THE INFLUENCE OF "RESPONSE BUDDY" ON THE QUALITY OF WRITTEN RESPONSES TO LITERATURE BY STUDENTS AT RISK FOR LITERACY PROBLEMS

by

LINDSAY GREGG PEASTER

(Under the Direction of Cynthia O. Vail)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of "Response Buddy," a graphic organizer created by the researcher and co-teacher, on the quality of written responses to literature by first and second grade students considered to be at risk for literacy problems. In this study, the quality of written response was predetermined by four elements: a) inclusion of the title; b) inclusion of a connection; c) inclusion of the reason for the connection; and d) inclusion of an opinion. There were three phases in this multiple probe across participants design (i.e., baseline, intervention, and maintenance). During baseline, the researcher read a story, and the students were given definitions and instructions orally to write a response to the story. Intervention included three days of modeling and instruction on how to use "Response Buddy" to help students remember important parts of writing responses to literature. The maintenance condition for each student began approximately one week after he/she met the preset criterion (i.e., the inclusion of all four elements on three of four consecutive sessions). Social validity was measured using participant surveys as well as rankings of writing samples by experienced

teachers. Evidence indicated a functional relation between the intervention of "Response Buddy" and the overall quality of written responses to literature with first and second grade students considered to be at risk for literacy problems. A discussion of the results, limitations of the study, ideas for future research, and classroom implications are included.

INDEX WORDS: Writing, Writing Instruction, Learning Disabilities, Significant Developmental Delay, Graphic Organizers, Concept Maps, Primary, Elementary, Semantic Webbing, Think Sheets, Planning Sheets, Thinking Maps, Special Education, Kindergarten, First Grade, Second Grade, Third Grade, Fourth Grade, Intervention, Response to Literature, Reading, At-Risk, Learning Problems

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DEDICATION

To Todd, my favorite person in this world… thank you for always talking me into "one more semester." You have been my rock through all of this. To simply say you have supported me through this journey would be a gross understatement. *You* are the reason I finished. It was because of your support and encouragement that I registered for each new semester, sat through another class, and am at this point today. For these reasons and for being the wonderful man, husband, father, and friend that you are, I *lovingly* and *gratefully* dedicate this to you.

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My prayer is that the experience and knowledge I have gained and will continue to gain through this journey will serve as a catalyst to afford others opportunities beyond their greatest imagination…opportunities that come from being literate, believing in oneself, and being brave enough to break through cycles or helplessness that would have otherwise held them captive.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

The ability to express ideas in writing is a highly valued skill in today's society and one that is essential for school success (Montague, Maddux, & Dereshiwsky, 1990). Written expression requires an individual to pull from background knowledge (Englert, Raphael, Anderson, Anthony, & Stevens, 1991; Hagaman & Reid, 2008), organize ideas, and generate content to communicate effectively to an audience (Hagaman & Reid, 2008). Written expression, however, does not naturally occur, but is a complex process that requires assistance, experience, and often, direct instruction (Graham & Harris, 1997; Saddler, 2006; Saddler & Asaro, 2007; Sundeen, 2007; Troia & Graham, 2002). Research indicates effective writing intervention and instruction should emphasize three main steps of the writing process including planning, writing, and revising (Baker, Gersten, & Graham, 2003; Gersten & Baker, 2001). Moreover, there is concern that American students, especially those with learning disabilities (LD), may not receive adequate writing instruction (Hagaman & Reid, 2008).

To remediate this problem, writing instruction now begins in kindergarten in most states, if not in Pre-K. Specifically in grades K-2, genres of writing that are taught include narrative, informational, persuasive, and response to literature. In Georgia, the Department of Education (2011) included in the Georgia Performance Standards (GPS) that students in grades K-2 would complete independent samples of all four genres of

writing. In addition, the newly adopted Common Core State Standards Initiative (2011) emphasizes that students at these levels will begin to write in a variety of genres and that they will "describe the connection between two individuals, events, ideas, or pieces of information in a text" (Georgia Department of Education, 2011).

Responding to literature is a process that begins in children even before they learn letter names or sounds (Jalonga, 2004). It is one distinct way in which readers can demonstrate not only comprehension of a text, but also a connection to it. Heimlich and Pittelman (1986) describe this as "building bridges between the new and the known." While responding to literature can occur in different forms (i.e., oral, written, dramatic retelling, literature circles, artistic book report, painting, etc.) (Hickman, 1981; Labbo, 1996; Martínez-Roldán,& López-Robertson, 2000; Palincsar, Parecki, & McPhail, 1995), the concrete, written response has gained support through research in the last decades as a means of "disclosing the mind's journey during reading" (Hancock, 1993, p. 336). This written form is one way the connection between reading and writing can be strengthened.

Rosenblatt (1978) believed that readers often take one of two different stances (or a combination) when responding to literature: efferent and aesthetic. Efferent reading refers to the reader responding to words or symbols. Rosenblatt (1978) states that, during this type of stance, a reader's attention is "directed outward, so to speak, toward concepts to be retained, ideas to be tested, actions to be performed after the reading" (p. 24). An example of an efferent stance would be a plot summary (Miall & Kuiken, 1995), or the stance focusing on the factual, informational elements (Sipe, 2000). When a reader takes an aesthetic stance, Rosenblatt (1978) describes the "reader's attention being centered directly on what he is living through during his relationship with that particular text" (p.

25). An aesthetic response is the "private" stance (Sipe, 2000) and would include the reader sharing emotions, ideas, and attitudes that are evoked after a story is read. Unfortunately, during the mid-1990s, a multitude of researchers concluded that most instruction for primary and elementary grades (both general and special education) in the area of reader response had consisted of surface-level, informational type discussions that resulted primarily in efferent responses (i.e., plot summary, factual or informational elements), or often mere retellings of the story (Miall & Kuiken, 1995; Wollman-Bonilla & Werchadlo, 1995).

With a rich history of debated theories and beliefs, modalities, and assessment methods (Hickman, 1981; Miall & Kuiken, 1995; Sebesta, Monson, & Senn, 1995; Wolf, Carey, &Mieras, 1996), response to literature remains a complex and yet fascinating process, one that all individuals regardless of age, race, intellectual ability, gender, reading level, or native language can share.

Definition of Terms

The purpose of this section is to provide definitions for terms used throughout the study. *Graphic organizers* are defined as "visual displays teachers use to organize information in a manner that makes information easier to understand and learn" (Fisher & Schumaker, 1995, p. 1). This could include any type of structure (i.e., diagram, words, pictures, etc.) printed on paper to help students organize their thoughts in a way that helps to improve reading comprehension, organization, or writing.

Aesthetic response to literature includes the connections, opinions, feelings, attitudes, etc., about literature a person has heard or has read. This may come in oral,

written, or artistic/dramatic form. For the purpose of this study, the researcher is examining written responses to literature.

At-risk is defined as a student who receives remedial reading and writing support in the researcher's Language Literacy Connection (LLC) classroom. These students may have had an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) for a speech-language disorder, learning disability, or developmental delay, or they may have been receiving Early Intervention Program (EIP) services. Students were eligible for EIP services based on low scores on reading assessments, such as the Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA), the EIP checklist, and scores on the Dynamic Indicators for Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) assessment.

When referring to elements a writer includes in his/her response to literature, the researcher may refer to *efferent* and a*esthetic*. *Efferent* refers to surface-level responses to a book, including a plot summary, factual information, etc. On the other hand, *aesthetic* responses include those more personal to the reader (i.e., feelings, beliefs, opinions, etc.).

The Writing Process

To understand how to better assist students with writing, understanding the writing process is essential. As simple as it may seem to put an idea down on paper, there are numerous cognitive and linguistic processes throughout the various stages and phases that are required to write successfully and effectively (Troia, 2006). From having the capacity to formulate an idea into words or sentences to translating that idea onto paper in a form that is decodable and legible while using appropriate mechanics and style, the demands are great. In reality, many people struggle (Troia, 2006).

Hayes' and Flower's original cognitive model of writing processes included *planning, translating, and revising* (Flower & Hayes, 1981). When this model was revised in 1996, Hayes retained those three basic processes from the original model but included descriptions of cognitive processes with more discussion of context, motivation, affect, and memory (McCutchen, 2006; Vanerberg & Swanson; 2007; Zumbrunn, 2010). In addition, he renamed and/or redefined the three major processes from the original model to *reflection* (which incorporated problem solving, planning, decision making, and inferencing), *text production* (formerly known as *translation*), and included *text interpretation* under *revision* (Hayes, 1996; McCutchen, 2006).

Probably one of the most important changes to the 1996 model by Hayes was the inclusion and importance given to working memory (Vanerberg & Swanson, 2007) to illustrate the connection between the cognitive processes, motivation, and long-term memory (Zumbrunn, 2010).Working memory appears to be an extremely powerful factor that integrates many aspects of the writing process. For example, Hayes (1996) states that "understanding how different writing processes draw on the same limited working memory resources can help us understand how the processes may interfere with each other" (p. 29).

Working memory and long-term memory also play important roles in the process of text production. As working memory resources are used for other tasks, the amount designated for text generation decreases and can affect quality and quantity of the writing (McCutchen, 2006). Likewise, if there is prior knowledge, or schema, about a certain genre or background information for the assigned topic in a student's long-term memory, he or she will be able to produce writing of better quality. Memory resources such as

topic knowledge, working memory, and audience awareness also impact the revision process (McCutchen, 2006). When a writer is familiar with a topic, remembers correct spellings, and has a true understanding of who he or she is writing for, the revisions have been found to be more meaningful (McCutchen, 2006). While there are different theories and opinions regarding the specific role that working memory plays (McCutchen, 2006), it is widely accepted that it does have an important part in the writing process.

In addition to the processes explicitly included in Hayes' and Flower's models, there are various cognitive and linguistic processes important for writing success. For instance, executive functioning, a cognitive process, is important for planning, fluency, strengthening the reading-writing connection, attention, and memory (Berninger, Garcia, & Abbott, 2009). Visual-spatial abilities help to store visual material in active memory and assist when writers are completing tasks such as graphic organizers, copying from the board, or transferring information from a graphic organizer to another sheet. Visual-spatial ability is also important as writers separate ideas into units or paragraphs (Bergninger et al., 2009). These processes are intertwined in a way, each helping to integrate the writing subsystems to create a fluid product. Important linguistic processes include phonological awareness, morphology, syntax, and orthographical awareness (McCutchen, 2006), and they require both long-term and working memory processes to function successfully (Schoonen et al., 2003; Vanderberg & Swanson, 2007).

Because writing is such a complex task, it is important to have cognitive and linguistic processes that work efficiently so that the appropriate process is being utilized at the appropriate time. If a writer has to spend an excessive amount of energy on a particular task or process, taking from another task, the quality of writing is negatively

affected (McCutchen, 2006). Understanding the roles of these processes and being aware of various instructional materials and interventions to use that may alleviate the strain that writing has on these processes is essential for educators working with students with differing learning needs.

The writing process for those with learning problems. Research has repeatedly supported the premise that the writing products of students with learning disabilities (LD) are not as advanced as those without LD (Englert et al., 1991; MacArthur & Graham, 1987; Montague et al., 1990; Newcomer & Barenbaum, 1991; Sundeen, 2007; Troia, 2009), and much of this is attributed to the lack of planning and lack of knowledge about how to plan (Graham & Harris, 1997; Newcomer & Barenbaum, 1991; Sundeen, 2007; Troia, 2009). Specifically, students with LD often exhibit planning techniques that can be described as "knowledge telling" in which they write whatever comes to mind and respond with underdeveloped sentences (Troia & Graham, 2002). In other instances, their lack of planning has been described as an inability to expand or develop a topic. Another phenomenon, known as "retrieve and write," (Sexton, Harris, & Graham, 1998; Troia, Graham, & Harris, 1999) often occurs when students with LD receive a writing assignment. They immediately begin to write, seemingly without any thought of planning. According to Troia (2009), students with LD often include irrelevant information due to memory difficulty or lack of knowledge about text structures for particular genres. The goal, therefore, is to teach students with LD effective planning and organizational strategies to use when writing (Troia et al., 1999), and graphic organizers have been found assist in this process (Gersten & Baker, 2001; Hagaman & Reid, 2008; Joseph & Konrad, 2009; Newcomer & Barenbaum, 1991; Troia, 2009).

Graphic Organizers

For many years, graphic organizers have been found to be successful tools to assist in the literacy instruction of elementary-age students (Collins & Love, 2008; Gersten & Baker, 2001; Graham & Harris, 1997; Griffin, Malone, & Kameenui, 1995; Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, & Wei, 2004; Lorenz, Green, & Brown, 2009; Nesbitt & Adesope, 2006; Reynolds & Perin, 2009; Stull & Mayer, 2007; Troia, 2009). In 1968, Ausubel's "cognitive theory of meaningful reception learning" sparked the development of the "advance organizer" (Nesbit & Adesope, 2006) which later became known as a "structured overview" (Griffin, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1991). The "structured overview" evolved into the "graphic organizer" as it was adapted for pre-reading, during reading, and post reading activities (Merkley & Jeffries, 2000). This theory supported the idea that an individual can only learn a new meaning if it is connected to prior knowledge in some way and that learning is strengthened if the information is organized effectively. Graphic organizers provide the scaffolding needed to assist in this organization (Collins & Love, 2008; Griffin, Malone, & Kameenui, 1995).

Using graphic organizers in the classroom, which incorporate both linguistic and non-iconic modes of learning (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001), is one way teachers can foster active learning, as it is impossible for students to remain passive recipients of information (Collins & Love, 2008). One reason graphic organizers are so beneficial in the classroom is because of their versatility. Fostering students' ability to connect prior knowledge to existing tasks, improving organizational structure, and ultimately, improving comprehension and written expression is a hallmark of these tools (Ylvisaker, Hibbard, & Feeney, 2006).

Mayer (1984) defined reading as having the ability to process and store information and believed graphic organizers may be used to display connections among concepts. Using these, he claimed, allowed readers to better connect new knowledge with prior knowledge (Mayer, 1984). By giving students a way to organize the new information and link it to previously learned information (i.e., with the use of graphic organizers), connections are made, students are better able to store and retrieve information in long-term memory, and the cognitive structure expands, which in turn allows students to learn new content at higher cognitive levels (Collins & Love, 2008, Ylvisaker et al., 2006).

Understanding the role graphic organizers may play in the success of students is important for educators. Graphic organizers help students organize their thoughts, make connections, and alleviate strain on the working memory, thereby freeing up the resources for other tasks, and help students take a more active role in their learning. As a result, students read, comprehend, and write better.

There is a belief that using prepared materials such as graphic organizers may restrict a student's "voice" when he or she composes a response to literature and that using journals, for example, leave the process more "open" for students to express themselves more freely (Many & Wiseman, 1992; Many, Wiseman, & Altieri, 1996). However, this opinion may be based on research which includes primarily regular education students, many of whom are third grade and above (Golden & Gerber, 1990; Hancock, 1993; Many & Wiseman, 1992; Many, et al., 1996). That said, educators should keep in mind that research indicates students with LD and those with learning

problems have difficulty planning, organizing, and writing final products without this type of support (Graham & Harris, 2003; Troia, 2009).

Statement of the Problem

Students of all ages who are in states that have adopted the Common Core Standards will be required to describe the connection between two individuals, events, ideas, or pieces of information in a text in addition to completing written assignments that may include arguments/opinions about a text (Common Core Standards, 2011). Although Sebesta et al. (1995) stated that reader response has been neglected in reading instruction, it is of great importance that teachers receive not only support on how to teach literature but also the most effective methods for encouraging students to respond to literature in meaningful ways.

While research on reader response is not new, the focus has been primarily on children in upper elementary grades (Grades 4 through 6) or older (Applebee, 1977; Goatley & Raphael, 1992; Purves & Beach, 1972; Sipes, 2000), with little attention being given to primary school children prior to the late 1990s (Many, 1991; Wollman-Bonilla &Werchadlo, 1999). Martinez and Roser (1991), stated that while research on elementary school children's response to literature was abundant, a good deal of it, they claim, is in anecdotal format and very little includes children younger than third grade. With an increasing number of special education students served in collaborative classrooms (i.e., regular education and special education students combined) under the instruction of a regular education teacher, the teacher must understand the most effective ways for each student to achieve mastery of the standards he or she is required to learn.

Graphic organizers have been used for many years to assist students with reading comprehension, and empirical evidence suggests that graphic organizers and explicit instruction in the use of graphic organizers can assist in planning, organizing, and writing (Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, & Wei, 2004; Reynolds & Perin, 2009; Stull & Mayer, 2007). Moreover, students of all ages and ability levels have been shown to benefit when these are used. However, research is sparse in the area of graphic organizers with children under third grade, especially those with LD and those considered to be "at risk" for literacy problems (Montague et al., 1990; Saddler & Asaro, 2007). There is little research specifically examining the effects of graphic organizers on the response to literature for these students.

Rationale and Purpose of the Study

Writing is a highly valued skill in our society that many people have difficulty mastering, especially those with learning problems or who are at risk for learning problems (Graham & Harris, 1997; Saddler, 2006; Saddler & Asaro, 2007; Sundeen, 2007; Troia & Graham, 2002). For this reason, many states are requiring writing instruction be incorporated from a very early age (Georgia Department of Education, 2011), and it is vital that educators understand what types of writing instruction work for those with and without disabilities. The use of graphic organizers is an intervention found to be beneficial for those with learning problems in written expression. While research can be found to support the use of graphic organizers in narrative and informational writing, there appears to be gaps in the research regarding the use of graphic organizers to assist very young learners with learning problems in writing responses to literature.

This study intends to show whether or not “Response Buddy,” a graphic organizer used to assist students in writing responses to literature, will impact the quality of written responses to literature among first and second graders considered to be “at risk” for literacy problems. The following research question will be examined: Will the use of “Response Buddy” improve students’ quality of written responses to literature (as measured by inclusion of a title, description of a connection, inclusion of a reason for a connection, and expression of opinion)?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of Chapter 2 is to provide a summary of the theories underlying the use of graphic organizers as well as those pertaining to response to literature and to summarize the history of teaching writing with graphic organizers. Following this summary, a synthesis of empirical studies examining teaching response to literature, with and without the use of graphic organizers, to students in grades K-5 deemed to be at-risk for literacy problems will be provided.

Theoretical Underpinnings

Graphic organizers. There are a multitude of theories underlying the use of graphic organizers to teach writing instruction. In 2003, the Institute for the Advancement of Research in Education (IARE) completed a review of the research on graphic organizers (Lorenz et al., 2009) and discussed three cognitive learning theories they thought provided support for the use of graphic organizers in the classroom: schema theory, the dual coding theory, and cognitive load theory. These three theories are of great importance to the rationale and methodology of the current study.

As cited by Dye (2000), the term schema, representing general knowledge or categories, was first coined by Piaget in 1926. However, it was R. C. Anderson who, in 1977, developed the schema theory and argued that preexisting knowledge must be linked to new information (Anderson, 1984; Dye, 2000). Schema is defined as the way people make sense of new information by making it "fit" into preexisting categories or fit

with what they already know (i.e., prior knowledge) (Plass, Moreno, & Brunken, 2010). While later theorists and researchers have expanded on his theory, Anderson's primary principles included the belief that comprehension occurs when connections are made between prior knowledge and new information (Alvermann & Boothby, 1986; Darch, Carnine, & Kameenui, 1986; Horton, Lovitt, & Bergerud, 1990). Therefore, the richer a child's background knowledge and experiences, the greater the potential for more connections and thus, more learning. Schema theory plays an important role in the current study because children's responses to literature rely heavily on their prior knowledge and experiences to make connections to the new text and characters exemplified in the text. By giving students a way to organize the new information and link it to previously learned information (i.e., with the use of graphic organizers, for example), connections are made, students are better able to store and retrieve information in long-term memory, and the cognitive structure expands, which in turn allows students to learn new content at higher cognitive levels (Collins & Love, 2008, Ylvisaker et al., 2006).

The dual coding theory, developed by Paivio in 1971 (Clark & Paivio, 1991), also plays an important role not only in the support of graphic organizers, but for the current study as well. The dual coding theory suggests that people code information in verbal and nonverbal ways and the "collective action of nonverbal and verbal mental systems that are specialized for the processing of imagery and linguistic information, respectively" (Clark & Paivio, 1991, p. 150). Simply put, the connections between these systems allow people to link words to images or pictures so that learning and remembering can take

place more easily, especially important when working with abstract information or concepts.

Clark and Paivio (1991) found that when instructions are linked to images, reports of imagery are increased. The superiority of concrete graphic organizers over those that are more abstract has also been documented (Clark & Paivio, 1991). Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that linking sentence prompts to parts of a visual image (i.e., the body parts of "Response Buddy") would help improve students' learning and memory of the steps and process of writing a response to literature, as learning and remembering have been found to involve the same associative processes (Clark & Paivio, 1991). "Response Buddy" (i.e., the graphic organizer used for the purpose of this study) is a concrete image (i.e., cartoon-style outline of a person), and the prompts are associated with the body parts to which they are pointing (see Appendix A). The researcher hopes when students are reading or listening to a story, they will imagine the graphic organizer and, in turn, eventually be able to remember and reflect on the prompts as they are reading or listening to a story in the future. Over time, the goal would be that the students would internalize some of the important aspects of a written response to literature but make each response his or her own (i.e., using a variety of sentences, changing the order, increasing the complexity of both structure and thought).

