
then									
because									
when									
after									

Student 5: Thuy	Baseline					Intervention			
	1	2	3	4		5	6	7	8
Character				■		■	■	■	■
Setting	■			■		■	■	■	■
Problem	■					■	■	■	■
Emotion	■	■		■		■	■	■	■
Plan							■	■	
Attempt	■		■	■		■	■	■	■
Consequence	■	■		■		■	■	■	■
Ending	■	■				■	■	■	■
End Emotion	■	■	■	■		■	■	■	■
then	■		■	■		■	■	■	■
because		■		■					
when			■				■		■
after									

Note. B = Baseline. I = Intervention. Grey = score of 1 for specificity (*Plan* can only receive a score of 1). Black = score of 2 for specificity or use of language complexity marker.

Appendix R

Line Graphs of Combined Dependent Variables