Sweller's (1988) cognitive load is yet another theory that supports the use of graphic organizers. The cognitive load theory maintains that our working memory has a maximum capacity of information that can be processed at one time and that learning cannot take place if this amount is exceeded. Sweller (1994) stated that controlled processing occurs when "the information at hand is consciously attended to" (p. 297) and

any activity which requires deliberate thought is being processed in this controlled manner. It would make sense then, that a student reading a book or actively listening to a story is using a process that may be needed later for writing a response to literature, answering questions, etc. We know that writing involves multiple processes (i.e., forming sentences, spelling, handwriting, etc.) as well as thinking about the instructional objective and type of genre required. Using graphic organizers to help simplify this process (i.e., by providing visual cues, prompts, organizational structure and order, etc.) can assist students in writing, thereby freeing up resources needed to learn new information (Lee & Tan, 2010).

Response to literature. Children's response to literature has been a popular topic in research, especially since the late 1970s (Sipe, 1999). Research in this area has evolved from focus on the reader, to the interaction of reader and text, to that which focuses more on the cultural and social context in which children read literature (Galda & Beach, 2001; Rogers, 1999). Responses to literature begin when young readers orally respond to questions such as, "Did you like the story?" and progress to written responses which require the reader to make connections with the text, the world, and experiences surrounding him or her (Rogers, 1999).

Rogers (1999) gives a general timeline, in a sense, of the evolution and pedagogical shift surrounding theories and practices of response to literature. In the 1930s, Louise Rosenblatt saw reading as an interaction between the reader and the text. To her, reading involved the reader actively participating in the process. By doing this, Rosenblatt suggested, the reader brings with him or her experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions. Rosenblatt was also instrumental in the paradigm shift that occurred in

the 1960s and 1970s in regards to literature instruction. In the 1960s and '70s, the focus was on how opinions and feelings about a text originated in student readers and countered New Criticism.

Rosenblatt believed reading to be a dynamic process and sought to demonstrate how the reader was an integral, interactive part of the text through his/her response to it (Church, 1997). Her most instrumental theories included the Reader-Response Theory (1938) and the Transactional Theory (1969). The Reader-Response Theory is more of what the reader brings to the text, such as a person's history, experience, attitude, perception, etc. The text and the reader have a reciprocal effect on one another (Church, 1997). The Transactional Theory seems to take the Reader-Response theory and step further and suggests that the "transaction" between the reader and text is one that is unique at a unique point and time with a unique set of circumstances (Rosenblatt, 1978). According to these theories, each reader brings his/her own experiences, perspectives, and understanding (Purves & Beach, 1972; Beach & Hynds, 1991) rather than simply absorbing information (Sipe, 1999).

Other researchers, such as Bleich, Fish, and Iser agreed that there was an interaction between text and the reader (Bleich, 2001) and that reading a text was a dyadic interaction between the text and the reader (Fish, 1980; Iser, 1978). While they continued to look at individual readers, they also began to emphasize the bridge between prior knowledge and new knowledge gained from texts, thereby thinking about how a reader's schema could help him/her connect, learn, and remember information (Rogers, 1999). Specifically, Fish's belief gave the activities and responsibilities of the reader more prominence and challenged the "self-sufficiency" of the text (Fish, 1980, p. 4)

while Iser saw the text as a "living organism" that was the means of communicating something that was to be interpreted with the reader's involvement (Iser, 1978).

These studies, according to Rogers (1999), became not only a catalyst for, but a reflection of, the shift toward child-centered classrooms and the reintroduction of quality literature rather than reading from basal readers only. In the 1990s, literary response researchers focused on more than the response being a transaction between texts and readers (as Rosenblatt had done). They also took into account identities, perceptions, and beliefs that are influenced by the reader's culture and history (Galda & Beach, 2001). Now, less attention is being paid to the authors and their intentions. Instead, the focus is more on the readers' interpretations and the reason for these interpretations (Sipe, 1999; Sipe, 2000). Despite discussion and new ideas pertinent to this field, Rosenblatt's theory of reader response continues to play an important role in how researchers and theorists approach the process today.

History of Literacy Instruction

History of using graphic organizers with students at-risk for learning problems. Research has shown that students with LD do not typically plan their compositions effectively, but that they can be effectively taught to use helpful strategies (Saddler, 2006; Saddler & Asaro, 2007; Sundeen, 2007; Troia & Graham, 2002;). Graham and Harris (1997) reflected on two myths about writing, one of which is that "good writing cannot be taught" (p. 414). According to Graham and Harris, effective writing stems from: a) knowledge of writing and writing topics; b) skills for producing and crafting text; c) processes for energizing and directing thoughts and actions; and d) cognitive and metacognitive procedures for achieving writing goals and overcoming

barriers. Success resulted when researchers emphasized skills such as planning, development, and self-regulation (Graham & Harris, 1997). In 1999, a meta-analysis by Gersten, Baker, and Edwards found that 3 factors- adhering to a basic framework of planning, writing, and revision; explicitly teaching critical steps in the writing process; and providing feedback guided by the information explicitly taught- consistently led to improved outcomes when teaching writing to students with LD.

Troia (2009) reported that students with LD wrote better quality papers when explicitly taught planning strategies such as brainstorming, generating, and organizing content with text structure prompts (i.e., a type of graphic organizer) prior to writing, and stated that using graphic organizers to produce and sequence ideas was an integral part of a comprehensive writing program for poor writers. However, Troia (2009) summarized that it wasn't simply providing a graphic organizer to a student with LD that improved the quality of writing, but rather *how* the student was taught to use it.

In the 2001 review of graphic organizer instruction by Gersten and Baker, the authors reviewed several important purposes of graphic organizers, otherwise known as "think sheets" in several studies examined. Among those purposes were to provide the students with a structure to complete critical steps, provide guidance if the students began to feel overwhelmed, and to provide a common language for teachers and students. According to Troia (2009), students with LD often include irrelevant information, due to memory difficulty or lack of knowledge about text structures for particular genres, but that perhaps consistently providing graphic organizers specific for different genres would alleviate some of these problems. Giving text frames to students with LD in the planning

process has been shown to help not only retrieve content, but to help increase the length, organization, and overall quality of papers (Troia, 2009).

In regards to explicitly teaching critical steps, Gersten et al. (1999) found that various text structures and their characteristics should be taught explicitly. The researchers argued that different essays such as narrative, informational, persuasive, response to literature, etc., included very different components and should be taught accordingly. With frequent feedback and a common "language" between students and teachers, Gersten et al. (1999) found that teachers could better ensure students' completion of tasks with accuracy and clarity. Knowing this, it begs the question if a graphic organizer designed for each type of genre in which consistent language was used would help to foster writing success among students.

Review of Empirical Studies

A review of empirical studies examining teaching response to literature with and without the use of graphic organizers to students in grades K-5 deemed to be at-risk for literacy problems is included in the next section. The methods used to search for studies, brief description of the studies meeting the criteria, and discussion of the findings are all included.

Methods. Firstly, a computerized search of the PsychINFO, Academic Search Complete, Education Research Complete, Dissertation Abstracts International Wilson Web, and ERIC databases was conducted on each of the areas listed above. When relevant articles were found, ancestry and descendant searches were completed. Bibliographies from several literature reviews and meta-analyses that addressed graphic organizers and response to literature were also searched. In addition, to ensure that an

exhaustive search was conducted, assistance from an Education Instruction and Reference Librarian at the University of Georgia was solicited.

The following keywords were used in various combinations to search for relevant articles: *writing, writing instruction, learning disabilities, significant developmental delay, graphic organizers, concept maps, elementary, primary, semantic webbing, think sheets, planning sheets, Thinking Maps, special education, kindergarten, first grade, second grade, third grade, and fourth grade, fifth grade, intervention, response to literature, graphic organizer*, read* response, learning disab*, at risk, learning problem**. Ancestry and descendent searches were conducted on all relevant research articles.

Instruction in response to literature research among young children. When reviewing studies focusing on using graphic organizers to assist in teaching response to literature and young children (grades K-5), it was apparent that perhaps the search terms were too narrow. Therefore, several studies in response to literature instruction and young children were reviewed. However, there were few studies with students in these grades. Regardless, some fairly consistent themes emerged. For example, no studies used a single-subject design. In addition, researchers collected and analyzed primarily qualitative data, as reader response is typically qualitative in nature. Several of the studies categorized responses given by the students (e.g., Akrofi, Janisch, Button, 2010 & Hancock, 1993); others determined the types of connections made (e.g., Pantaelo, 2004), while others determined where responses fell in the hierarchy of aesthetic responses (Sebesta, Monson, & Senn, 1995). Finally, most of the studies involving students in grades 3 and below included oral, not written, responses (Martinez-Roldan & Lopez-

Robertson, 2000; Pantaleo, 2004) or did not include the use of a graphic organizer (Kelly, 1990). This was not a huge surprise as others have cited this problem in the past. For example, Sipe (2000) stated the majority of research on response to literature had been conducted primarily with children in the upper elementary grades (Grades 4 through 6) or older, with little attention being given to primary school children (Many, 1991; Wollman-Bonilla & Werchadlo, 1999).

Golden and Gerber (1990) conducted a study with Native American second graders. The researchers looked at symbols represented in picture books and how the adult-student-text interaction influenced the interpretation of a picture book. The authors discussed the importance of paying attention not only to the words when reading picture books, but to paying close attention and calling attention to the symbols and signs represented in the illustrations that the author wishes to convey to his or her readers. They found that when different adults read picture books aloud, they may accentuate different parts of the story including certain elements of the plot, character traits, etc. Because of this, the researchers asserted that teachers should be mindful of how adult interactions with the text and what emphasis they place on certain elements may affect the children's responses to literature.

Many and Wiseman (1992) conducted a study with third graders to determine which type of intervention (i.e., literary analysis, literary experience, or no discussion) had any effect on the students' responses to literature. Many and Wiseman (1992) discovered that those in the literary experience group were more likely to include aesthetic responses, while the other two groups' responses seemed to be more of an efferent nature (Many & Wiseman, 1992).

In 1996, Many, Wiseman, and Altieri sought to determine the influence of one of five different approaches on the written response to literature of third graders. Teachers read books aloud to the students, and then the books were discussed in a whole group setting. Following the whole group discussion, students were divided into randomly assigned groups with one of five conditions: a) student-controlled with free written response, b) aesthetic experience with free written response, c) aesthetic experience with written response following aesthetic probe, d) aesthetic experience/analysis with free written response, and e) aesthetic experience/analysis with written response following aesthetic/analysis probe. Researchers found those in the student-controlled group were less likely to include aesthetic responses while those who participated in the aesthetic and aesthetic/analysis groups did include aesthetic responses with approximately the same frequency. A difference was found, however, with the aesthetic/free response and aesthetic/analysis with free response and those conditions with responses following probes. Those who received probes were less likely to write from an aesthetic stance.

Wollman-Bonilla and Werchadlo (1999) conducted a study with 24 first graders to examine the teacher's role in modeling instruction, scaffolding, and feedback to help the student write meaningful responses to literature. The teacher used mini lessons to help children understand what was expected in their writing by modeling, giving ideas, and providing open-ended questions to encourage reflective thinking. Researchers discovered that the children's responses could be divided into two categories: text-centered and reader-centered, and that the responses were almost equally divided. In addition, predictions and simple personal reactions were the most common types of responses during the early journal writings, and researchers found the later journal

writings were almost twice as long as the initial ones. Wollman-Bonilla and Werchadlo (1999) concluded that simply giving a journal writing opportunity may not be sufficient for some students, especially in the early grades. This study differed from the earlier Wollman-Bonilla and Werchadlo (1995) study because it included systematic scaffolding, which was not part of the 1995 study. In addition, the researchers reported that this study was an example of seeing Vygotsky's "zone of proximal development" coming into play.

Response to literature and students with special learning needs. In addition to reviewing quantitative studies that examined response to literature instruction with young children, research involving response to literature and young children with special learning needs was reviewed. Again, the results demonstrated that most studies fitting this criterion involved group designs, qualitative data, and mostly oral responses with students in the early primary grades.

Sipe (2000) conducted a study of 18 first and 9 second graders, 9 of whom participated in "remedial pull out programs." Books were read aloud to the children and were from different genres including: a) fairy and folk tales, b) contemporary realistic fiction, and c) contemporary fantasies. Students provided oral responses from three different situations: a) whole group discussion, b) small group, and c) one-on-one. Using the responses collected, categories were derived into the following: a) textual analysis, b) intertextual connection, c) personal connection, d) becoming engaged in the story so that boundaries between story and child's world were transparent to each other, and e) using the text as a platform or pretext for creative expression (Sipe, 2000). Based on the results of this study, Sipe (2000) argued against the notion that first graders were

not ready to produce insightful comments and connections in their responses to literature as he found that in fact they were capable of providing meaningful connections and responses.

An interesting study conducted by Wolf et al. (1996) was done as part of a college course. The student teachers were required to collect responses from kindergarten students (including one student diagnosed with a learning disability) after hearing a story. Throughout the semester, the student teachers journaled about the experience, noting not only the change in student responses, but in their perceptions of the kindergarteners. Interestingly, student teachers realized the disservice they were providing the young students when they simply asked them to regurgitate what they had heard. They found that their questions and prompts had actually been limiting the answers the kindergarteners gave. As the student teachers began to realize this and change the types of questions they asked, they found those students, even at a very young age, were capable of talking about text and its connection to their lives.

Another revelation the student teachers had was responses to literature evolve not through what children say about literature, but what they do with it (Wolf et al., 1996). These findings are consistent with the idea that teachers should provide a balance for their students by asking comprehension-type questions and by also encouraging the evaluation, connection, prediction, and questioning of the text at hand (Sebesta et al., 1995). Wolf et al.'s (1996) study included a child who had been diagnosed with LD. Although the researchers noted his difficulty with decoding, they commented that he was able to make various types of connections. Discussion from the researchers included the understanding that even students with special learning needs should be given the

opportunity to make extended connections and not be stifled by efferent response-inducing prompts (Wolf et al., 1996).

Graphic Organizers, Response to Literature, and At-Risk Students

The final part of this review is intended to summarize research conducted with at-risk students in grades K-5 using a graphic organizer to assist them in writing responses to literature. One study matched these criteria. Goatley and Raphael (1992) completed a study in which the participants were students in grades 3-5, all diagnosed as either LD or Educable Mentally Impaired (EMI). The researchers used the Book Club program (Raphael et al., 1992) as the intervention. They stated, “through the use of reading logs and think sheets, the students had time to think about questions, ideas, and the content of the story they wanted to discuss” (Goatley & Raphael, 1992, p. 24). It encompassed reading, writing (including the use of think sheets, drawing, and mapping), student-led discussion, and instruction on what and how to share responses with peers.

Specifically, the think sheets were used to help stimulate different responses such as critiques, compare/contrast, and summarizing. These were used in addition to the maps, or graphic organizers that the students were taught to make during the intervention phase to help organize their thoughts and writing. The researchers noted, during baseline, the students had a difficult time transferring their oral thoughts to written form. Thus, they were taught how to transfer this information to their papers. In addition, students were taught how to create their own graphic organizers (i.e., draw picture and write brief sentences to help them sequence the events of the story). Using the Book Club program intervention, researchers found students were able to answer each other’s questions more appropriately. Goatley and Raphael (1992) concluded students with special learning

needs could benefit from literature-based discussions that were beyond just text-related but included personal, more aesthetic components as well. The researchers also found through the use of the reading logs and think sheets, students had time to think about questions, ideas, and content of the story they wanted to discuss.

Discussion

The limited number of studies meeting the criteria for this review of literature was initially astounding. Knowing the difficulties that students of this age who are at risk for literacy problems have with writing, the value placed on responses to literature, and the effectiveness of graphic organizers on the writing success of this population, it was surprising that there were such few studies, and that the most current one matching the criteria of the review was over 10 years old. However, reviewing past syntheses of research shows this has been somewhat of a problem for years. For example, in their meta-analysis, Nesbit and Adesope (2006) reported there were an estimated 500 articles on the effects and use of graphic organizers in the classroom. However, these studies included students no younger than fourth grade and, although their summary reported that those with lower ability showed greater benefits than those with higher ability, most of their studies included regular education students only.

In Applebee's (1977) review of research focusing on response to literature, only 4 of the 30 studies reviewed included students ages 9 and under. Out of those four studies, only two used this age group exclusively; the other two combined the younger ages with students who were older. In addition, not one of those four studies included a written form of literature response; all involved oral responses except for one study, which stated the mode of response was categorizing the questions that accompanied the basal reader

(Applebee, 1977). This supports other arguments that response to literature has often focused primarily on oral responses, not written (Golden & Gerber, 1990; Wolf et al., 1996; Sipe, 2000), and the majority of the students have been regular education students in grades 5 or older (Cochran-Smith, 1984; Wolf et al., 1996).

In 1972, Purves and Beach reported research in the area of response to literature had focused too much on the mainstream classroom and not on differences such as age, sex, or reading ability. In addition, they stated that researchers had "barely begun" to examine response to literature in regards to different ethnic and cultural groups, or those who differed in intellectual ability (Purves & Beach, 1972). Unfortunately, this trend has remained steady since then.

In summary, there is a lack of quantitative research examining the use of graphic organizers to assist young students when writing a response to literature. Perhaps this is because assessing response to literature is difficult to implement in a quantitative way. Few studies included written responses for students in grades 3 and below, and there was only one study which incorporated the use of graphic organizers into response to literature instruction with students with special needs. In addition, no studies using a single subject design were found. The current study described in the following section will help to fill this gap.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the procedures and methodology used in this study. A description of the participants and setting is given first, followed by a description of the materials used, the research design implemented, scoring procedures, reliability/fidelity measures, and a description of how social validity was measured.

Participants

Ten children were initially included in the study (i.e., five first grade students and five second grade students), though only nine completed it (i.e., five first graders and four second graders). When shown "Response Buddy" on the first day of intervention, one student remarked, "Hey! My teacher did this with us last year!" The student, who had been retained in second grade, had not been in the researcher's classroom prior to the present school year. However, he had been in the classroom of a teacher who had asked for a copy of "Response Buddy" to use with her students. Instead of participating in the full study, the researcher treated him as she did her students from the previous school year who had already been exposed to "Response Buddy." Without instruction or reminders on how to use the graphic organizer, she read him a story and had him try and remember what he could about using "Response Buddy" independently. His results are discussed in Chapter Five.

Three students had an Individualized Education Plan (IEP) and were eligible for services provided by the speech-language pathologist (i.e., the researcher) under the

category of Speech Impaired (SI). Pseudonyms were used to protect the students' confidentiality. Prerequisites for participation in the study included the students' ability to a) write beginning, middle, and ending sounds, and b) write with handwriting and spacing that made his/her print legible to the researcher and other scorers. All participants were enrolled in the Language Literacy Connection (LLC) classroom where the researcher was a co-teacher and also the school's speech-language pathologist. Students in this reading/language arts classroom were considered to be at risk for literacy problems, with priority for enrollment in this classroom given to those with an IEP with a primary or secondary disability diagnosis of speech impairment that the committee has determined could be detrimental to their reading/writing achievement. Spots that were not filled were reserved for those students who had the lowest *Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA)* and *Dynamic Indicators for Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS)* and were eligible for the Early Intervention Program (EIP). Table 1 provides demographic information of the participants.

The LLC classroom began during the 2008-2009 school year at the initiative of both the researcher and co-teacher. The researcher had been working as the school's speech-language pathologist since January 2003, and the co-teacher, a general education teacher, had been teaching at the current school for 14 years, with 20 years total. Both teachers had earned Master's degrees. The speech-language pathologist (also the researcher) and the general education teacher co-taught the LLC classroom four days a week. The speech-language pathologist did not work on Fridays; therefore, students were instructed by the general education teacher only on those days. First grade students were served in this setting for 2 hours per day (i.e., 8:30-10:30 AM), while the second graders

were served for 2 hours and 20 minutes during the Reading/Language Arts block (11:10-12:10 then 12:50-2:20). Approximately 30 minutes each day, for each grade, were spent in the school's computer lab, where the students used the reading intervention computer program, *Fast ForWord®*. At the time of the study, 16 students were enrolled in the first grade classroom, and 15 students were enrolled in the second grade classroom.

One exclusionary factor for this study was the students could not have been in the LLC classroom during the 2010-2011 school year, as they would have already been exposed to "Response Buddy." Attendance records were also taken into consideration. If a child had missed more than 10 days of school during the 2011-2012 school year, they were not eligible to participate in the study. Table 1 presents demographic and descriptive information for each student. Data were collected from February 2012 to May 2012.

First grade students.

Callie. Callie was 6 years, 9 months at the time of the study and had been receiving services for SI since November 2010. At that time, the speech-language pathologist reported that Callie exhibited a phonological disorder characterized by the use of multiple phonological processes, thereby affecting the intelligibility of her speech, though most of those errors had been corrected by the time the study began. Language and IQ scores were all within normal limits. At the time of the study, Callie was on grade level for Reading, Writing, and Language Arts. Although Callie's writing had improved tremendously during the current school year, she exhibited incorrect subject-verb agreement at times as well as spelling errors characterized by erroneous vowel patterns, incorrect letter sequencing in words (e.g., fetl/felt), and missing letters (e.g.,

fouth/fourth). When independently writing narratives, Callie was able to maintain the topic, though she still needed reminders to add more detail. Considered to be a conscientious, motivated student, Callie was a quiet, attentive little girl who never exhibited any behavior problems at school and was well liked by her peers. She seemed to enjoy and benefit from using various types of graphic organizers to help plan and organize her writing.

Dennis. Dennis was 6 years, 8 months at the time of the study. He was eligible to receive EIP services based on his DRA level at the end of his kindergarten year. At the time of the study, Dennis was on grade level for Reading, Writing, and Language Arts. While sentence structure was a relative strength, he also demonstrated spelling errors that were phonological in nature (e.g., murarsicl/motorcycle, vedo/video). In addition, he needed consistent reminders to add detail in his writing, as his sentences were often very monotonous and predictable, including very few adjectives. Much like Callie, Dennis was seen as a quiet, conscientious student. He was considered to be a sensitive child and hated to disappoint his teachers. Dennis worked diligently during instruction each day and was very motivated and attentive during class. He also seemed to benefit from using graphic organizers in class when composing his writing samples.

Allison. Allison was 6 years, 6 months at the time of the study. She had been receiving services from the speech-language pathologist since 2009 for a phonological disorder. Similar to Callie, Allison's speech intelligibility in kindergarten was impaired because of the multiple phonological processes she used in her speech, though most speech errors had been remediated by the time the study began. Because of her weak development of phonological skills, the initial IEP committee stated concern for the

future development of early literacy skills. During her evaluation, her language and cognition were all deemed to be within normal limits. At the time of the study, Allison was on grade level for Reading, Writing, and Language Arts. Allison was well liked by peers and seemed to enjoy school. She was motivated to learn; however, at the time of the study, she still had great difficulty remembering sounds for common vowel patterns and diphthongs. Allison's phonological errors continued to be demonstrated in her writing samples (e.g., frans/friends). She also demonstrated orthographic errors (e.g. waier/wear, uv/of) despite the fact that a writing resource sheet was available in the classroom for students to use to spell common words. Letter reversals were also seen (e.g., primarily d/b, b/d, and a backwards "j"). Though she enjoyed writing and could maintain topic and include details, Allison often omitted punctuation and capital letters. Like Callie and Dennis, graphic organizers have made a positive impact on the organization of Allison's writing.

Garrett. Garrett was 7 years, 4 months at the time the study began. His mother reported that he was a "late talker," having mastered only about five words by the time he was two years old. He received both speech therapy and occupational therapy (for "transition issues") through Babies Can't Wait and began receiving school services for SI in May of 2011. He then transferred to the present school at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year. His initial eligibility report stated that Garrett had poor speech intelligibility in conversation. In addition to articulation concerns, however, his teachers reported that Garrett has difficulty with auditory memory involving language-based activities (i.e., story recall, answering questions, etc.). To assess auditory language and processing skills, Garrett was given the *Test of Auditory Perception* (*TAPS*). Garrett

received a score that was two standard deviations (SD) below the mean in Auditory Number Memory Forward, Auditory Sequencing Memory, and Auditory Word Memory, indicating that these areas were significantly difficult for him. In addition, he scored slightly more than one standard deviation below the mean in the area of Auditory Interpretation of Directions. This score signified difficulty in this area as well. It was stated on his initial eligibility report that "auditory perception deficits are impacting his ability to make connections between material previously presented and current activities." Garrett's current teachers reported that he loses focus and attention at times, although it is more apparent in Reading than in Math. He was not on medication for attention problems. His homeroom teacher and reading teachers stated that Garrett often had a hard time following auditory directions, was very easily distracted, and often appeared to daydream when working independently. At the time of the study, Garrett was on grade level for all subjects. However, at the end of the third nine weeks, he was not on grade level for Reading. The expected level for that point was a *DRA* score of 12, and Garrett had only passed a Level 8. A friendly child, who appeared to enjoy school, Garrett worked hard though focusing is sometimes difficult for him. Though Garrett often had a difficult time getting started with a writing assignment, his thoughts and the content of his writing were often very advanced. He worked well with graphic organizers to help him plan and organize his writing, though his handwriting and letter formation continued to be areas of concern and instruction.

Cameron. Cameron was 6 years, 11 months when the study began. He tended to be very anxious with people and situations with which he was not familiar. Because of Cameron's academic struggles, immaturity, and anxiety, his kindergarten teacher and

administrators had suggested that Cameron repeat kindergarten; however, his parents were insistent that he proceed to first grade at the end of the 2010-2011 school year. He was eligible for EIP services based on his DRA and DIBELS scores at the end of kindergarten. Though Cameron's progress was slow, he seemed to progress at an acceptable pace once some of his anxiety waned. At the time the study began, Cameron was on grade level for Writing, Reading, and Language Arts. Letter reversals, phonological errors (hade/had, wock/woke) and orthographic errors (e.g., beckuse/because) were all seen in his writing. He appeared to be very nervous about his writing and did not seem to enjoy it. During independent writing, it often took him a long time to get started, especially if no graphic organizer was provided. Like most of the students in the LLC classroom, Cameron seemed to enjoy and benefit from using graphic organizers during writing instruction.

Second Grade Students.

April. April was 8 years, 7 months at the time the study began. April was an attentive listener and displayed an optimal level of task persistence for most academic tasks. She was on grade level for Reading, Writing, and Language Arts at the time the study began. Though April's writing had improved tremendously during the 2011-2012 school year, especially with the use of graphic organizers, she often had a difficult time using mechanics and correct subject-verb agreement appropriately and consistently during her writing. April had difficult time writing independently when graphic organizers were not used, especially when narrative writing was the target. Her writing did not tell a story; rather, she would simply provide detail about a topic. April seemed to crave adult attention and approval, constantly presenting her work to the teachers, asking

to read to them, etc. She was eligible to receive EIP services in Reading based on her DRA scores from first grade. Reading and writing appear to be tasks that April enjoys, and she often opts to go to the "Work on Writing" station to write in her journal when given a choice.

Mary. Also 8 years, 7 months, Mary had mastered skills for Reading and Writing, but not Language Arts (specifically quotation marks), at the time the study began. Much like April, Mary frequently sought adult attention and acceptance. Seemingly unsure of herself, Mary often asked questions repeatedly or stated, "I don't know how to do this," or "I don't know how to spell this," or ask, "Is this right?" or "Did I do this right?" rather than use the resources available in the classroom. During class work, Mary often had difficulty putting a skill (i.e., quotation marks, plurals, etc.) into practice once she had mastered it in isolation. She was eligible to receive EIP services in Reading based on her DRA score at the end of the 2010-2011 school year. In her writing, orthographic errors were often seen (e.g., hade/had, whent/went) were seen. She was also inconsistent when using appropriate conventions of writing (i.e., capital letters and punctuation). Mary was a very social child who displayed good manners and appropriate interactions with both peers and adults. She, too, appeared to benefit from using graphic organizers to organize and plan her writing. Mary often brought in examples of writing she had completed at home in which she had created her own graphic organizers similar to those used in class. While she often maintained the topic in her writing, she needed reminders to add details to her story. At the time of the study, Mary was on medication for Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD).

Ashley. Ashley was 8 years, 2 months at the time the study began. Ashley was an outgoing, often outspoken student, who was often very distractible. She required frequent redirection to complete assignments and would frequently interrupt the teacher during whole group time. She was eligible to receive EIP services in Reading based on DRA score at the end of the 2010-2011 school year. Ashley could be considered quietly defiant at times by simply doing things that the teacher had told her not to do, or continuing an activity when a teacher had asked her to stop. In addition, she exhibited some avoidance behaviors (e.g., frequently claiming to be sick, needing to go to the restroom, repeatedly asking the same question, etc.).

Although on grade level for Reading, Writing, and Language Arts at the time the study began, Ashley did not always pass a skill when initially tested; often re-teaching was required. Multiple errors were exhibited in Ashley's writing (e.g., When writing a sentence about a recent field trip, Ashley intended to write, "We went to the Chop House in October. First I ate chicken. I like chicken." Instead, she wrote "We what to the Chop House at October. First, I aet chien. I like chien"). Appropriate writing conventions, specifically capitalization and punctuation, were not always used, and her use of past tense verbs as well as subject-verb agreement were areas of weakness. Though graphic organizers were helpful for Ashley, the transfer of information from graphic organizer to lined paper was sometimes incorrect or incomplete. In addition, it would often take her a significantly longer amount of time to complete her work than it did her peers.

George. At the time the study began, George was 7 years, 10 months. Also on grade level for Reading, Writing, and Language Arts, George often required re-teaching

before mastering a skill. He was eligible for EIP services in Reading based on his DRA score at the end of the 2010-2011 school year. He would often appear overwhelmed and somewhat emotional if he felt that too much information was given at one time or he could not remember the instructions or steps to completion. Even into the fourth nine weeks of school, George continued to exhibit multiple spelling errors (i.e., particularly in regards to long vowel patterns) and incorrect subject-verb agreement in his writing, and the use of descriptive language in his writing was minimal. When writing independently, his writing was organized; however, he needed reminders to use details and closing sentences. He showed tremendous progress in the planning and organization of his writing when graphic organizers were used during classroom writing instruction.

In summary, though the majority of students participating in the study were on grade level in the areas of Reading, Writing, and Language Arts, they were (or had been at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year) considered to be at-risk for literacy problems either because of a speech disorder with weaknesses in the area of phonology, low *DRA* scores, or low *DIBELS* scores. Often, these students required that skills and objectives be retaught, often in small groups or 1:1 with a teacher. All of them were students in the LLC classroom during the 2011-2012 year, and none had been exposed to "Response Buddy" prior to that time.

Written parent permission (see Appendix B) and student assent forms (see Appendix C) were obtained prior to beginning the study. In addition, permission to conduct the study was granted by the principal of the school, assistant superintendent of the school system, and the University of Georgia's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Research Involving Human Subjects. To help control threats to internal validity, the

researcher (a teacher in the school where the study took place) sought and received approval from the principal to teach the Response to Literature unit to her first and second grade students during the third semester (i.e., this unit is typically taught during the fourth/last semester of school).

Settings and Arrangements

The study began during the third semester (i.e., February) in a rural primary school in Georgia which encompassed four Pre-K classrooms, as well as kindergarten-second grades. The school was eligible to receive Title I and Title II funding. The intervention took place in the researcher's classroom, which was approximately 30 feet x 20 feet. Included in the room were two teacher tables and two teacher laptops, a Smartboard, a student writing table, 2 student computers, numerous bookshelves with over 1000 books, and book boxes for each student with books on his or her independent reading level. Instead of student desks, there were pillows, beanbags, and rugs situated throughout the various literacy "stations" constructed throughout the room. The teachers used the Daily 5 framework during their typical instructional day. This framework suggests incorporating: Work on Writing, Read to Self, Listening to Reading, and Word Work (Boushey & Moser, 2006); therefore, their classroom reflected these various components. (See Appendix D for a diagram of the classroom). While teachers worked in small groups with students, the other students in the room were consistently and independently engaged in other independent activities. These activities related to The Daily 5 ™ structure (Boushey & Moser, 2006) used in the classroom, including Reading to Self, Reading to Someone, Word Work, Listening to Reading, and Work on Writing.

Materials

A number of materials were needed for this study. It is clarified in the Procedures section when these materials were used:

- magazines, newspapers, books, poems, pencils, shoe, etc., to use when researcher was discussing what was/was not text or literature;
- books for each session (See Appendix E for specific books in order of their presentation per session);
- copies of scripts/checklists for all conditions for both researcher and observer (See Appendix F);
- copies of checklists for criterion variables for all data collectors (See Appendix G);
- pencils;
- lined paper;
- clipboards;
- timer;
- scanner or copier; and
- multiple copies of "Response Buddy" graphic organizer for each subject (See Appendix A)

The "Response Buddy" graphic organizer was developed by the researcher and co-teacher in 2009 and revised in 2010. Knowing that research supports the use of graphic organizers in the writing process for at-risk learners and the success their students had experienced with the use of graphic organizers when writing other genres prompted the development of "Response Buddy." Ylvisaker et al. (2006) summarized three

important principles for creating and determining the effectiveness of graphic organizers: a) the organization of the organizer must match what is to be organized; b) the organizer should be as simple as possible; c) the organizer should be as concrete as necessary. The "Response Buddy" graphic organizer was developed based on these principles.

Design

A multiple probe design across participants was used to determine the effects the "Response Buddy" graphic organizer might have on the written responses to literature of those at-risk for literacy problems. Specifically, dependent variables were: a) the inclusion of/reference to the title of the book; b) inclusion of a connection made; c) inclusion of the reason for the connection; and d) inclusion of the student's opinion of the book.

In single subject research, there are common threats to internal validity. History threat is one example. To try and help alleviate this, the researcher asked for and was given permission to teach the response to literature unit to the subjects a semester early (i.e., normally it is taught in the fourth semester). Because of this, students' exposure to other students' responses to literature hanging in the halls, etc., was minimal to non-existent.

In addition, the researcher quietly worked with the students 1:1 at her table as they began intervention. The participants' completed Response Buddies and writing samples were stored in the researcher's personal binder, away from the student mailboxes where other students might see them. In order to help control for instrumentation threats, the researcher trained her co-teacher, a parent volunteer, and a graduate student on what to look for when assessing the writing samples. Interrater reliability was monitored.

Adaptation is naturally controlled for in this study as the researcher is also the co-teacher. The students are familiar with her and with the procedure of working 1:1 with the teacher at her table for writing instruction. To control for maturation, the researcher limited the frequency of the probes given. Covariation was not an issue as students were kept apart and were unable to overhear the intervention being conducted at the researcher's table.

The multiple probe design demonstrates experimental control if the researcher can show an increase in level and trend across all participants once intervention has been introduced (and not before). In addition, conducting the study across two grade levels provided valuable information regarding the effectiveness of the "Response Buddy" graphic organizer in regards to various types of learners and learning needs. Collecting, graphing, and analyzing data regularly to monitor students' progress enabled the researcher to be prepared to begin intervention with the next student as soon as possible.

Procedures

Overview. The researcher implemented all phases of the intervention, which were delivered sometime between 8:30 and 9:55 for the first grade students and 11:10-2:20 for the second grade students. A daily log was kept, and schedule changes were noted. The intervention included the use of the graphic organizer, "Response Buddy," designed by the researcher and co-teacher in 2009 to assist at-risk students to compose responses to literature effectively. There were three phases to the study: baseline, instructional, and maintenance. Once stability in level and non-therapeutic trend in baseline were achieved for the first tier, the independent variable (e.g., "Response Buddy") was introduced to that student (Gast, 2010). At least three probes per student in the baseline phase were

collected. Each grade level was treated separately (i.e., all 10 students were not at the same point; tiers for each grade were reviewed independent of one another). Once baseline was established for Student A, the researcher began intervention with that student. During that time, the researcher continued to probe the writing behaviors of the other students in the baseline condition. The student (i.e., Student A) in the intervention condition had to reach a pre-established criterion level before introducing intervention to the next student (i.e., Student B) and so forth.

The criterion variable was the combination of the inclusion of the title, inclusion of a connection, inclusion of a reason for a connection, and the inclusion of the student's opinion. This was used to determine when the independent variable was introduced to the next student. Once a student incorporated all of these variables on three out of four consecutive, independent writing samples, "Response Buddy" was introduced to the next student. The process continued this way until all students received the intervention. Once a student met the criterion in at least three out of four consecutive opportunities, maintenance probes were collected.

Book choice. Books were chosen by the researcher based on the International Reading Association's Children's Choices lists for primary students from 2003-2011 (International Reading Association, 2011). These books were categorized by Lexile levels (Metametrics, 2011) according to degree of difficulty so that a similar range of complexity was offered with each book. According to the International Reading Association (2011), the Children's Choices project has been in place since 1974. Gathering input from 2500 students (1000 in grades K-2), lists of recommended books are compiled each year. Because of this intensive process and the reputation of the

International Reading Association for recognizing high quality literature, the researcher believed the choice book lists produced by them would be an adequate starting point for the books to be used in this study. An ordered list of books used during the study for each grade level can be found in Appendix E. The researcher organized the lists by grade level, using Lexile levels from 120-580 for first grade read alouds and 500-890 for the second grade read alouds. Using a random number sequencer, the researcher was able to randomize the order in which each book was presented.

The researcher read Baseline Story #1 from each grade level to the students in a whole group format to collect baseline data. Once baseline for Student A ended and intervention began, the researcher read the next book on the list to Student A in a 1:1 format and then read that same book to the whole group of the remaining students in the study. Doing this, the researcher was better able to compare the responses of the various groups. This type of format continued throughout the study.

Baseline/probe condition. During the first baseline/probe session, the researcher told the students that "literature" had different meanings. She explained that, in their class, it might be helpful to think about "literature" as a poem or a story. The researcher then showed the students examples of what literature is (i.e., story books, non-fiction books, poems, etc.) and what it is not (i.e., stapler, shoe, bookshelf, etc.) to make the point that just because something has words or text on it doesn't make it literature. Finally, the researcher discussed what it means to "respond to literature" (e.g., "think about what the story means to you, what it reminds you of and why, how it makes you feel, whether or not you like it, and if you would recommend it to a friend"). All of these

elements were addressed on the "Response Buddy," but in baseline they were only given orally. See Appendix F for a script/list of specific procedures used in each condition.

Following the discussion, the researcher read a story to the students. For an order of specific books read for each grade, see Appendix E. Students were then given pencils and paper, and folder tents were placed between the students on the table to prevent them seeing each other's work. Individual sheets of lined paper were used every session instead of journals so that participants' previous responses did not influence future samples.

Next, the researcher gave the following direction: "You will have 10 minutes to write your response to the story you just heard. At the end of 10 minutes, if you believe you need more time, I will give you more time to work." One prompt was given at the 5 minute mark: "Remember you are writing your response to the story we just read." No other prompts or feedback was given during this time. If students asked a question, the teacher responded with, "I cannot answer any questions. Do the best you can." During this time, the researcher took anecdotal notes regarding behavior (i.e., attention to task, task persistence, etc.).

At the end of 10 minutes, the researcher gave permission to the students to turn in their writing samples. If students indicated that they needed more time, extra time was given in 5 minute increments, with a re-evaluation after every 5 minutes. If a student requested more than the allotted 10 minutes, the researcher included the amount of additional time needed at the bottom of the sample. Prior to the study beginning, the researcher decided that, during baseline, the total time to write a response was not to exceed 20 minutes, and, if a student still insisted he or she was not finished after 20

minutes, the researcher would note it at the bottom of the writing sample, and the writing sample would be collected at that time. No students asked for time over 20 minutes. The time it took to complete the writing sample was recorded at the bottom during each session. Even if it appeared that a student stopped working before the 10 minutes were over, the researcher noted 10 minutes at the bottom of the paper. This was done because the 10 minute mark was the earliest that students could turn in the paper and because students often stopped and started again within the first 10 minute time period. When students turned in their samples, the researcher had the students read the samples to her so that she could notate any words that were illegible. No feedback on the content was given during any baseline session.

After the first day of introducing response to literature during the baseline sessions, the researcher simply reminded the students what they would be doing after the story (i.e., writing a response to literature). She then reviewed the prompts from Lesson 1 when she taught what a response to literature could include (e.g., "think about what the story means to you, what it reminds you of and why, how it makes you feel, whether or not you like it, and if you would recommend it to a friend"). After reading Baseline Story #2 (See Appendix E for complete timeline of books for each grade), the researcher followed the same procedures used in Day 1 of the baseline phase. This occurred until an established baseline was reached (3 data points for students in each respective grade). Once this occurred, intervention began with the first student, and baseline/probe procedures continued as described above for the other students. However, probes occurred less frequently (i.e., generally no more than twice weekly).

Intervention. In the intervention condition, every student was given three days of instruction before independent writing samples were collected. Therefore, when the term "instruction" is used, the researcher is referring to the first three days of the intervention condition in which instruction on how to use "Response Buddy" was provided. "Post-instruction," also in the intervention condition, was when independent writing samples were collected, and feedback was given. In the first session of the intervention (i.e., instruction) phase, the researcher introduced "Response Buddy" as a helpful way for students to remember some important parts of writing a response to literature. See Appendix F for a script/list of specific procedures used in each condition. She then read the next story on the list (see Appendix E for complete book list) and modeled a think-aloud about the prompts listed on "Response Buddy," stating why she gave certain answers, etc. The researcher wrote her answers on the graphic organizer as she went. Following completion of the graphic organizer, the researcher modeled numbering the sentence prompts on "Response Buddy" to help her remember the order, thinking aloud as she went (e.g., "I don't want to forget to number my sentences. This will help me remember the order when I write it on lined paper."). Transferring the sentences to lined paper, she modeled remembering to include the sentence prompts, not just her responses (e.g., "If I remember to start at my number each time, I won't forget to include the typed words that are already on my paper. This way, I can make sure my sentences are complete"). At the end of this session, the researcher and student read the final product (i.e., on lined paper) together.

On day two of instruction, the researcher showed "Response Buddy" to the student and stated again that he may be a helpful way for students to remember some

important parts of writing a response to literature. She then read a story. After reading the story, the researcher read the prompts one at a time to the student, waiting for the participant to respond before moving to the next prompt. When he/she responded verbally, the researcher wrote the response onto the graphic organizer. If the student had difficulty answering a question, the researcher prompted with questions such as, "Has something like this ever happened to you? What did this story make you think about? What did it remind you of? Did a character in the story remind you of someone you know?" The student was then prompted by the researcher to write numbers in order on the left side of each typed prompt on "Response Buddy" to help him/her remember not only the order, but also to include the typed words when the student transferred the information to lined paper. The student then copied the information from "Response Buddy" to lined paper while the researcher sat at the table with him/her and provided feedback as necessary. After each sentence the participant transferred correctly, the researcher responded with, "Great job copying all of the words to your lined paper!" If the student began a sentence with something besides the prompt given on the graphic organizer, the researcher prompted with, "Let's check our graphic organizer to make sure we are starting in the right place." If the student still could not figure out which word to write, the researcher showed him/her so that the student was practicing correctly.

During the third session of instruction, the researcher read the pre-chosen book, read the responses for the student from "Response Buddy," and told the student to "Complete 'Response Buddy' as independently as possible today, and then transfer that information to lined paper." The researcher sat with the student to be available to answer questions. However, the student worked as independently as possible, though the degree

of assistance varied for different students. If the student did not number his/her sentences, the researcher prompted him/her to do so. In addition, the researcher prompted the student if he/she transferred sentences out of order or began to leave out the sentence prompts when transferring to lined paper. When completed, the researcher had the student read the completed writing sample to her so that she could note any words that were illegible. Feedback was given to discuss what the student had included and/or what the student had not included. If an element was not included, the researcher and student discussed what an appropriate answer would have been.

During the fourth session of intervention (i.e., the first day of post-instruction), the researcher read the predetermined book, gave a copy of "Response Buddy," lined paper, and a pencil to the student, read the prompts, and then read them again (see Appendix F). The researcher then said, "I want to see what you can do independently today. The only kind of question I can answer is if you need help reading a word on "Response Buddy." The researcher sat and pretended to work while subtly making anecdotal notes during the process. After the student transferred the information to lined paper, the researcher had the student read the final product back to her. The researcher made notes of words that were illegible, noting any discrepancies between the written and spoken word. The researcher provided feedback to the student about what was done correctly and /or incorrectly. For example, if a student did not include an element on the graphic organizer, did not transfer it to lined paper, etc., these items were brought to the student's attention, and the researcher and student discussed what a correct response would have been. The student was then probed for another independent sample the next day possible. Once the student met the criterion (i.e., the combination of the inclusion of

the title, inclusion of a connection, inclusion of a reason for a connection, and the inclusion of the student's opinion) for at least three out of four consecutive sessions, that particular student entered the maintenance condition, and the next student began the intervention condition. This continued until all students received intervention.

Maintenance. Once each student met criterion, he or she entered into the maintenance condition. During this condition, the researcher collected at least three probes to assess maintenance of skills. To collect this, the same procedures used to collect independent samples during the intervention condition were followed, including having the student read the writing to the researcher. In this condition, however, no feedback was given when the samples were collected. The researcher simply stated, "Thank you" (See Appendix F).

Response Definitions and Data Collection

The dependent measures in this study were: a) the inclusion of/reference to the title of the book; b) inclusion of a connection made; c) inclusion of the reason for the connection; and d) inclusion of the student's opinion of the book. The criterion variable was the inclusion of all four elements in at least three out of four consecutive writing samples. Data were collected by scoring each permanent product (i.e., writing sample). While the final product was used to drive the decision making process, the graphic organizer was analyzed as well. Analyzing both provided valuable information for the researcher. For example, if a student completed "Response Buddy" correctly but did not include all elements on the lined paper, the difficulty may have been one of transfer. Using this type of information assisted the researcher when giving feedback during the intervention condition. Data were collected during baseline, intervention, and

maintenance conditions (see Appendix F for the script and Appendix G for the checklist for criterion variables).

Inclusion of/reference to book title. The inclusion of/reference to book title was defined as whether or not the student included the title of the book in his/her response. If the student attempted to include the title but did not have it written correctly, it was counted as correct. The purpose was not to see if a child could copy a title correctly, but rather that he/she remembered to include the reference of his/her response to literature.

Inclusion of a connection. The Georgia Department of Education (GaDOE) distinguishes between three common types of connections young students often make (GaDOE, 2007). They are defined as: a) text to self, in which the writer shows an understanding of the text by making connections from the text to his/her life; b) text to world, in which he or she makes a connection to the outside world; and c) text to text, in which the writer makes some kind of connection between the text he or she has just read and a previous piece of literature heard or read (GaDOE, 2007). Examples might include, respectively, "this story made me think about my grandma," or "that girl was like Dr. Martin Luther King" or "that story is like *The Three Little Pigs*." If a student was able to express a way in which he or she was able to make a connection to a character, another story, an experience he or she had, something that is going on in the world or that has happened in the world, this constituted a connection.

Inclusion of the reason for the connection. The inclusion of the reason for the connection was, for the purpose of this study, defined as a step beyond, or an extension of, just expressing a connection. It is the reason why the connection was made in the first place. For example, if the student made a connection to the story and said, "This story

made me think about my grandma," an inclusion of the reason for that connection might be something like "because the grandma in the story made cookies, and my grandma makes cookies."

Inclusion of the student's opinion of the book. This was defined as whether or not the student expressed if he/she liked the book, would recommend it, etc. The student did not have to use the exact words, "I like" or "I didn't like." If there was reference made to the child's opinion of the book, this was counted. For the purpose of this study, if students described parts of a story they did not like, this was not counted as an opinion given; it was only when it was made evident the student was giving an opinion of the overall book that he/she received credit for including this.

Social Validity

Social validity is important because it helps put the study into context (Finn & Sladeczek, 2001). Having participants and stakeholders assess the social validity of an intervention helps to establish credibility. To help assess this, the researcher developed a brief survey (see Appendix H) and asked students to complete it. One question asked the students to choose which method they preferred when writing a response to literature: a) listening to a story and writing a response to literature on lined paper, or b) listening to a story, completing a "Response Buddy," then putting that information on lined paper. The researcher read the questions and choices to the students individually, and there were picture prompts on the survey as well. The researcher had the students circle the number beside their choice. The other question asked the students which one they believed help them write a better response to literature, and the same pictures were used. Again, the

researcher read the question and choices, and the students circled the corresponding number.

In addition to student surveys, the researcher asked eight people to rank participants' writing samples. Taking the number of sessions in each phase for each student, the researcher used a random number generator to choose the session from which the writing samples were chosen (e.g., Callie participated in three baseline sessions. Using the random number generator, the researcher pulled her first and third writing samples from baseline for the raters to read). Two writing samples from each student, per phase, were chosen for this measure. The exceptions were Cameron and George (who, due to lack of time at the end of the study, did not participate in the maintenance phase) and Garrett, who only had one sample from the maintenance phase. The raters included: one teacher from each grade K-2, one special education teacher, one EIP teacher, an enrichment teacher, the school's Instructional Lead Teacher, and a retired elementary teacher with over 25 years of classroom experience, at least 18 of those years spent working with students considered to be at-risk for academic problems.

The researcher gave the raters verbal and written instructions (See Appendix I) as well as a score sheet (See Appendix J). They were blind to the purpose of the study as well as the phase in which each writing sample was written, even to the fact that there were various phases. Samples were grouped by student, and the raters were asked to rank each student's group of samples based on organization, content, and overall quality. They were told not to consider spelling, writing conventions, or sentence structure. Post-it® notes were applied to each writing sample with letters (i.e., A, B, C, etc.) to identify

each writing sample. The corresponding number was then placed on the score sheet in the order that the readers ranked them (i.e., #1 was the best, #2 was second, etc.).

Table 1

Demographic Information of Participants

Student	Age	Grade	IEP	Diagnosis	Race	Gender	Free lunch	Retained
Callie	6;9	1	Y	SI	C	F	Y	N
Dennis	6;8	1	N	N/A	C	M	N	N
Allison	6;6	1	Y	SI	C	F	Y	N
Garrett	7;4	1	Y	SI	C	M	N	N
Cameron	6;11	1	N	N/A	C	M	N	N
April	8;7	2	N	N/A	AA	F	Y	N
Mary	8;7	2	N	N/A	C	F	Y	N
Ashley	8;2	2	N	N/A	C	F	Y	N
George	7;10	2	N	N/A	C	M	N	N

Note. Y = yes; N = no; SI = speech impaired; N/A = not applicable; C = Caucasian; AA = African American; F = female; M = male.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study. Although organization by dependent measures may be preferred in many cases (Wolery & Lane, 2010), it is also acceptable to organize the results by participant as well. Inclusion of all dependent variables was necessary to meet the criterion variable, and graphs will be used to help report the results. Effectiveness of the intervention, results of reliability (including results of procedural-fidelity and interobserver-agreement assessments for each participant), and an assessment of social validity are reported.

Because this was a multiple probe across participants design, one student had to meet the criterion (i.e., inclusion of 4/4 elements in at least 3/4 consecutive sessions) before intervention could begin with the next student. All students participated in 3 days of instruction prior to beginning the intervention condition. However, the length of time that it took each student to meet the predetermined criteria varied. Because of this, the time that each student spent in each condition was different. Table 2 displays a summary of the number of sessions each student spent in each condition.

For the majority of the sessions, first grade students were probed during their normal Reading/Language Arts block (i.e., between 8:30-10:30), and second grade students were probed during their typical Reading/Language Arts block (i.e., the first half is from 11:10-12:10, and the second half is from 12:50-2:20). Exceptions for individual students are described in Chapter 5. For all participants, there was a break in data

collection from March 12th-March 16th, as this was the district's spring break. The first students in each grade completed the intervention condition before this break, and the next student in each grade did not receive instruction until after the break in an attempt to avoid confounding variables.

Effectiveness of the intervention

The effectiveness of the intervention (i.e., introduction and use of "Response Buddy" to help students improve the quality of their written responses to literature) is described and shown graphically for each participant in this section. Visual analysis of the data is used in single subject research designs. Data is analyzed within conditions, between adjacent conditions, and between similar conditions (Gast & Spriggs, 2010). Horner et al. (2005) states that information regarding level, trend, and variability of data during the various conditions must be assessed and compared to show that a functional relation exists between the independent and dependent variables. Additionally, features such as immediacy of effect, overlap, and consistency of data patterns across similar phases have been found to be important when assessing the effects of intervention (Kratochwill et al., 2010).

According to Kratochwill et al. (2010), immediacy of effect refers to "the change in level between the last three data points in one phase and the first three data points of the next" (p. 18). Overlap refers to the data points in one phase that overlap with data from a previous phase (Kratochwill et al., 2010). For this study, the percentage of non-overlapping data (PND) between the different phases was calculated. Scruggs and Mastropieri (1998) provided guidelines to interpret effects. For example, PND of .90 to 1.0 (i.e, 90%-100%) is considered to be representative of very effective treatment; .70-.89

(i.e., 70%-89%) is considered to be effective, and less than .70 (i.e., 70%) is considered to be questionable or not effective. Because there was only one baseline and one intervention phase, examining consistency of data patterns across similar phases is difficult in this study. However, variables pertaining to within condition and between conditions are discussed. Below are the results for individual participants.

First grade students.

Callie. Callie's data are presented in Figure 1. Within condition analysis shows that three data points were collected for Callie during baseline. According to Gast and Spriggs (2010), data can be considered stable when at least 80% of the data points fall within 20% of the median value. Using this formula, 66% of the data fell within this range. However, the range of scores was small (i.e., 0-4) and there was little variability in the data (i.e., she had scores of 1, 2, 1). In addition, the absolute level change and relative level change were both zero, and there was a zero celerating trend. Callie displayed improvement in her score immediately in the intervention condition. The absolute level change between baseline and intervention was two, in a therapeutic direction. Trend direction went from zero celerating in baseline to accelerating in intervention. PND between baseline and intervention was 100%, signaling that the independent variable (i.e., "Response Buddy") had an effect on the dependent variable (i.e., the number of elements used in the written response to literature). Callie spent six days in intervention before she met criterion.

There was no change in level from intervention to maintenance. Throughout the maintenance phase, Callie continued to include all four elements included in the criterion variable.

Dennis. The data for Dennis are presented in Figure 1. Dennis had data collected during seven baseline sessions. There was some variability in the first half of the condition; however, a contratherapeutic trend was also noted, and the last five data points in baseline were all zero, representing a zero celerating trend. Both the absolute level change and relative level change within the baseline condition were one. There was an immediate, abrupt change when intervention began, and between baseline and intervention there was an absolute level change of four in a therapeutic direction. Trend direction went from decelerating to accelerating. PND between baseline and intervention was 100%. Dennis met criterion (i.e., a score of four on three of four consecutive sessions) within four sessions. In the maintenance phase, Dennis's data remained at a high, stable level for three consecutive sessions. There was an absolute level change of one in a contratherapeutic direction within the maintenance condition.

Allison. The data for Allison are presented in Figure 1. Ten data points were collected for Allison during baseline. For each session in baseline, Allison had a score of one. Therefore, her trend was zero celerating; her data were stable, and there was no variability. When intervention began, there was an immediate, abrupt change in level. The absolute level between baseline and intervention was three. The trend continued to remain zero celerating; however, her data were stable at four, the highest score for this study. Allison spent three days in intervention as she scored a four on the first three days, thereby meeting criterion. PND between baseline and intervention was zero. There was a slight decrease in level from intervention to maintenance. The absolute level change between conditions was one. In the maintenance phase, there was some variability in the data (i.e., one point); however, a zero celerating trend was noted.

Garrett. The data for Garrett are presented in Figure 1. Garrett spent 12 sessions in the baseline condition. He scored a zero on 100% of the writing samples in the baseline condition; therefore, there was a zero celerating trend, and data were stable. There was an immediate, abrupt change after introducing “Response Buddy.” The absolute level change was four. Garrett spent five days in intervention before meeting criterion. The absolute and relative level changes within the intervention condition were zero. PND between baseline and intervention was 80%, indicating some overlap. The reason for this overlap will be discussed further in Chapter 5. Due to time constraints, only one maintenance probe was collected a week after Garrett met criterion in the intervention condition. There was no change in level between the last intervention session and the maintenance session.

Cameron. The data for Cameron are presented in Figure 1. There were 17 data points collected for Cameron during baseline. There was little variability in his data (i.e., Cameron scored a 2 on the first writing sample and 0 on every other sample during baseline), representing a zero celerating trend. The absolute level change within the baseline condition was 2 in a contratherapeutic direction, while the relative level change was 0. There was an immediate, abrupt change in both level and trend in a therapeutic direction immediately following the introduction of “Response Buddy.” The absolute level change between baseline and intervention was three, and trend direction went from zero celerating in baseline to accelerating in intervention. PND between baseline and intervention was 100%. Due to time constraints, no maintenance probes were obtained.

Second grade students.

April. The results from data collected from April are displayed in Figure 2. Three points were collected for April during the baseline phase. April's data were variable; however, there was an absolute level change of one in a contratherapeutic direction. There was an abrupt, immediate change of level in a therapeutic direction when the intervention was introduced, with an absolute level change of four between baseline and intervention conditions. PND was 100%, and there was a zero celerating trend as April scored 4/4 during 3 consecutive sessions, thus meeting the criterion preset by the researcher. April's data remained stable during the maintenance phase, scoring 4/4 on all maintenance probes.

Mary. Mary's data are displayed in Figure 2. She spent seven days in baseline. There was some variability in the first part of the data series (i.e., scores of 2, 1, 1, and 0 on four consecutive sessions). Absolute level change within the baseline condition was two in a contratherapeutic direction. Gast and Spriggs (2010) stated that with a long data series (seven or more data points), researchers should pay close attention to the level stability in the second half of the phase when deciding when to proceed to the next condition. The second half of Mary's baseline data reflected a zero celerating trend, with scores of zero on the last four sessions. Between baseline and intervention phases, there was an absolute change of four in a therapeutic direction, indicating an immediate impact of the intervention. PND was 100% between baseline and intervention phases. Mary met criterion in 3 sessions of the intervention phase. During the maintenance phase, Mary continued to demonstrate data stability, scoring a 4/4 on the remaining writing samples.

Ashley. Ashley's data are displayed in Figure 2. Ashley spent 10 sessions in the baseline phase. Absolute level change in baseline was 1 in a contratherapeutic condition, while the last 8 data points reflected a zero celerating trend. Ashley spent 9 sessions in the intervention phase before she met criterion. PND between baseline and intervention phases was 100%. Two probes were collected during the maintenance phase. Ashley scored 4/4 on both maintenance probes.

George. George's data are displayed in Figure 2. George was in baseline for 16 sessions, with a zero celerating trend. The absolute level change was two in a contratherapeutic direction. Between baseline and intervention, there was an absolute level change of 3 in a therapeutic direction. Gast and Spriggs (2010) state that a trend line typically should not be drawn across a scale break. Before the scale break in intervention, George was demonstrating an accelerating trend. His first data point after the scale break went down two points from before the break. He met criterion in 5 sessions of intervention, but 6 data points were collected during intervention. PND between baseline and intervention conditions was 80%, suggesting some overlap. This overlap will be discussed in Chapter 5. Due to time constraints, no maintenance probes were taken.

Summary

Because experimental effect was shown by the abrupt change in level after "Response Buddy" was introduced for nine different participants across two different grade levels, intersubject reliability was achieved. This demonstration of effect supports the hypothesis that the "Response Buddy" graphic organizer may be a helpful tool to assist primary-age students, who may be at risk for literacy problems, improve the quality

of their written responses to literature. Graphs of participants' data in each grade are displayed in Figures 1 through 2. Tables 3 and 4 give a breakdown of the percentage of inclusion of specific elements by each participant in each condition. In Tables 5 and 6, the types of connections made (i.e., text-to-text, text-to-self, text-to-world) by each participant in each condition are summarized.

There are three common types of connections that are often made by young children as they respond to literature in some way. The Georgia Department of Education (2007) distinguishes between three common types of connections young students often make. The GaDOE defines them as: a) text to self, in which the writer shows an understanding of the text by making connections from the text to his/her life; b) text to world, in which he or she makes a connection to the outside world; and c) text to text, in which the writer makes some kind of connection between the text he or she has just read and a previous piece of literature heard or read. Table 5 shows a summary of the types of connections made by each first grader in each condition.

The amount of time that each student spent working on his/her writing sample before turning it in to the researcher also varied across conditions. In baseline, students were told that the researcher was going to start the timer for 10 minutes, and if they were done then, they could turn it in, but if they needed more time, they could have more time (which many took). In the intervention and maintenance phases, students were also allowed as much time as they needed, but they were not told when 10 minutes had passed. In baseline, although some students worked the whole 10 minutes or more, many often stopped working before then. For those students, the researcher documented 10 minutes as their working time since that is the earliest the students were allowed to turn

in the writing sample. Figures 3 and 4 show the mean amount of time (in minutes) that each student in first and second grade spent on samples during each condition.

Reliability

Procedural fidelity. To control for procedural fidelity, the researcher composed a "script," including prompts, questions, appropriate feedback, acceptable answers to questions, etc. to be used during baseline, intervention, and maintenance conditions (see Appendix F). At least one time per phase per student, an independent observer verified that the researcher was completing procedures with fidelity by observing her and completing a checklist that appropriate procedures were followed. Any discrepancy between the items on the checklist that were supposed to happen and those checked off by the observer were noted. Procedural fidelity was calculated by dividing the number of behaviors checked off by the observer by the number of procedures on the checklist in each session and multiplying by 100.

Procedural reliability was 98% across all students. Errors included the researcher not putting on the tag during one baseline session that said, "Sorry! I can't answer any questions." Instead, she put her finger to her lips and verbally told the children she would not be able to answer any questions. During intervention session for Cameron, the researcher was supposed to state, "You are writing a response to literature to the story we just read" when five minutes had passed. Instead, on 4-23, she stated this when 6 minutes, 15 seconds had passed.

Interrater Reliability. Interobserver agreement (IOA) was conducted throughout the study. Prior to beginning the study, the researcher trained two others (i.e., co-teacher, parent volunteer) in what to look for (i.e., the presence of dependent measures) when

assessing the writing samples. Prior to scoring the actual samples, the researcher and two others scored sample papers until there was 100% agreement on the variables making up the criterion variable on at least 3 samples. When assessing samples during the baseline, intervention, and maintenance conditions, IOA was collected for every student at least 20% of every condition to make sure that overall IOA was at least 90% per student per condition. The point-by-point method was used to calculate IOA. If IOA was less than 90%, per child per condition, the data collectors discussed the difference to discern the reason(s) for the discrepancy. If IOA had continued to drop below 90% (i.e., the same child in a different condition), further training would have been conducted. Tables 7 and 8 present summaries of these results for first and second graders, respectively.

Social Validity

Social validity was assessed by asking participants to complete a brief survey (see Appendix H) and by having a group of eight teachers independently read and rank samples from each participant. For the directions and score sheet given to the readers, please see Appendix I and Appendix J, respectively. When asked which format was preferred (i.e., listening to a story then writing a response to literature on lined paper or listening to a story, or completing a "Response Buddy," then transferring it to lined paper), three out of the five first grade participants said the latter (i.e., using "Response Buddy") was the format they preferred. When asked which format they thought helped them write a better response to literature, four of the five first graders stated that using the "Response Buddy" helped them more. When second graders were questioned, all stated that not only did they prefer using the "Response Buddy," they thought it helped them

write a better response to literature. Further comments from participants and more discussion regarding social validity are discussed in the following chapter.

The teachers who read and ranked the samples were blind as to the purpose of the study as well as which samples were written in the various conditions (i.e., with the use of "Response Buddy"). For every participant, the writing sample that was ranked first was one that had been completed using "Response Buddy." In none of the cases was a baseline sample ever ranked as being first. In addition, none of the writing samples using "Response Buddy" were ever ranked last. Only one of the eight readers ranked one baseline sample as the second best paper. All other readers gave baseline samples a rank of no higher than third place. Individual comments and further discussion are included in the following chapter

Table 2

Number of Sessions Spent in Each Condition

	Baseline	Intervention	Maintenance	Total
First Graders				
Callie	3	7	5	15
Dennis	7	4	5	16
Allison	10	3	4	17
Garrett	12	6	1	19
Cameron	17	5	-	22
Second Graders				
April	3	3	7	13
Mary	7	3	4	14
Ashley	10	9	2	21
George	16	6	-	22

Table 3

Percentage of Instances Specific Elements Included by Each First Grader in Each Condition

	Callie	Dennis	Allison	Garrett	Cameron	Total Mean
Inclusion of Title						
Baseline	0	0	0	0	0	0
Intervention	86	100	100	83	100	94
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	N/A	100
Inclusion of Connection						
Baseline	33	29	100	0	0	32
Intervention	100	100	100	80	100	96
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	N/A	100
Inclusion of Reason for Connection						
Baseline	33	0	0	0	0	7
Intervention	75	75	100	67	60	75
Maintenance	100	60	50	100	N/A	62
Inclusion of Opinion						
Baseline	33	14	0	0	0	9
Intervention	75	100	100	83	100	92
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note. When mean scores involved decimals, they were rounded to the nearest ones place.

Table 4.

Percentage of Instances Specific Elements Included by Each Second Grader in Each Condition

	April	Mary	Ashley	George	Total Mean
Inclusion of Title					
Baseline	33	14	10	0	14
Intervention	100	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A	100
Inclusion of Connection					
Baseline	0	0	40	81	30
Intervention	100	100	100	83	96
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A	100
Inclusion of Reason for Connection					
Baseline	0	0	10	25	9
Intervention	100	100	44	67	78
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A	100
Inclusion of Opinion					
Baseline	67	43	60	.1	43
Intervention	100	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	100

Note. When mean scores involved decimals (with the exception of .1), they were rounded to the nearest ones place.

Table 5.

Types of Connections Made by First Graders in Each Condition

	Callie	Dennis	Allison	Garrett	Cameron	Total
Baseline						
Text to Self	3	1	9	0	0	13
Text to World	0	1	1	0	0	2
Text to Text	0	0	0	0	0	0
Number of Samples Collected	**3**	**7**	**10**	**12**	**17**	**49**
Intervention						
Text to Self	4	3	1	2	4	14
Text to World	3	1	1	1	1	7
Text to Text	0	0	1	2	0	3
Number of Samples Collected	**7**	**4**	**3**	**6**	**5**	**25**
Maintenance						
Text to Self	1	1	0	0	-	2
Text to World	2	4	3	0	-	9
Text to Text	4	0	1	1	-	6
Number of Samples Collected	**7**	**5**	**4**	**1**	**0**	**17**
Total	**17**	**16**	**17**	**19**	**22**	

Table 6.

Types of Connections Made by Second Graders in Each Condition

	April	Mary	Ashley	George	Total
Baseline					
Text to Self	0	0	9	13	22
Text to World	0	0	1	0	1
Text to Text	0	0	0	0	0
Number of Samples Collected	**3**	**7**	**10**	**16**	**36**
Intervention					
Text to Self	3	0	6	0	9
Text to World	0	1	2	0	3
Text to Text	0	2	1	6	9
Number of Samples Collected	**3**	**3**	**9**	**6**	**21**
Maintenance					
Text to Self	7	0	1	-	8
Text to World	0	1	1	-	2
Text to Text	0	4	0	-	4
Number of Samples Collected	**7**	**5**	**2**	**0**	**14**
Total	**13**	**15**	**21**	**22**	

Table 7.

Summary of Interobserver Agreement for First Graders

	Callie	Dennis	Allison	Garrett	Cameron
Percentage of writing samples scored by all observers:					
Baseline	100	85	90	50	80
Post-Instruction	100	75	75	50	100
Maintenance	50	75	100	100	N/A
Percentage of agreement for inclusion of elements:					
Title					
Baseline	100	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	N/A
Connection					
Baseline	100	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	N/A
Reason for Connection					
Baseline	100	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	95	100	83	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	100	N/A
Opinion					
Baseline	100	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	85	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	85	100	100	N/A

Table 8.

Summary of Interobserver Agreement for Second Graders

	April	Mary	Ashley	George
Percentage of writing samples scored by all observers:				
Baseline	100	85	55	80
Post-Instruction	40	100	33	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A
Percentage of agreement for inclusion of elements:				
Title				
Baseline	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A
Connection				
Baseline	100	85	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A
Reason for Connection				
Baseline	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A
Opinion				
Baseline	100	100	100	100
Post-Instruction	100	100	100	100
Maintenance	100	100	100	N/A

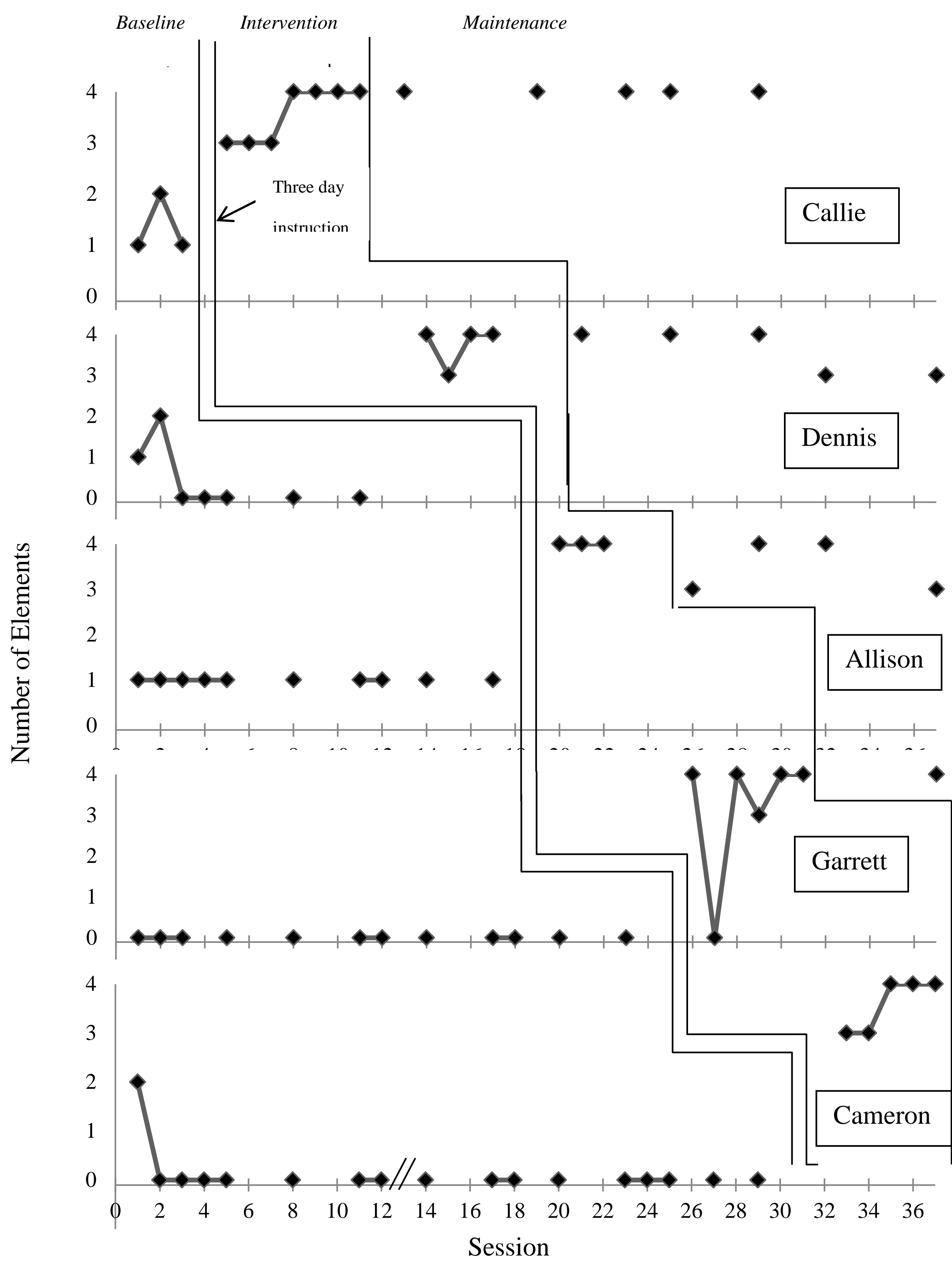

Figure 1. Results of First Grade Participants in Each Phase.

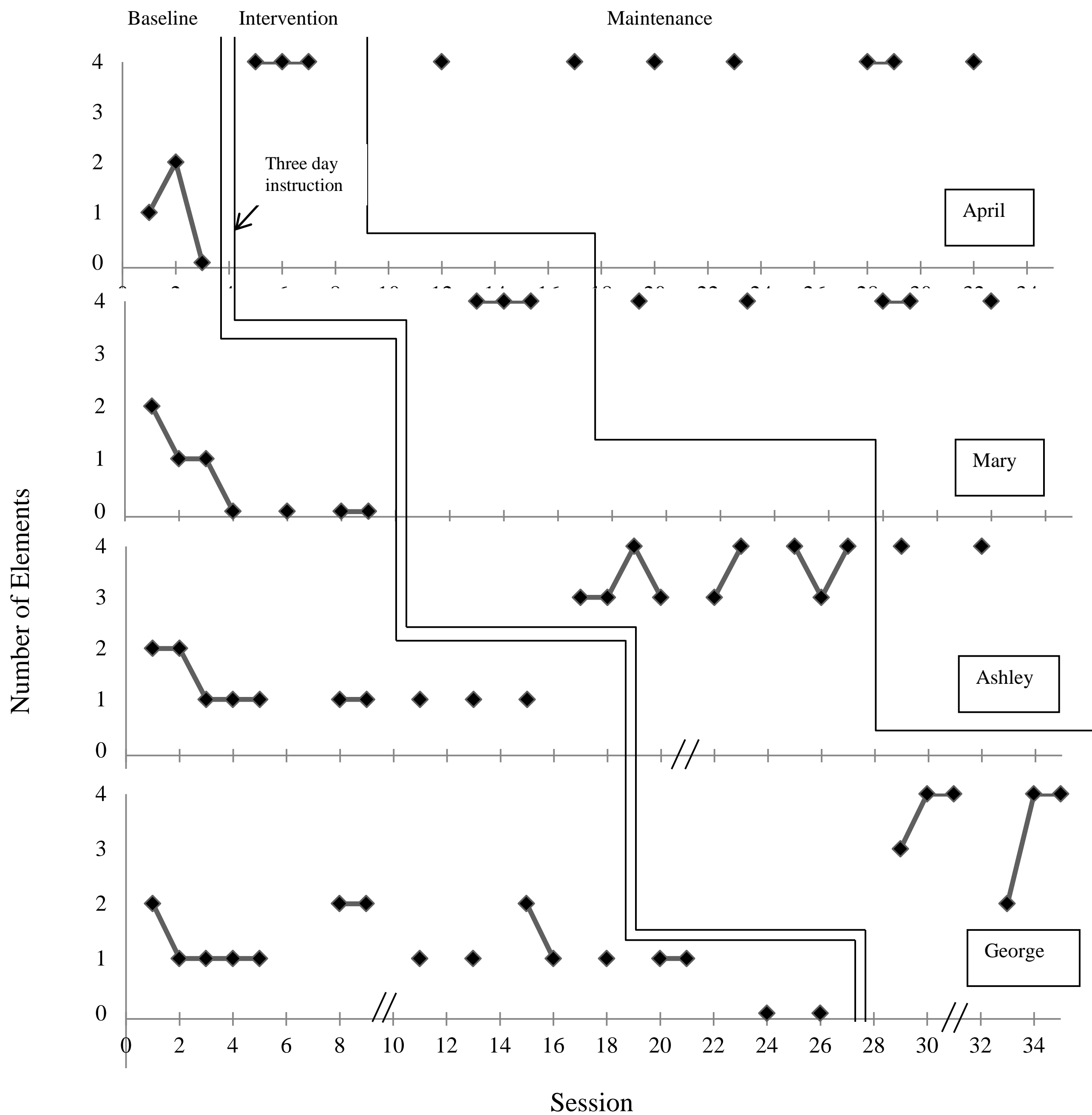

Figure 2. Results of Second Grade Participants in Each Phase.

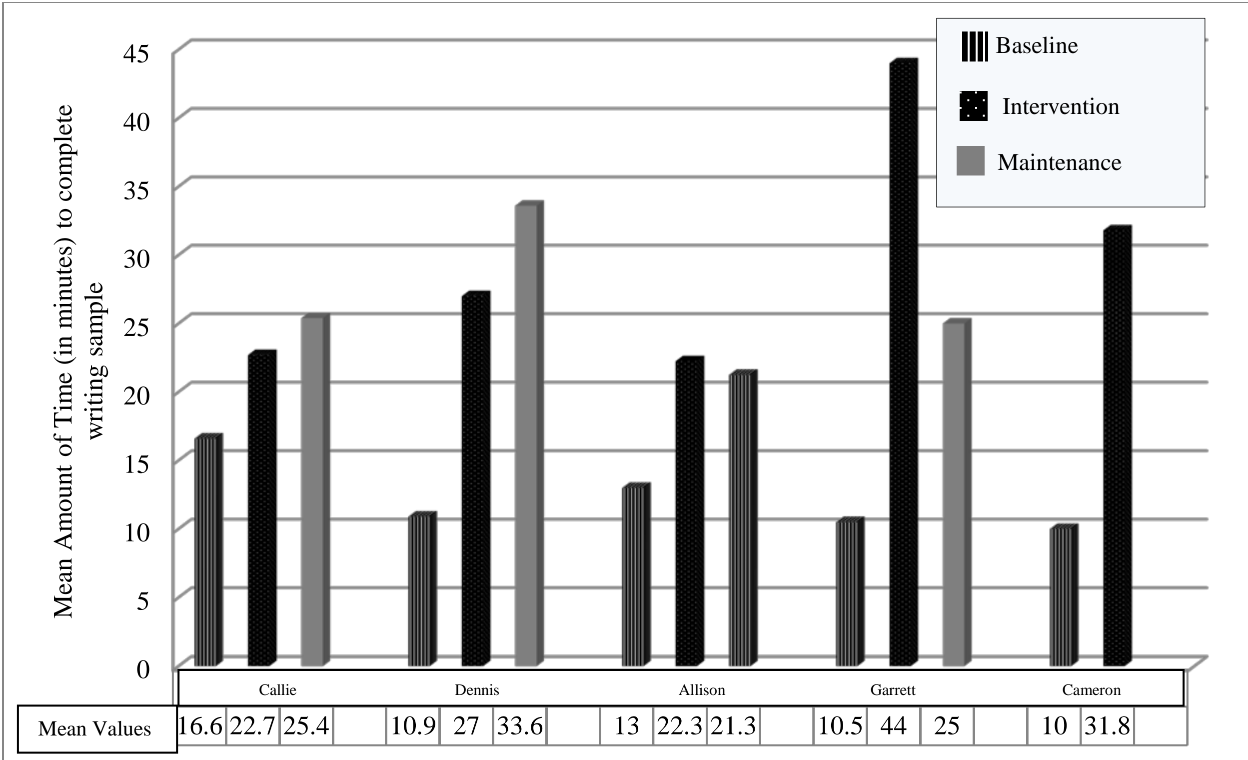

*Figure 3***.** The mean amount of time (in minutes) it took each first grader to complete writing samples in the various conditions.

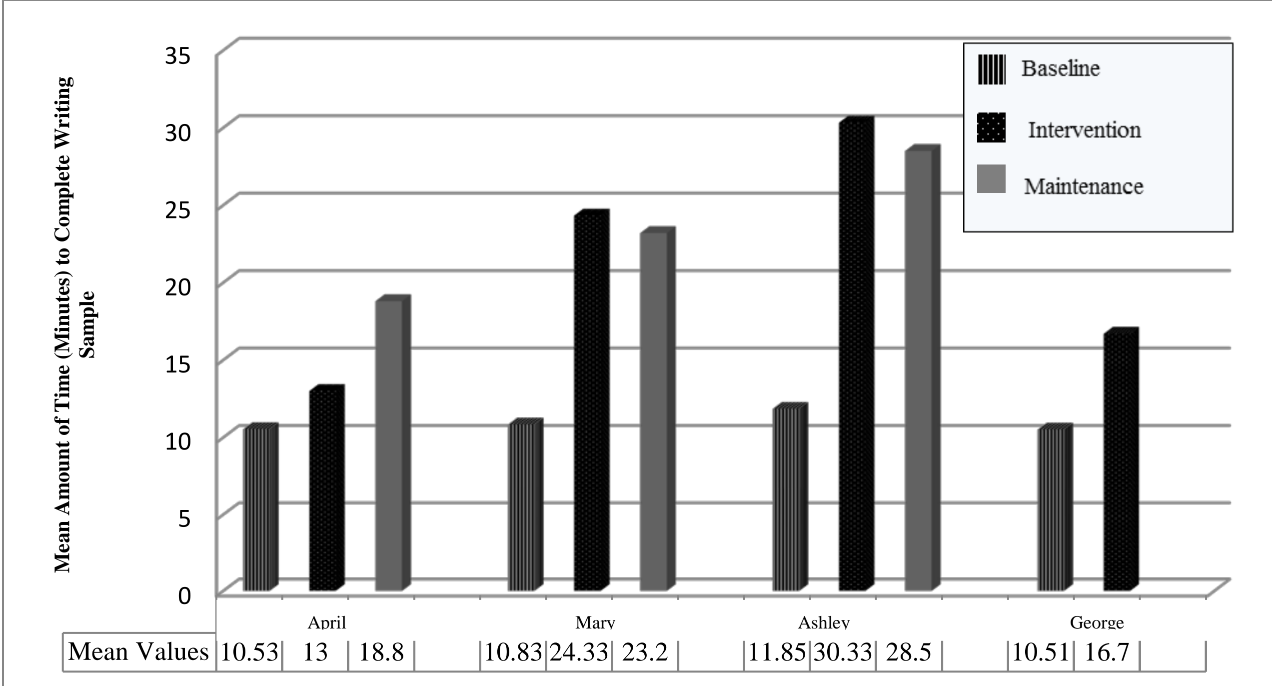

*Figure 4***.** The mean amount of time (in minutes) it took each second grade student to complete writing samples in the various conditions.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

. The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not "Response Buddy," a graphic organizer used to assist students in writing responses to literature, would positively impact the quality of written responses to literature by first and second graders considered to be "at risk" for literacy problems. Specifically, the researcher sought to determine if "Response Buddy" influenced whether or not students demonstrated the inclusion of a title, inclusion of a connection, inclusion of a reason for a connection, and expression of opinion in their written responses to literature. The study supports the use of graphic organizers in writing instruction for young children at risk for literacy problems because the results suggest that "Response Buddy" was successful in helping to improve the quality of the students' written responses to literature as defined by the elements predetermined by the researcher. In addition, social validity measures indicate that the students and teachers preferred "Response Buddy" and that they believed the writing evolved and improved by using this graphic organizer. A discussion of the results, as well as limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and implications for practice, are all included in this chapter.

Answer to Research Question

The researcher chose to use a multiple probe design across participants. Gast and Ledford (2010) state that multiple baseline and multiple probe designs are good fits for educational settings due to the flexibility of the designs, the control they provide in

regards to threats to internal validity, and their practicality for teachers who need their research to be "wholly compatible with instructional or therapy activities" (p. 277). A functional relation in this type of design can be shown if: a) there is an immediate change in level or trend when the dependent variable is introduced; b) no change in level or trend is seen in participant data while in baseline; and c) this is replicated across three or more tiers (Gast and Ledford, 2010). Because the intervention is not withdrawn and reintroduced in this type of design, it does not allow for intra-subject replication. Therefore, replicating the effects across three or more participants is crucial in order to achieve inter-subject reliability. In the current study, the effects were replicated across nine different participants in two different grades. While participants' learning histories and styles were somewhat similar, their differences help to improve the external validity of the intervention as well. The previous chapter presented the results from each participant individually. A discussion of each participant's performance will be included here.

First grade.

***Callie*.** Callie was the first student in first grade to be introduced to the independent variable (i.e., "Response Buddy"). The researcher chose Callie not only because her data appeared stable, but because the researcher (also Callie's teacher) knew from experience that she generally responded quickly to new tasks. In the classroom, Callie generally mastered skills quickly and easily, and the researcher believed she would quickly respond to intervention. Because of this and because of the small range of variability, the researcher decided to begin intervention with her first.

During the three days of instruction, Callie listened attentively and was able to work fairly independently on the third day of instruction when the researcher had her attempt to complete a "Response Buddy" as independently as possible (see Appendix F for the script). The researcher did have to provide feedback on writing an opinion, and she reminded Callie to write numbers on "Response Buddy" to help her remember to include all of the words when transferring the information to lined paper.

When data collection began in the intervention condition (i.e., after the three days of instruction), Callie's data immediately showed improvement in level and trend, though it took several days for her to meet criterion (i.e., she scored three out of four on three consecutive days before scoring four out of four on three consecutive days). One of the reasons for this was the difficult time she had understanding and including the "reason for the connection" element. For example, on the first day of data collection, she wrote, "I read the book *Pete the Cat*. It made me think about shoes. I made this connection because the shoes turned different colors."

On the second day of data collection in intervention, Callie wrote, "I read the book *Don't Forget to Come Back*. It made me think about forgetting my shoes. I made this connection because the girl was funny." The researcher's feedback to Callie at the end of these session included having her think about *what* was it that happened in the book that made her make that connection. The researcher also reviewed the three common types of connections (text-self, text-world, text-text).

During the third session of intervention in which data were collected, she did include the reason for the connection but forgot to transfer the sentence in which the title was given. This was the only time during the whole study that a transfer error kept

someone from obtaining four out of four points. Callie maintained a score of four out of four even during five sessions of the maintenance condition. There is sufficient information for the researcher to conclude that there was a functional relation between the intervention (i.e., use of "Response Buddy") and the quality of written response to literature as determined by the researcher to be the inclusion of the title, connection, reason for the connection, and an opinion.

Dennis. Because Callie met criterion two days before the school system's spring break, the researcher did not begin intervention with Dennis until the Monday when students and teachers returned from the break. During the three days of instruction, Dennis did not ask many questions but appeared to be very attentive while the researcher talked about "Response Buddy" and modeled how to use it. While Dennis made immediate progress in level and met criterion within four days of intervention, his connections, reasons for the connections, and opinions remained very predictable and simple.

During intervention, the researcher would provide reminders about the different types of connections he could make. In the maintenance condition, when feedback was no longer given, the researcher saw his level and trend moving in a contratherapeutic direction, suggesting the importance of feedback for Dennis. He began leaving out the reason for the connection. The last writing sample obtained, Dennis wrote, "I read the book *Scaredy Squirrel*. It made me think about squirrels. I made this connection because a squirrels." By nature, Dennis is a child who is very fearful of taking risks academically. When no feedback was provided, and he couldn't be sure whether or not he was doing it correctly or not, he maintained a very basic, patterned response. Though

the last two of five data points in the maintenance condition showed decline, Dennis's data were stable in baseline and showed an immediate change in level and trend following the introduction of "Response Buddy." This demonstrates a functional relation between the independent and dependent variables.

Allison. Allison maintained a score of one throughout the entire baseline condition. Her samples always began with, "It reminds me of" and she would continue to write that sentence and list item after item (see Appendix K). Her writing samples were very predictable as she included this pattern throughout the condition. Some of the words she included in her sentences could be referenced back to the story; some could not. She always wrote on the front and back and appeared so proud to show the researcher how much she had written. A change in level in a therapeutic direction was immediately seen after "Response Buddy" was introduced. She genuinely appeared to enjoy using it, seemingly aware of how much her writing had improved with him. When the researcher handed one to her during one of the intervention sessions, she exclaimed, "Response Buddy! I love Response Buddy!" She quickly met criterion, scoring four out of four in three consecutive sessions. During four maintenance probes, Allison scored a four on two samples and a three on two samples, indicating a zero celerating trend.

In the samples in which Allison did not receive four points, it was because she had a difficult time conveying the reason for her connection. For example, she wrote, "I read the book *Goldie and the Three Bears*. It made me think about Sponge Bob. I made this connection because I love to sleep in soft and kind of hard beds just like Goldie." In another sample in the maintenance condition, she wrote, "I read the book *Daddy Mountain*. It made me think about the World's Funniest Videos. I made this connection

because I love climbing just like she did." Despite this, the immediate increase in level without any overlap in baseline, demonstrated a functional relation between "Response Buddy" and the overall quality of her written response to literature. An sample of her writing from the intervention phase can be found in Appendix L.

Garrett. Garrett maintained a score of zero during the entire baseline condition. Part of this was due to his frustration about what to do, where to begin, what the researcher expected, etc. Some of this was due to his lack of attention. During the study, Garrett demonstrated a level of inattention and frustration that the other participants did not display. The researcher kept a log of some of these behaviors. This proved to be very helpful in analyzing and thinking about Garrett's progress and the potential reasons for the difficulty he had. For example, on the second day of baseline, the researcher documented Garrett "seemed frustrated." He interrupted the researcher's verbal directions to ask for the date, even though the researcher had given it three times. He wasn't working the whole time, and after 5 minutes, 30 seconds into it, he stated, "I don't know another sentence." The researcher noted that he stopped working at that point.

During the 6th baseline session, Garrett stopped working after 2 minutes, 45 seconds and never started back working. The researcher logged that, during the 9th baseline session, Garrett didn't get started until 5 minutes had passed, that he didn't follow directions to write his name, and that she had to specifically tell him to do it again after she had started giving directions. On the 13th (and final day) of baseline, he did not start writing until approximately 3 minutes had passed. During the 2nd day of instruction during the intervention condition, the researcher had to conduct the session at 1:00 rather than the normal morning reading time because his class had been on a field trip that

morning. The researcher noted decreased attention and wrote that he needed multiple prompts to keep working. He didn't transfer correctly from "Response Buddy" to lined paper, even misspelling words that are included in the prompts on "Response Buddy." The researcher had to remind him to go back and number his sentences on "Response Buddy" so that he wouldn't forget to include anything.

On the first day that the researcher obtained an independent writing sample in the intervention condition, she documented having to give six prompts for Garrett to stay focused, and it took him 35 minutes to complete it before turning it into the researcher. She also noted that he continued to verbalize/perseverate by stating, "it made me think about…I don't know…" then "I don't know…I don't know…I made this connection because…" The researcher also noted transfer issues during this session. In addition, during baseline, Garrett was often finished well before the 10-minute mark in which the researcher collected the samples. During the next session, the researcher logged that "Garrett's behavior and attitude are a hindrance for him." The researcher had given Garrett 4 prompts to keep working, and, 16 minutes after giving him "Response Buddy," there was nothing on his paper. This was day two of data collection in the intervention condition and when the researcher prompted him again, he got very upset and repeatedly stated, "I can't think of anything. I don't know what to do." Despite multiple attempts from the researcher to reassure and calm him, Garrett just seemed to "shut down." The researcher scored this sample as zero and gave Garrett early feedback, walking through "Response Buddy" with him, prompting and discussing what kinds of answers he could have given, etc., just as she did for every other student after they turned in a writing

sample during the intervention condition. Garrett then wrote answers on the "Response Buddy" and transferred them to lined paper.

During the third day of data collection in the intervention phase, the researcher wrote in her research journal, "Garrett had a different attitude today." During that session, instead of getting frustrated, Garrett verbalized, "I know the movie I want to write; I just can't think of the name." In addition, he remembered to number the sentences on "Response Buddy."

The following session, the researcher could sense that Garrett was becoming a little overstimulated with the noise in the classroom. She allowed him to walk outside for 5-10 minutes to help him get his "thoughts together." When he returned, he stated, "I just need to look at the book one more time." The book that had been read aloud to the students was kept on the table in front of them during all condition. Though the researcher never addressed whether or not the students could look through it, no one ever asked until Garrett. Therefore, the researcher allowed him to do so. It took him 58 minutes to complete the writing sample on this day.

The researcher journaled that, during the next session, Garrett needed 8 prompts to stay focused and complete the task. The researcher noted that he paused after completing each line and that he wrote the first sentence and then started playing with his pencil. She also noted that he had transferring difficulty and low task persistence. During the last session in intervention, Garrett needed only two prompts to stay focused. In addition, the researcher journaled that he was "more compliant and did the connection right away."

One reason for Garrett's frustration may have been his handwriting difficulty. Though at first glance his handwriting may be illegible (see Appendix M), even those unfamiliar with his writing are able to read it once they take the time. That said, writing is a laborious task for him and one that may cause him frustration. While he struggled with getting started during the first day of intervention, there was an abrupt, immediate change in level in a therapeutic direction. Prior to the study, Garrett had always demonstrated an ability to quickly learn and use graphic organizers in his writing. Because of the ease in which he does this, the researcher was not surprised with the immediate improvement in the organization and content of Garrett's writing. During the next four sessions, Garrett scored four out of four on three of four sessions. Due to time constraints, only one maintenance probe was given; however, he scored a four on it. Interesting to note is the average amount of time it took Garrett to complete writing samples in the various conditions (see Figure 3). During baseline, he was consistently finished well before the researcher allowed students to turn in writing samples (i.e., not before 10 minutes had passed). During the intervention condition, the mean time it took him to complete the writing samples was 44 minutes, and the maintenance probe collected took him 25 minutes. This suggests that not having some type of direction or organization was perhaps frustrating for Garrett, especially over time, as he was in the baseline condition for 12 sessions.

While he was apparently frustrated when first exposed to "Response Buddy," his performance improved while his time eventually decreased to a more typical level for the participants in the study (i.e., around 20-25 minutes). Although there was one overlapping data point between baseline and intervention, given the circumstance, there

was enough evidence to suggest a functional relation between the independent and dependent variables. Appendix N is one of Garrett's writing samples from the intervention condition.

Cameron. During the initial baseline probe, Cameron received a score of two out of four. For the remainder of the baseline condition (i.e., 16 more sessions), Cameron scored a zero. Though the first sample included complete thoughts and sentences, the rest of the baseline samples appeared to be lists of words, some of which appeared to be words from the story (see Appendix O). During the first few sessions during baseline, he would ask questions such as, "When is 10 minutes gonna be over?" or "When is it gonna be over?"

The longer he was in baseline, the less amount of time he spent actually writing (i.e., during the 8th session of baseline, he stopped writing at the four minute mark and did not start back). During instruction, Cameron appeared to be almost relieved to finally have some type of graphic organizer to use. He was "all smiles" as the researcher explained "Response Buddy" to him and modeled how to use it to help him organize his thoughts. There was an immediate, abrupt change when Cameron was exposed to "Response Buddy." He had a difficult time remembering to include the reason for the connection during the first two sessions of intervention; however, he was able to meet criterion within five sessions.

A definitive change in the mean amount of time it took him to complete the writing sample was also seen. During baseline, Cameron was usually finished well before the 10-minute mark. In intervention, that time increased to 31.8 minutes, suggesting he was thinking more about the content and organization of his sample. In

addition to these changes, there was an overall difference in the aesthetic quality of Cameron's writing (See Appendix P). One teacher, when reading and ranking the participant's writing samples inquired about the difference in Cameron's writing samples by asking, "Is this a year's worth of progress?" Due to time constraints, no maintenance probes were given. Because of the immediate, abrupt change in level and trend and no overlapping data points between baseline and intervention, the researcher concluded that a functional relation could be determined.

Second grade.

Originally, there were five participants from second grade that were to be included in the study, and all of these students were probed during the baseline condition. Once data were found to be stable, the researcher began instruction with one student, Marcus. When the researcher pulled out "Response Buddy," Marcus excitedly exclaimed, "Hey! I did this last year!" After confirming with his teacher, his session was aborted. Without any further introduction or instruction, the researcher read the story to him, gave him a "Response Buddy," and asked him to see what he could remember about completing a "Response Buddy." This is what the researcher did for the other students in her classroom who had been exposed to "Response Buddy" during the 2010-2011 school year. Their results will be discussed later in this chapter.

April. Because intervention with Marcus was aborted, the researcher began the instruction part of the intervention condition with April. Her baseline data were headed in a contratherapeutic direction, and based on classroom experience, the researcher knew April generally learned new concepts quickly and easily. April listened attentively during the three days of instruction, and she made immediate progress, demonstrated by

an abrupt change in the level of her data. She continued this score of four out of four elements, meeting criterion in three sessions and maintaining this score throughout seven sessions of maintenance. Despite a change in the normal intervention time one morning (i.e., due to a field trip), her progress remained consistent. Because of this change in a therapeutic direction and the fact that no data overlapped between baseline and intervention, a functional relation was determined.

Mary. Mary's data were somewhat variable during the first part of the baseline condition. However, the second half of data during baseline indicated a zero celerating trend, with the last four sessions revealing scores of zero. Because April met criterion a few days before the school system's spring break, the researcher did not begin intervention with Mary until after everyone returned. She too demonstrated an immediate, abrupt change in level in a therapeutic direction when "Response Buddy" was introduced. The fact that she met criterion within three days and maintained a score of four during five maintenance sessions signaled to the researcher that this was a helpful tool for Mary to use to organize her writing. Mary is a child who needs a lot of feedback and approval. During all conditions and multiple sessions per condition, Mary would often blurt out comments such as, "I forgot what it means, this 'I made a connection'…Is that right Ms. Lindsay? I did it that fast…I'm getting faster at this. I can spell connection without looking at the paper." Mary did seem to enjoy using "Response Buddy" however, asking during one session, "Are we doing 'Response Buddy' again?" When the researcher responded "Yes," Mary stated, "Yeah! I like him!" A functional relation was determined based on the change in level in a therapeutic direction and the fact that there was no overlap between baseline and intervention.

Ashley. Ashley's decline in baseline scores from a two in the first two sessions to a one remained consistent throughout the remainder of the baseline condition (i.e., eight sessions). The level change from baseline to intervention was an immediate change, but there was a fair amount of variability during intervention, and Ashley was in intervention for nine sessions before criterion was achieved.

There were several factors that may have contributed to this longer intervention condition. One reason is Ashley's short attention span. During classroom activities and, during this intervention, the researcher constantly had to remind Ashley to stay focused or pay attention. The researcher noted multiple transfer errors in Ashley's paper, though none of them affected her score. Perhaps the most influential reason though, was the unavoidable inconsistency that occurred during the intervention condition. Ashley's first independent writing sample during intervention was collected on a Friday, and she completed another one the following Monday. During the third day of intervention in which data were collected, Ashley's class was going on a field trip, so the researcher had to collect a writing sample at 8:00 instead of the normal reading time. Ashley was able to finish the "Response Buddy" and was able to transfer the first two elements of "Response Buddy" onto lined paper.

Because her class did not return until late that afternoon, the researcher had her complete the transfer on the following day. Therefore, it happened that she had to skip one day of completing a new writing sample in order to finish hers from the day before. There was only one more school day that week in which a writing sample was collected because the school system was taking off Good Friday and the Monday after Easter. That next school week, everyone was off on Monday, then Ashley was absent on Tuesday. On

Wednesday, the researcher was absent with a sick child. Therefore, Ashley went from 4-5 to 4-12 without any probes. It is helpful to know and understand these different factors when analyzing her data and understanding a possible reason why it took her nine sessions to meet criterion. Even then, however, Ashley's data revealed an immediate change in a therapeutic direction from baseline to intervention, with no overlapping data between the two conditions. In addition, she was probed twice (due to time constraints), and she maintained a score of four on both of those samples. Given this information, the researcher can determine there is a functional relation between independent and dependent variables.

George. George remained in baseline for 16 sessions. There was some variability in his data; however, the second half remained stable at 1, with a zero celerating trend and then fell to a zero for the last two data points, signaling a contratherapeutic trend. George had lots of questions during the baseline and intervention conditions, wanting approval from the researcher that he was doing everything correctly. George listened attentively during the instructional time and seemed to enjoy completing a "Response Buddy" to help him organize his writing.

Once intervention began, there was an immediate increase in level and an accelerating trend in a therapeutic direction. He completed his third day of data collection during intervention on a Friday. He was absent every day the following week due to the flu. When he returned the next Monday, his score dropped back down to two, overlapping with some points in the baseline condition. This drop in his score could very well have been due to a week of no instruction/exposure as well as simply not feeling as

well as he normally did. This hypothesis was supported during the following two days of intervention in which there was a change in level and trend, in a therapeutic direction.

Although George met criterion in five sessions, given the drop in data level, the researcher probed him an additional time, and level was maintained. Due to time constraints, no maintenance probes were given. Given the fact that an immediate change was seen following the introduction of the intervention and that the percentage of overlapping data points between baseline and intervention was small, the researcher determined that a functional relation did exist between the dependent and independent variables.

Summary. The multiple probe design across participants requires that a researcher show at least three demonstrations of effect. The researcher showed demonstrations of effect for all nine participants, thereby showing a functional relation between the independent and dependent variables as well as replication of effect. Immediate changes were seen in level and/or trend for all students, and only two participants' data (i.e., Garrett and George) displayed an overlap between the two conditions. For those two students, the percentage was small and only occurred during one session. Giving the facts and circumstances surrounding both of those cases, the evidence strongly suggests the intervention was effective in improving the quality of written responses to literature of these nine students who were considered to be at risk for literacy problems.

The fact that the researcher was able to go back through notes and anecdotal information and find correlations between scores and behaviors or extenuating circumstances is an advantage of single subject designs (Gast, 2010). The students are

able to become more than a number, and, in this study, the reasons that some students did not have "typical" responses as compared to the other tiers, can be explained and described in detail because of the type of design used.

In general, the researcher noted a few patterns. As a group, the first graders appeared to have a more difficult time grasping the concept of including a reason for their connection. It was also interesting to note that, particularly with the first graders, when no type of structure was given, they created their own, though it was ineffective. This was especially true for Allison, Garrett, and Cameron as they were in the baseline condition the longest.

For example, Dennis and Garrett (to some extent) started to simply retell parts of the story, a common occurrence when young children write responses to literature (See Appendix Q and Appendix M). Allison created a pattern for herself of repeatedly writing the sentence, "It reminds me of ____." (see Appendix K). Though she filled the front and back of her lined paper, this structure she had created for herself was inefficient and ineffective in producing a quality piece of writing. Cameron's was probably the most bizarre pattern though. From the second day in baseline to the last day in baseline, he wrote what appeared to be two columns of lists with keywords from the story (see Appendix O).

Students in the researcher's second grade class, who had been in the researcher's first grade class and had been exposed to "Response Buddy," were not eligible to be participants in this study. However, the researcher was curious to know if those students, without any type of instruction or reminder on how to use "Response Buddy," would remember how to complete one after almost a year's time. All of the students appeared to

remember the procedures for completing "Response Buddy." Of the five students who completed this task, one student had a score of three (i.e., included three elements); three students scored a two, and one student had a score of one. More specifically, four students included the title; two students included a connection, and four students included an opinion. None of the students included a reason for a connection. Because it had been almost a year since the students were exposed to "Response Buddy," the researcher was generally pleased with the results. However, this was a reflection of the challenges that were also seen during the study (i.e., overall, the most difficult element for the students to master was including the reason for a connection).

Discussion on Social Validity

All but two of the first graders and all of the second graders stated that they liked using "Response Buddy" better than simply listening to a story and immediately writing on lined paper. Garrett stated, "It makes me smarter by thinking and writing. It's got a lot of stuff to do." Cameron said, "It was better than just doing the sheet because you got to learn more." Dennis and Callie were the ones that stated they preferred writing a response to literature without "Response Buddy." Callie replied, "It's funner listening to the book and putting it on lined paper. I didn't like having to put what I liked and didn't like." She did, however, point to the head and the neck on the picture of "Response Buddy" on the survey and say, "I liked doing that though." Dennis remarked that he preferred writing a response to literature without "Response Buddy" because, "you gotta write more, and you gotta listen." Four of the five first graders said that using the "Response Buddy" helped them to write a better response to literature. Garrett stated that, "it has lot of stuff on it. It's like you're writing on regular paper, but it has stuff you

can write." Cameron said, "It helped me with my capital letters and periods and underlining the book, and it helped me by learning how to write words, like big words, like the title." Dennis, who actually preferred not using "Response Buddy," admitted on the survey that he thought it helped him write a better response to literature. When asked why, he said, "it helped you not forget what you were gonna put." Callie was the only first grade who said she thought listening to a story and writing on lined paper helped her write the best response to literature. When probed, she said, "because 'Response Buddy' doesn't have lines, and lined paper helps me write straighter."

All of the second graders preferred using "Response Buddy" and thought that it helped them write a better response to literature. When asked why she preferred it, April stated, "You can retell the story on 'Response Buddy' and then write on lined paper. 'Response Buddy' helps me remember the stories, and words are right and then I write on lined paper." Mary said, "because it was fun!" All believed that it helped them write a better response. Ashley stated "it had what you liked and didn't like and had an ending and what you thought about. It helped me better to write on that first then on lined paper." Mary said, "You had the words and you sort them out, and it helped me with my writing. It helped me write better because it had the head, neck…."

The fact that most students preferred using "Response Buddy" to help plan and organize their writing was not surprising for the researcher. They are accustomed to having some type of graphic organizer to help them with these tasks prior to writing on lined paper. This was especially evident during baseline when, for example, Mary asked, "Why can't we have a circle map?" Ashley replied, "I wish we could, but we can't." George then said, "If I had a circle map, I could plan and organize." It was interesting for

the researcher to note that her students had begun to internalize the need to plan and organize their writing and that it was truly a struggle for them when the researcher did not initially provide a way for them to do this. Other comments throughout the intervention included, "I wish I could do this every day!" and "Where's Ms. Lindsay? I'm ready to do Response Buddy!" On another occasion, Mary exclaimed, "I did it THAT fast…I'm getting faster at this" and "I can spell connection without looking at this paper." The researcher also noted that some of the students began to want to experiment with using "Response Buddy." For example, during one session, Mary remarked, "I could say, *the book* made me think about, not *it*." During a different session, Mary was attempting to create a compound sentence, and she posed the question, "Can I do a comma after this (i.e., pointing to the head) and do the rest of that?" (i.e., pointing to the neck). Garrett, during one session, independently marked through the words "I liked" and wrote, "I didn't like everything." This was promising for the researcher, as it implied a sense of comfort with the process and that the students were beginning to demonstrate more creativity and originality.

Teachers who read and ranked the writing samples were asked to give their impressions and thoughts. One teacher commented, "It was amazing to see the progress the students were able to make in their writing skills." Another commented, "I can tell some of the lower achievers. They need a map because some of their writing doesn't flow. The maps keep their information organized, get it going." The special education teacher wanted to know if Cameron's writing showed a year's worth of growth. In addition, she stated, "You can tell it goes from narrative to response to literature…some of their samples just retell the story. We talk about all these genres, and the kids don't

know how to transition. It's too much for them. I can see in some of these where there is a clear opening sentence, then something they liked and didn't like about the book, and then a closing sentence with a 'feeling' word. As a teacher, these are the pieces I was looking for in a response to literature." The EIP teacher commented, "I could tell as soon as there was instruction or structure provided. It went from a story to more of a response." She also commented specifically about Cameron's baseline samples by saying, "It wasn't really a response to a story. It became a list."

The instructional lead teacher remarked, "I saw growth in every subject and saw their structure develop over time. I could tell they were making personal connections." A kindergarten teacher who teaches a collaborative classroom (i.e., both general and special education students) stated, "I thought some had really good connections. The organization in some of them was very logical…an opening statement, going through their reasoning, etc. It shows me that good writing ***can*** be done at this age."

Schwartz and Baer (1991) claimed that the measure of social validity wasn't about evaluating the intervention. Instead, the purpose is to provide credibility to the research. This is done through surveys, interviews, and reports, etc. from the participants and those who may see the results (Schwartz & Baer, 1991; Wolf, 1978). Both participants and teachers provided positive feedback for "Response Buddy" and the writing that was a product of it. This was done through surveys, interviews, and the order in which writing samples were ranked. Anecdotal information and participants' quotes that the researcher documented throughout the study were also used to support the measure of social validity.

Limitations of Study

Design. There were multiple limitations in this study. For instance, the type of design used in this study was one limitation. The multiple probe design across participants does not allow for intrasubject replication because the independent variable is introduced only once to each participant (Gast & Ledford, 2010). In addition, while the participants involved were enrolled in the researcher's reading class and some of the information regarding learning style and academic achievement was reported, it would have been helpful to have conducted and reported some type of formal intelligence scores for each participant as well.

Intervention. After the study began, the researcher realized that perhaps there were not enough instruction days built into the intervention. Ideally, the researcher would have used three days for modeling the completion of "Response Buddy." Doing this would have allowed her to model each type of connection that is commonly demonstrated at this age (i.e., text-self, text-world, text-text). Instead, the researcher modeled a think-aloud of each type of connection but chose to write about only one during the first day of instruction.

The researcher used a systematic method for choosing books to use for each session during the study. Perhaps there should have been certain books reserved for the instruction/modeling days. This would have helped to control for any threats to validity that may have occurred as an effect of book length, topic, etc., as each participant would have had a similar experience during those important few days. Every student, for instance, would have listened to the same books during his/her time to go through the

instruction stage of the intervention phase. There was also variation related to the length of books read aloud. This may have impacted the students' ability to attend. It would have been helpful to have timed how long it took to read each book beforehand and only use books that fell within a certain time frame to help control for this limitation.

Another area during the intervention condition that was difficult to control for was the type of feedback given. In the Methods section, the researcher states that feedback would be given regarding what the student did well and what he/she needed to include. The researcher and student would then talk about possible ways missing elements could have been included. Because each individual's responses were unique on various days and different from the other participants' responses, having a set script or prompts was impossible. Still, this was something that could have been a threat to the validity of the study.

Data collection and analysis. In regards to data collection, it was difficult with a scale ranging from 0-4 to fully capture the quality of the writing samples. For example, if a student included all of the elements but used very simple words, etc., he or she would receive the same score (i.e., 4) as a participant who had included a thoughtful, elaborate connection and reason for the connection. While "Response Buddy" was found to improve the quality (as determined by the elements pre-set by the researcher), there were some instances in which the quality of the content appeared to be very mundane and repetitive during the subsequent samples. Having some sort of qualitative measure would have been helpful to control for this. For ease, the researcher could have included a space on the data collection form for the total number of elements used (see Appendix R).

While overlap methods have been used for years to help analyze single-subject data, there have been some recent concerns and criticisms of their use (Haardorfer, 2010), especially the use of PND (Wolery, Busick, Reichow, & Barton, 2010). According to definitions and limits by Scruggs, Mastropieri, and Casto (1987), PND may not have necessarily been the best measure to use when analyzing the results of participants in this study. For example, Scruggs et al. (1987) discuss that PND should not be used when baseline data are all zero or when there is a floor or ceiling effect in which the researcher is aiming for mastery. That said, it did provide helpful information. Understanding that there is to be caution when using overlap methods to analyze data (Haardorfer, 2010; Worley et al., 2010) helps researchers to understand the importance of providing other evidence that a functional relation was present, through the magnitude of change that occurred and replication of effect.

Due to time constraints related to the end of the school year, the researcher was not able to collect at least three maintenance probes on all participants. This is considered a limitation because it is impossible to note if the participants continued to complete Response Buddy accurately and independently after feedback was given. Having this information would have been helpful to compare information within and between students as well as grade levels.

Another limitation was that there was no measure of generalization. The study would have been improved if the researcher had, for instance, collected a writing sample from students with someone else (i.e., the co-teacher) giving the directions during the maintenance phase. Other examples of generalization could have been done by taking samples across genres, prompts, or setting.

The researcher logged and graphed the amount of time each student took to complete his/her writing samples in each condition. The fact that the participants were given as much time as needed to complete the samples could, in fact, be a confounding variable. It could be argued that it was the freedom of time, not the independent variable (i.e., "Response Buddy") that was the reason for the improvement. It would have been interesting for the researcher to set a time limit and then analyze and compare the results.

Social validity. The researcher created and presented the brief survey used to help measure social validity among the participants. Because the researcher was also the teacher and the students may have felt some loyalty to her, this could have impacted the way they voted and/or comments they made. It may have been more valid if someone else had presented this survey and asked the questions.

Teacher as researcher. One of the most obvious limitations to this study was the fact the researcher was also the co-teacher in the classroom. Herr and Anderson (2005) provide insight into the challenges of this type of research with their statement that, "Most doctoral students are formally trained in quantitative and qualitative research methods and seldom encounter an action research course." There was no way for the researcher to prepare fully for how this dynamic would change her classroom for a time as well as the challenges that would arise from the dual responsibilities of being the teacher and researcher.

Nealy (2003) described the difficulties of balancing the responsibilities of being both the teacher and the researcher, as the duties of the teacher come first and foremost. Lesson plans continue to be required; behavior plans have to be implemented, and meetings and professional development are still required. The boundaries imposed by

this new role of "researcher" caused great difficulty at times not only for the researcher but for the students as well. The students were required to adjust to the researcher transitioning back and forth between someone who could answer questions and provide feedback (i.e., teacher) to the researcher, whose answers appeared very scripted and whose feedback was minimal. This was visibly frustrating for some students at times. Despite wearing the tag with the words, "Sorry! I can't answer any questions," some students, particularly Mary, Ashley, and George, continued to try and have questions answered as well as to seek approval and affirmation. Examples of this included Mary stating, "I can't remember how to spell the word ____" or, "Ms. Lindsay, this time I remembered to underline the title!" Because the students were accustomed to receiving feedback and encouragement from the "teacher," it was difficult for them to see the researcher in this new role at times.

It was also difficult for the researcher not to display any bias, partiality, or preconceived notions towards the intervention in question and/or the students. Any researcher wants his or her intervention to be successful; this is a global truth. There were times when the researcher had to resist the urge to let knowledge about her students' abilities and prior performance levels make her lose objectivity, patience, or prompt them in ways that would compromise the integrity of the research. For example, if the researcher knew a student was rushing through the assignment or omitting items from "Response Buddy," it was difficult not to give feedback or instruction.

Future Research Ideas

There are numerous ways in which this study could be expanded in the future and also ways that the effectiveness of "Response Buddy" could be examined. First of all,

having some type of qualitative component to assess the quality of the written content, beyond whether or not certain elements were used would be helpful. This could be done by categorizing responses into types of connections made or having different raters rank the complexity of the connection based on a rubric prepared ahead of time. In addition, incorporating scaffolding techniques in which the words (and perhaps eventually the graphic organizer itself) were phased out to assess students' ability to internalize the organization could prove to be very interesting. Also, while single subject research designs are often used by practitioners, it would be relatively simple to incorporate this intervention into a group design to either compare against a group using no graphic organizer or a group using a different graphic organizer. Finally, this study incorporated only fiction books. Incorporating non-fiction books in some way could help expand this study's results.

Implications for Classroom

While difficult, wearing both a teacher and researcher "hat" also has its benefits. One of the most obvious reasons is that, when something was not working well during the study, the "teacher" was making notes of how to remediate the problem when he or she incorporates the intervention into the classroom. Knowing this, there are multiple implications for how this intervention and the results of this study could impact a reading/language arts classroom. While there was a functional relation demonstrated and replicated using the procedures given, some suggested changes/modifications to help make students more successful would be teachers modeling and incorporating more think-alouds. This would allow the teacher to model the three most common types of connections (text-self, text-text, text-world) at least once if not more. Doing this, the

teacher could then encourage the students during subsequent days to try and make one of each of these types of connections while the teacher monitored. This would ensure that understanding of the different types of connections was present.

The researcher noted during the study that there was no place for students to write their names. Students in primary and early elementary grades often forget this if no prompt is given, so revising "Response Buddy" to include this would be helpful. In addition, incorporating a rubric for the students to use upon completion to ensure each element is included could help foster student success.

"Response Buddy" is easy to use in a large- or small-group format, and it is a graphic organizer that is easy to adapt. In addition, its composition provides natural "teaching moments." For example, each body part lends itself to a new sentence. Therefore, the teachers are able to encourage students to remember writing conventions. In addition, teachers could differentiate for their students who are higher-achieving or provide increased complexity by teaching new ways to give opinions by discussing adjectives, "feeling words," etc. To help expand students' thoughts and increase length and sentence complexity, a lesson on "chain words" (i.e., conjunction, prepositions, etc.) and compound sentences could be incorporated. For example, students could be taught to write, "I liked ____ because ____."

Students who struggle with writing and are involved in response to intervention (RtI) for writing may benefit from a graphic organizer as structured as this, and using the definitions and scoring checklist provided, it would be easy for teachers to track progress. For some students, however, this type of scripted graphic organizer may seem inhibiting, and their sense of creativity may, in fact, feel squelched. Teachers should use caution

when tempted to overgeneralize results from any research study. With this study in particular, it would be important for teachers to obtain some type of baseline writing sample. Not all students may necessarily benefit from something this predictable. That said, scaffolding can also be done in which written prompts are removed so that the reminder of the organization is there, but students are allowed to begin using their own words as cognitive processes become free to foster creativity.

Finally, although the new Common Core Standards do not explicitly have a unit on writing responses to literature as has been a part of some state standards in the past (i.e., Georgia Performance Standards), students are required to "make connections to text." The researcher agrees with the sentiments expressed by Watanabe and Hall-Kenyon (2011) when they stated that young children, regardless of ability level, should "engage in and be given support in developmentally appropriate writing experiences" (p. 291), including writing from all types of genres. Watanabe and Hall-Kenyon (2011) also shared their belief that writing instruction for young children should focus not only the written product, but the process of writing itself. "Response Buddy" has the ability to engage and support students of all abilities in the process of writing responses to literature. It is a tool that is able to provide a fun, meaningful way for students to organize their connections to what they have read or heard.

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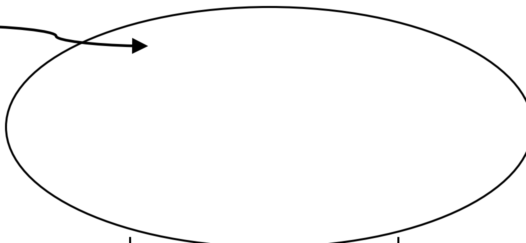
APPENDIX A

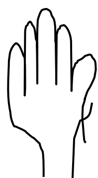
Response Buddy

I read the book ____ .

It made me think about

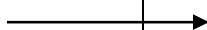


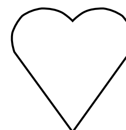
I made this connection
because



I want to know

I liked





I didn't like

I would walk ______ miles to read this book again because

APPENDIX B

Parental Permission Form

I agree to allow my child, ________________________________, to take part in a research study titled, "The Influence of 'Response Buddy' on the Quality Written Responses to Literature by Students Who May Be At-Risk for Literacy Problems" which is being conducted by Lindsay Peaster (706-342-3475) and Dr. Cindy Vail (706-542-4578) from the Department of Communication Sciences and Special Education at the University of Georgia. I understand that my child's participation is voluntary. I can refuse to let my child participate or stop taking part at any time without giving any reason, and without penalty or loss of benefits to which my child is otherwise entitled. I can ask to have all of the information that can be identified as my child's returned to me, removed from the records, or destroyed.

- The reason for this research is to find out how teachers can best learn how to foster success among all students, specifically when teaching written responses to literature.

- If I allow my child to take part, my child's classroom behavior may be observed and recorded and certain test scores already collected by my child's school may be shared with the researchers.

- All research will be conducted in my child's reading/language arts classroom.

- The research is not expected to cause any harm or discomfort. My child can quit at any time. My child's grade will not be affected if my child decides not to participate or to stop taking part.

- Any individually-identifiable information collected about my child will be kept confidential unless otherwise required by law. Mrs. Semrad, co-teacher, and a parent volunteer for our classroom, will assist with data collection, but only Mrs. Peaster will know the identity of the child whose writing sample is being examined. My child's identity will be coded, and all data will be kept in a secured location.

- The researcher (Mrs. Peaster) will answer any questions about the research now, or during the course of the project, and can be reached by telephone at 706-342-3475 or email lindsay.peaster@morgan.k12.ga.us

- I understand the study procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to allow my child to take part in this study. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

_____________________________	_____________________________	___________
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date
_____________________________	_____________________________	___________
Name of Parent	Signature	Date

Please sign both copies, keep one, and return one to the researcher, Mrs. Peaster.

Additional questions or problems regarding your child's rights as a research participant should be addressed to The Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 629 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602; Telephone (706) 542-3199; E-mail irb@uga.edu

APPENDIX C

Student Assent Form

I understand that Ms. Lindsay is working on a degree from the University of Georgia. I understand that I am going to be helping her with a research project involving using a graphic organizer to help me plan and organize my writing after she reads a story to me. I understand that I don't have to do this and that I can stop at any time.

My name: ____

Grade:____________________ Homeroom teacher: _______________________

Date: ____

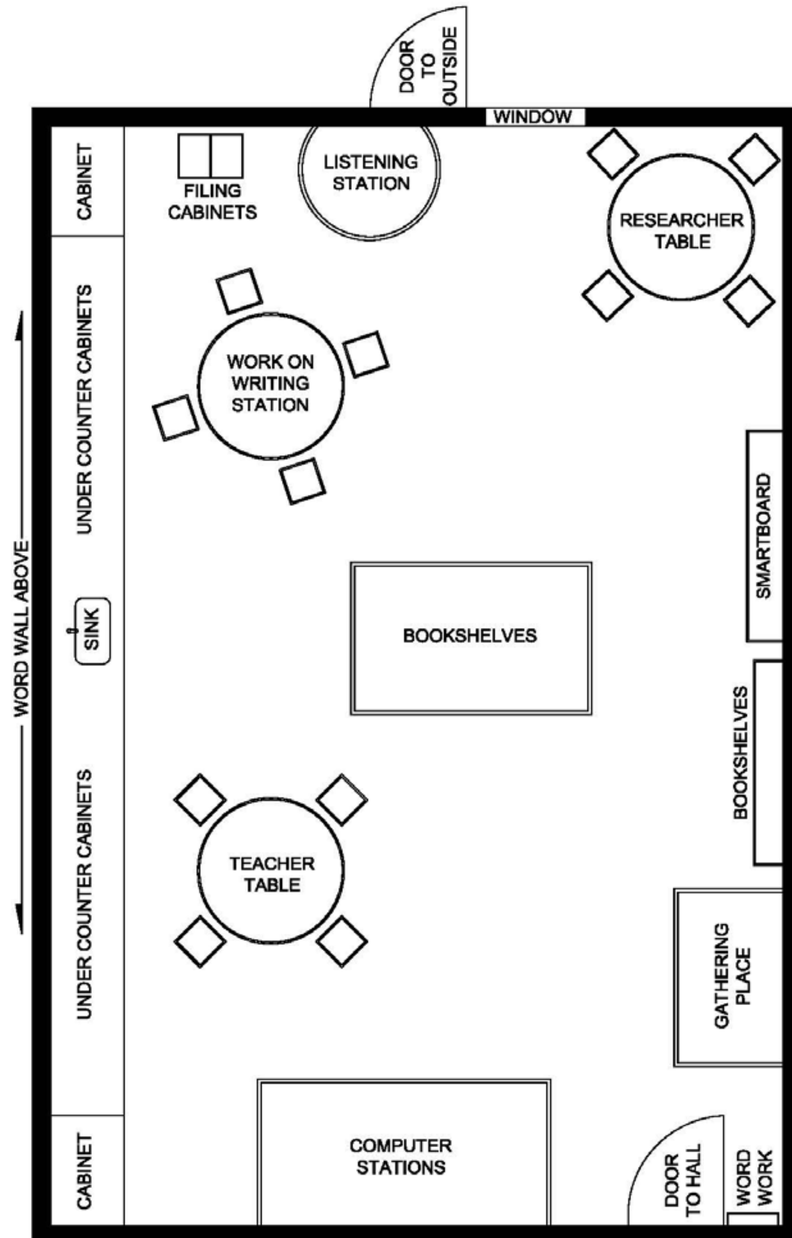
Signature of person obtaining consent: ______________________________Date __________

Printed name of person obtaining consent: ____________________________Date ________

One copy will be given to the researcher (Ms. Lindsay), and one copy will be sent to my parents. Additional questions or problems regarding your child's rights as a research participant should be addressed to The chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; Telephone (706) 542-3199; Email Address IRB@uga.edu

APPENDIX D

Map of Room



APPENDIX E

Book List

ORDER OF BOOKS	
BOOKS	**AUTHOR**
FIRST GRADE	
1. Don't Be Afraid, Little Pip	Karma Wilson
2. Eleanor, Ellatony, Ellencake, and Me	C.M. Rubin
3. Miss Brooks Loves Books! (And I Don't)	Barbara Bottner
4. Annie Was Warned	Jarrett Krosoczka
5. A Trip to Dinosaur Time	Michael Foreman
6. Fancy Nancy (first one) from 2007 list	Jane O' Connor
7. Pete the Cat: I Love My White Shoes	Eric Litwin
8. Don't Forget to Come Back	Robie Harris
9. It's Not Fair	Carl Sommer
10. Firefighter Ted	Andrea Beaty
11. Fly Guy #4: There was an Old Lady Who Swallowed Fly Guy	Tedd Arnold
12. The Hair of Zoe Fleefenbacher Goes to School	Laurie Halse Anderson
13. City Dog, Country Frog	Mo Willems
14. Memoirs of a Goldfish	Devin Scillian
15. Night Cat!	Margaret Beames
16. Bad Boys Get Cookie	Margie Palatini
17. Crazy Hair Day	Barney Saltzberg
18. The Ugly Pumpkin	Dave Horowitz
19. Duck, Duck, Goose	Tad Hills
20. Pigs Rock	Melanie Davis Jones
21. Knuffle Bunny	Mo Willems
22. Beatrice Doesn't Want To	Laura Numeroff
23. Shark vs. Train	Chris Barton and Tom Litchenheld
24. The Perfect Pet	Margie Palatini
25. Stinky Smelly Feet: A Love Story	Margie Palatini
26. Larabee	Kevin Luthardt
27. The Gingerbread Pirates	Kristin Kladstrup
28. Dogs Don't Do Ballet	Anna Kemp
29. Grumpy Bird	Jeremy Tankard
30. Quiet!	Paul Bright
31. How Do Dinosaurs Go to School	Jane Yolen
32. The Daddy Mountain	Jules Feiffer
33. Born Yesterday: The Diary of a Young Journalist	James Solheim

34. How Do Dinosaurs Eat Their Food	Jane Yolen
35. Diary of a Worm	Doreen Cronin
36. Kitty Princess and the Newspaper Dress	Emma Carlow and Trevor Dickson
37. Even Monsters Need Haircuts	Matthew McElligott
38. Scaredy Squirrel	Melanie Watt
39. Tumble Bunnies	Kathryn Lasy
40. Finklehopper Frog	Irene Livingstone
41. Chester	Melanie Watt
42. It's Not My Fault	Nancy Carlson
43. Cool Dog, School Dog	Deborah Heiligman and Tim Bowers
44. The Perfect Nest	Catherine Friend
45. Mouse was Mad	Linda Urban
46. Goldie and the Three Bears	Diane Stanley
Second Grade	
1. Kitty Princess and the Newspaper Dress	Emma Carlow and Trevor Dickson
2. Stinky Smelly Feet: A Love Story	Margie Palatini
3. Panda Bear, Panda Bear, What Do You See?	Bill Martin, Jr.
4. Charlie and Lola: But Excuse Me That is My Book	Lauren Child
5. Santa Claus: the World's Number One Toy Expert	Marla Farzee
6. Baby Brains: The Smartest Baby in the Whole World	Simon James
7. The Gingerbread Cowboy	Janet Squires
8. A Trip to Dinosaur Time	Michael Foreman
9. Those Darn Squirrels	Adam Rubin
10. Albert's Impossible Toothache	Barbara Williams
11. I Am TOO Absolutely Small for School	Lauren Child
12. Which Puppy	Kate Feiffer
13. Moose Tracks!	Karma Wilson
14. Fairytale News	Colin and Jacqui Hawkins
15. Rooster Can't Cock-a-Doodle-Doo	Karen Rostoker-Gruber
16. Gator Gumbo: A Spicy-Hot Tale	Candace Fleming
17. Aliens are Coming	Meghan McCarthy
18. Five Little Monkeys Go Shopping	Elieen Christelow
19. Excuse Me…Are You a Witch?	Emily Horn
20. Dogs Don't Do Ballet	Anna Kemp
21. The Secret Science Project that Almost Ate the School	Judy Sierra
22. Pinky's Sweet Tooth	Michele Maulkin
23. Space Station Mars	Daniel San Souci
24. Billy's Bucket	Kes Gray
25. Little Pink Pup	Johanna Kerby

26. Bubble Bath Pirates	Jarrett Krosoczka
27. Grumblebunny	Bob Hartman
28. Millie Waits for the Mail	Alexander Steffensmeier
29. Our Principal Promised to Kiss a Pig	Kalli Dakos and Alicia Des Marteau
30. Dad, Are You the Tooth Fairy?	Jason Alexander
31. Born Yesterday: The Diary of a Young Journalist	James Solheim
32. Bats at the Library	Brian Lies
34. The Hair of Zoe Fleefenbacher Goes to School	Laurie Halse Anderson
35. Ginger Bear	Mini Grey
36. Mister Seahorse	Eric Carle
37. Hippo Goes Bananas	Marjorie Dennis Murray
38. Brand-New Pencils, Brand-New Books	Diane DeGroat
39. Belinda In Paris	Amy Young
40. Deep in the Swamp	Donna Bateman
41. Eleanor, Ellatony, Ellencake, and Me	C.M. Rubin

APPENDIX F

Scripts/Procedures

Baseline/Probe Phase

Session One

______The researcher will define what “literature” is for the purpose of our discussion (children’s books) and show examples (various children’s books).

______ The researcher will then show children examples of what literature is not (writing on a pencil, a reading log, a calendar, etc.)

______The researcher will discuss what it means to “respond to literature” (e.g., “think about what the story means to you, what it reminds you of and why, how it makes you feel, whether or not you like it, and if you would recommend it to a friend”).

_____The researcher will read a story to the students, using appropriate intonation and enthusiasm. See Appendix E for book list for each session.

______ The researcher will give pencils and lined paper to the students, and folders will be placed between the students on the table to avoid them seeing each other’s work.

_____The researcher will instruct the students to write their name and the date at the top of their paper.

______The researcher will leave the book out on the table so that the title continues to be visible to the students.

_____The researcher will put on the tag with a picture of someone with her finger to her lip that says, “Sorry! I can’t answer any questions.” She will explain to the students that, when she wears this tag, she will not be able to answer any questions.

_____The researcher will then remind the students that they are to write a response to literature and will give the following prompts: “think about what the story means to you, what it reminds you of and why, how it makes you feel, whether or not you like it, and if you would recommend it to a friend.”

______The researcher will give the following direction: “You will have 10 minutes to write your response to the story you just heard. At the end of 10 minutes, if you believe you need more time, I will give you more time to work.” One prompt will be given at the 5 minute mark: “Remember you are writing your response to the story we just read.” No other prompts or feedback will be given during this time. If students ask a question, the teacher will respond: “I cannot answer any questions. Do the best you can.” During this time, the researcher will take anecdotal notes regarding behavior (i.e., attention to task, task persistence, etc.).

______The researcher will collect the papers after 10 minutes. If students insist that they need more time, extra time will be given in 5 minute increments, with a re-evaluation after every 5 minutes. If a student requests more than the allotted 10 minutes, the researcher will include the amount of time needed at the bottom of the sample. The total time to write a response will not exceed 20 minutes. If after 20 minutes, a student still insists he or she is not finished, the researcher will note this at the bottom of the writing sample, but the writing sample will be collected.

Session Two

______The researcher will simply remind the students what they will be doing after the story (i.e., writing a response to literature).

______The researcher will review the prompts from Lesson 1 when she taught what a response to literature could include (e.g., "think about what the story means to you, what it reminds you of and why, how it makes you feel, whether or not you like it, and if you would recommend it to a friend").

_____The researcher will read the next story to the students, using appropriate intonation and enthusiasm. See Appendix E for book list for each session.

______ The researcher will give pencils and lined paper to the students, and folders will be placed between the students on the table to avoid them seeing each other's work.

_____The researcher will instruct the students to write their name and the date at the top of their paper.

______The researcher will leave the book out on the table so that the title continues to be visible to the students.

_____The researcher will put on the tag with a picture of someone with her finger to her lip that says, "Sorry! I can't answer any questions." She will explain to the students that, when she wears this tag, she will not be able to answer any questions.

_____The researcher will then remind the students that they are to write a response to literature and will give the following prompts: "Think about what the story means to you, what it reminds you of and why, how it makes you feel, whether or not you like it, and if you would recommend it to a friend."

______The researcher will give the following direction: "You will have 10 minutes to write your response to the story you just heard. At the end of 10 minutes, if you believe you need more time, I will give you more time to work." One prompt will be given at the 5 minute mark: "Remember you are writing your response to the story we just read." No

other prompts or feedback will be given during this time. If students ask a question, the teacher will respond by saying, "I cannot answer any questions. Do the best you can." During this time, the researcher will take anecdotal notes regarding behavior (i.e., attention to task, task persistence, etc.).

______The researcher will collect the papers after 10 minutes. If students insist that they need more time, extra time will be given in 5 minute increments, with a re-evaluation after every 5 minutes. If a student requests more than the allotted 10 minutes, the researcher will include the amount of time needed at the bottom of the sample. The total time to write a response will not exceed 20 minutes. If after 20 minutes, a student still insists he or she is not finished, the researcher will note this at the bottom of the writing sample, but the writing sample will be collected.

This will occur until an established, stable baseline is reached (i.e., approximately 3-5 data points). Once this occurs, intervention will begin with the first student. Once intervention begins with the first student, these baseline/probe procedures will continue as described above for the other students not in intervention. However, probes will occur less frequently (i.e., no more than twice weekly).

Intervention phase.

Session One

______The researcher will introduce "Response Buddy" as a helpful way for students to remember some important parts of writing a response to literature.

______The researcher will point out that, at the top of the page, there is a blank for the title. She will explain to them that titles of books need to be underlined, and when they see the line, it can help them remember.

______The researcher will draw attention to the sentence prompt pointing to the "Response Buddy" head on which is written, "This made me think about…" The researcher will help the students make the connection that our brains are in our heads, and that's what helps us think.

______The researcher will draw attention to the neck and have students think about how our necks connect our heads to our bodies in a way to help them think about what "con**nec**ts" this story to whatever it made them think of while the researcher was reading.

______The researcher will explain that the raised "hand" should remind students to think about when they have a question and raise their hands. This sentence prompt says, "I want to know…"

______The researcher will then explain the heart for something the students liked about the book.

______The researcher will help the students make the connection between the stomach and "not liking"—how, if our stomachs are hurting, we don't really like anything or want to do anything.

______The researcher will point to the shoes/feet and help them make the connection because the sentence prompt says, "I would walk ____miles to read this book again" The researcher will explain that if they liked the book they can write a big number (as long as they can say it, they can write it). If they didn't like the book, they will give a small number or zero. In addition, they must add why they did/didn't like the book.

______The researcher will read the next story and model a think-aloud about the questions listed on "Response Buddy," stating why she is giving certain answers, etc.

______The researcher will write her answers on the graphic organizer as she goes. These answers will be included on a script which the researcher will have prepared prior to the intervention. The researcher will have these memorized.

______ Following completion of the graphic organizer, the researcher will model numbering the sentence prompts on "Response Buddy" to help her remember the order, thinking aloud as she does this (e.g., "I don't want to forget to number my sentences. This will help me remember the order when I write it on lined paper.")

______Transferring the sentences to lined paper, she will model thinking about remembering to include the sentence prompts, not just her responses (e.g., "If I remember to start at my number each time, I won't forget to include the typed words that are already on my paper. That way I can make sure my sentences are complete").

______At the end of this session, the researcher and student will read the final product (i.e., on lined paper) together.

Session Two

______The researcher will show the student "Response Buddy" and state again that he may be a helpful way for students to remember some important parts of writing a response to literature. ______The researcher will then read a story (See Appendix E).

______The researcher will read the prompts one at a time to the student, waiting for the students to respond before moving to the next prompt.

______When the student responds verbally, the researcher will write the response onto the graphic organizer. If the student has difficulty answering a question, the researcher will prompt with questions such as, "Has something like this ever happened to you?

What did this story make you think about? What did it remind you of? Did a character in the story remind you of someone you know?"

______The researcher will prompt the student write numbers in order on the left side of each typed prompt on "Response Buddy" to help him/her remember not only the order, but also to include the typed words when the student transfers the information to lined paper.

______ The student will then transfer the information from "Response Buddy" to lined paper while the teacher sits at the table with him/her and provides feedback as necessary.

______After each sentence the child transfers correctly, the researcher will respond with, "Great job copying all of the words to your lined paper!" If the student begins a sentence with someone besides the prompt given on the graphic organizer, the researcher will prompt: "Let's check our graphic organizer to make sure we are starting in the right place." If the student still cannot figure out which word to write, the researcher will show him/her so that the student is practicing correctly.

Session Three

______The researcher will read the pre-chosen book (Appendix E)

______The researcher will read the responses for the student from "Response Buddy" and will tell the student to "Complete 'Response Buddy' like we have been practicing and then transfer that information to lined paper." The researcher will sit with the student to be available to answer questions. However, the student will work as independently as possible. If the student does not number his/her sentences, the researcher will prompt him/her to do so. In addition, the researcher will prompt the student if he/she transfers

sentences out of order or begins to leave out the sentence prompts when transferring to lined paper.

Session Four

______The researcher will read the predetermined book, give the "Response Buddy," lined paper, and a pencil to the student, read the prompts, and then read them again.

______The researcher will then say, "I want to see what you can do independently today. The only kind of question I can answer is if you need help reading a word on "Response Buddy."

______The teacher will sit quietly and pretend to be busy while subtly making anecdotal notes during the process.

______After the student transfers the information to lined paper, the researcher will have the student read the final product back to her.

______The researcher will make note of words that are illegible, noting any discrepancies between the written and spoken word.

______The teacher will provide feedback to the student about what was done correctly and /or incorrectly. For example, if a student did not include an element on the graphic organizer, did not transfer it to lined paper, etc., these items will be noted. If elements were not included, the researcher and student will talk about different options/examples the student could have included.

______Once the student has demonstrated a consistent pattern (i.e., at least three demonstrations of inclusion of a reason for a connection), the student will enter the maintenance phase, and the next student will begin the intervention phase. This will continue until all students have received intervention.

Maintenance phase.

Once the student has established a consistent pattern of the criterion variable (i.e., at least 3 demonstrations), the student will enter into the maintenance phase. During this phase, the researcher will collect at least 3 probes to assess maintenance of skills (time permitting). To collect this, the same procedures used to collect independent samples during the intervention condition will be followed; however, feedback will not be provided when samples are collected.

______The researcher will read the predetermined book, give the "Response Buddy," lined paper, and a pencil to the student, read the prompts, and then read them again.

______The researcher will then say, "I want to see what you can do independently today. The only kind of question I can answer is if you need help reading a word on "Response Buddy."

______The teacher will sit quietly and pretend to be busy while subtly making anecdotal notes during the process.

______After the student transfers the information to lined paper, the researcher will have the student read the final product back to her.

______The researcher will make note of words that are illegible, noting any discrepancies between the written and spoken word.

______The researcher will say, "thank you" to the student and collect the writing sample.

APPENDIX G

Checklist for Criterion Variables

Data Collector:

Student: **Grade:** **Book:** **Phase:**

Date:

Inclusion of/reference to book title.

1	0	
There is an obvious attempt to include the title of the book. The student is not to be counted off for misspellings or omitted words.	There is no reference made to the title of the book used.	Score __________

Inclusion of a connection

1	0	
There is some type of connection made to the text (either text-text, text-self, text-world, text to life, etc.) Examples might include, respectively, "this story made me think about my grandma," or "that story is like *The Three Little Pigs*" or "that girl was like Dr. Martin Luther King." If a student makes reference to how a story makes him/her feel (happy, sad, scared, etc.), this will be constituted as a connection. If a student is able to express a way in which he or she is able to make a connection to a character, another story, an experience he or she has had, something that is going on in the world or that has happened in the world, this will constitute as a connection.	No type of connection is made to the story.	Score __________

.

Inclusion of the reason for the connection.

1	0	
The student includes the reason why he/she included the connection made to the story. For example, if the student makes a connection to the story and says, "This story made me think about my grandma," an inclusion of the reason for that connection might be something like "because the grandma in the story made cookies, and my grandma makes cookies."	No reason for the connection is given.	Score __________

Inclusion of the student's opinion of the book.

1	0	
This will be defined as whether or not the student expresses how he/she feels about the book (likes it/does not like it, would recommend it, etc.). The student will not have to use the exact words, "I like" or "I didn't like." If there is reference made to the child's opinion of the book, this will be counted as an opinion given.	No opinion is given.	Score __________

Total Score: _____________

APPENDIX H

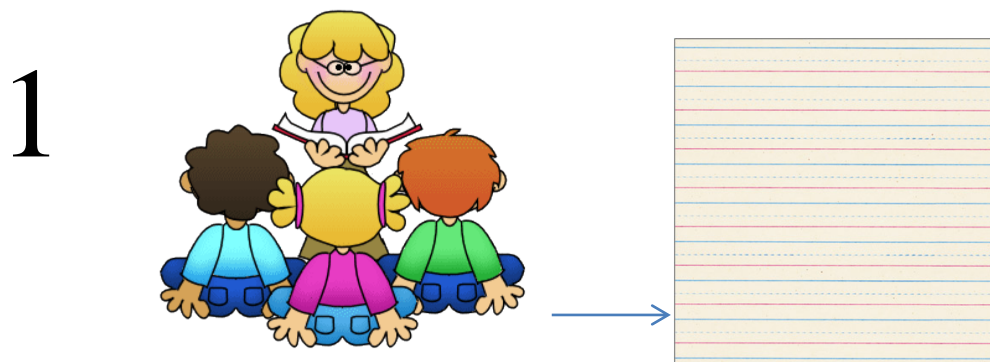
Participant Survey

Name:

Which did you like better?

Listening to a story then writing a response to literature on lined paper

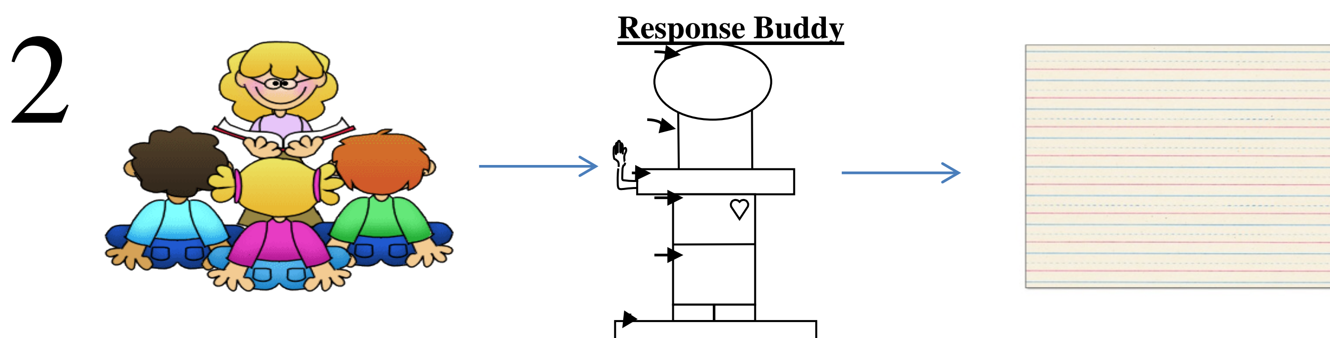
1



or

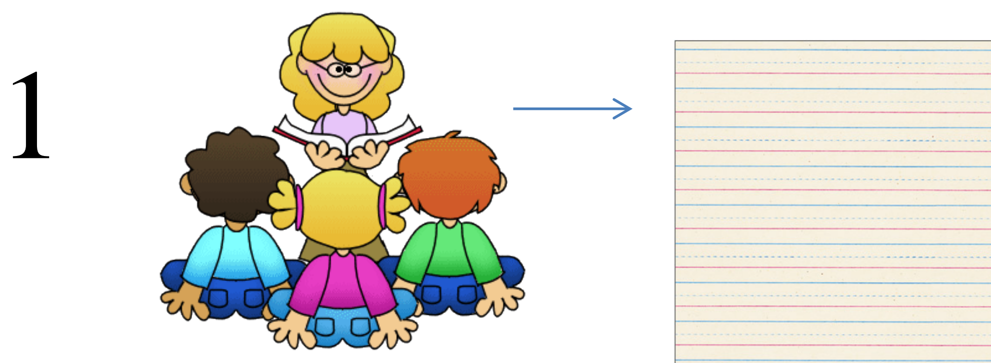
Listening to a story, completing a Response Buddy, then writing a response to literature on lined paper

2



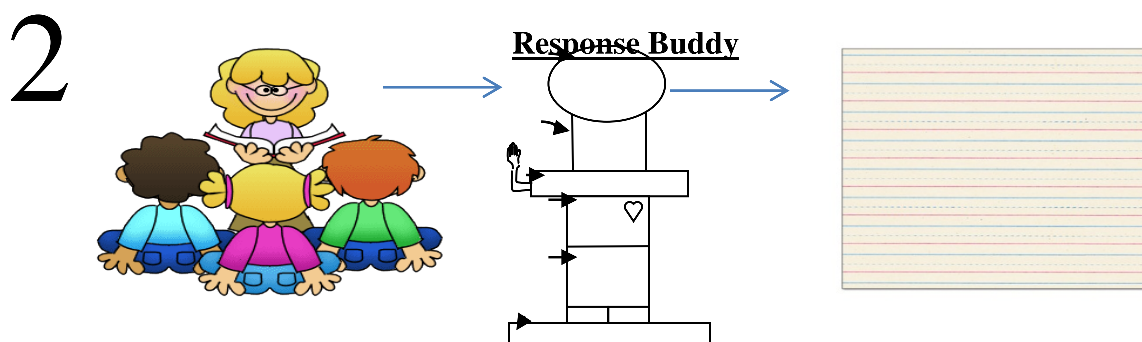
Which one do you think helped you write a better response to literature?

Listening to a story then writing a response to literature on lined paper



or

Listening to a story, completing a Response Buddy, then writing a response to literature on lined paper



APPENDIX I

Teacher Directions

Thank you for agreeing to help me out with this!

Attached you will find 4-6 writing samples from 9 different students.

Please rank them in order of quality (#1 being best, #2 being second best, etc.)

Please write the letter of the writing sample beside the corresponding number.

Please do not take spelling, sentence structure, or punctuation into consideration.

Consider organization, content, and overall quality of written response to literature.

Thank you!!

Lindsay

Any other comments you have would be greatly appreciated!

You can include them here or on the other sheet. If the comments are in regards to a specific student's writing, please note that.

APPENDIX J

Teacher Score Sheet

Your Name: ______________________

Student: Callie

#1 ____________

#2______________

#3______________

#4______________

#5______________

#6_______________

Student: Dennis

#1 ____________

#2______________

#3______________

#4______________

#5______________

#6_______________

Student: Allison

#1 ____________

#2______________

#3______________

#4______________

#5______________

#6_______________

Student: Garrett

#1 ____________

#2______________

#3______________

#4______________

#5______________

#6_______________

Student: Cameron

#1 ____________

#2______________

#3______________

#4______________

#5______________

#6_______________

Student: April

#1 _____________

#2_______________

#3_______________

#4_______________

#5_______________

#6________________

Student: George

#1 _____________

#2_______________

#3_______________

#4_______________

#5_______________

#6________________

Student: Mary

#1 _____________

#2_______________

#3_______________

#4_______________

#5_______________

#6________________

Student: Ashley

#1 _____________

#2_______________

#3_______________

#4_______________

#5_______________

#6________________

APPENDIX K

Baseline sample-Allison

(reminds)
It reey mans me uv my
coty cat. It reey mans me
uv stars. It reeg mans me uv
my famleey. It reey mans
me uv dogs and cants. It
reey mans me uv my chakx.
It reey mans me uv my
sak. It reey mans me uv
my how m. It reey mans me
uv boox. It reey mans me
uv Pow. It reey mans me u
my mads in sow much.

APPENDIX L

Intervention Sample-Allison

Intervention
4-5-12

I read the book dogs do not play balay. It made me think about Danskla. (dance class) I made this connection becuse I do balay just lik the littl gril and the dog. I want to know wut happned after the littl gril gaved the dog a hug. I liked win the dog danst. I didt like I didt like iny thang. It made me smary.

I would walk 100 mays

to read this book agin

because It made me

smile
smayard.

20 mins

APPENDIX M

Baseline sample-Garrett

2-22-12
Baseline 1

It was a little
penguin
Pigin that was
scared
Scayr of the
water
wawther. She
wanted
wont to fly
in the Sky.
First She met
a white bird
found
Next She fan
a block a white
bird.

15 mins

APPENDIX N

Intervention Sample-Garrett

walk 70 miles to read
this book again becos
it is funny

APPENDIX O

Baseline sample-Cameron

How
Speyete inthe are
Bubel
up
stand
a

Dowc
no
it
milk
on
Chaa

10mins

APPENDIX P

Intervention sample-Cameron

I read The BOOK Cool Dog, School Dog. It made Me think about wen My chihuahua [chowoe] Bark wen Hes [he's] afon [alone]. I Made This Connetion because The Dog in The Book Dosent like to Be Alon like My chuwotu. I want to war [how] Did The Bas go to. I liked wen The Dog mestup The room. I

didn't like wen

the techer seb

That is a Bad Dog.

I wold walk 19 miles

to read this book

again because it

was clasy!

APPENDIX Q

Baseline sample-Dennis

Pet the cat Lovd his
wixt Shos he stept
in a big pirl (pile) of blow (blue)
beres (berries) thin he stept in a
pil of red beres thin he
stepten mud thin he
stpt in a bucit (bucket) of
wodr (water) and he had
difret culrs and he
wit home and he
wit tow slep en hes
hows

10 mins

APPENDIX R

DATA COLLECTION FORM

Student (Code): Grade: Data Collector:								
DATE	**BOOK**	**CONDITION**	**SESSION #**	**INCLUSION OF TITLE**	**CONNECTION INCLUDED**	**REASON FOR CONNECTION INCLUDED**	**INCLUSION OF OPINION**	**PLAN**