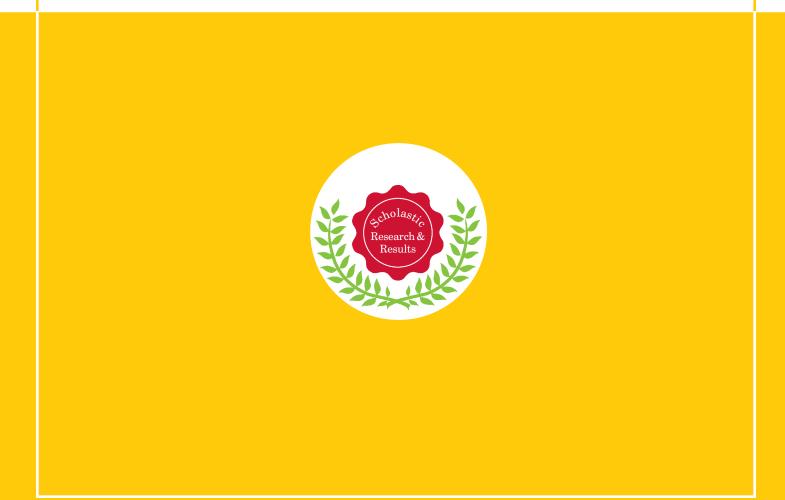
Research Foundation Paper

# Sound & Letter Time:

Building Phonemic Awareness and Alphabet Recognition Through Purposeful Play





# Sound & Letter Time:

Building Phonemic Awareness and Alphabet Recognition Through Purposeful Play

By Michal Rosenberg, Ph.D.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction
Pillar One: Phonemic Awareness
The Importance of Phonemic Awareness
Who Benefits from Phonemic Awareness Instruction?
Implications for Instruction
Pillar Two: Alphabet Recognition
The Importance of Alphabet Recognition
Who Benefits from Alphabet Recognition Instruction?
Implications for Instruction12
Pillar Three: Purposeful Play
The Importance of Purposeful Play14
Research-Based Purposeful Play in Sound & Letter Time
Relevancy to Children's Lives
Naming and Articulation
Building Vocabulary 18
Gradual Advancement
Differentiated Instruction
Motivation and Engagement
Conclusion
References



#### **INTRODUCTION**

Children who enter school with greater background knowledge and early literacy skills have a distinct and lasting advantage over those children who do not possess these skills (Snow et al., 1995). Certain early literacy skills, however, are more critical than others. Research has repeatedly proven that two skills in particular serve as the best predictors of early reading success: phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition (Adams, 1990; Share, Jorm, Maclean, and Matthews, 1984; National Reading Panel, 2000).

With a strong commitment to building these foundational literacy skills for all children, Scholastic developed the research-based and classroom tested Sound & Letter Time program. Sound & Letter Time is designed to teach and reinforce phonemic awareness skills and alphabet recognition for PreK–Second grade children through fun, interactive, and educational games. The program promotes language enrichment and vocabulary development through purposeful play while serving the diverse needs of young children, including special needs and English-language learners.

In reviewing the research on literacy acquisition, one can conclude that the fundamental skills children must develop first, in addition to oral language development, are phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition. In this paper, phonemic awareness is defined as the understanding that a word is made up of a series of discrete sounds (phonemes) and the ability to identify and manipulate those sounds in spoken words. The definition of alphabet recognition (also known as alphabet knowledge) is the ability to distinguish letter shapes, names, and sounds along with the ability to quickly recall and name each letter (Bradley & Stahl, 2001). Both of these skills are needed to understand the alphabetic principle, the concept that a series of symbols, known as the alphabet, map onto the sounds of our language in predictable ways. Children who lack these skills have difficulty grasping the alphabetic principle, which in turn, will limit their ability to use letter-sound correspondence and ultimately to decode words.

Together, phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition skills provide the necessary foundation on which phonics instruction is built. Ehri (2005) specifies the most important component of phonics instruction is knowledge of the alphabetic system, which includes phonemic awareness, letter shapes and names, and the letter-sound correspondences. Systematic phonics instruction teaches the beginning reader how letters correspond to sounds. Therefore, for the instruction to be effective, children must first understand the relationship between the sounds of words and the alphabet (Torgesen, 1998). Additionally, as they progress, developing readers use several strategies to read words: decoding, analogy, prediction, and memorizing sight words, all of which require the mastery of letter-sound correspondences (Ehri, 2003), and therefore the mastery of phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition skills.

#### The Influence of Research in Educational Policy and Instruction

Research is influencing current educational policy and instructional methods in the United States. In a country where only 32 percent of the nation's fourth graders are performing at or above the proficient reading levels (NAEP, 2001), reading achievement has become a top priority. In 2000, the National Reading Panel concluded that phonemic awareness *can* be taught and that this instruction is highly beneficial in assisting children with learning how to read and how to spell. Phonemic awareness, along with phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension, became one of the cornerstones of literacy instruction in the subsequent *No Child Left Behind* and *Reading First* acts.

Not only has research changed the educational policy and instructional methods in this country, but it is also affecting them around the world. In 2000, the Israel Ministry of Education created two committees to review the research and determine the best instructional practices to help prepare young children for phonics instruction. The Levin Committee (2000) investigated methods for fostering oral and written language skills in preschool and kindergarten age children, while the Shimron Committee (2002) examined ways to reform reading instruction in the primary grades. Both committees reported that phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition were key components in literacy acquisition and specifically recommended instruction in both.

#### Sound & Letter Time Development

For young children, learning is a highly active and interactive process. Children are more likely to become active participants in learning activities when they engage their natural curiosity and eagerness to make new discoveries (Raspa, McWilliams, & Ridley, 2001; National Center for Education Statistics, 2002). Although a variety of child and environmental factors influence skill development, researchers and practitioners believe that phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition can be taught effectively through a combination of systematic instruction and purposeful play, the cornerstone of Scholastic Sound & Letter Time.

The goal of developing Sound & Letter Time was to create a comprehensive method of phonemic awareness instruction that would engage young children, thereby effectively helping them gain and practice critical early literacy skills. The curriculum is designed to:

- Teach critical phonemic awareness skills, including: beginning and final sounds, oral blending, oral segmentation, and proper articulation.
- Reinforce alphabet recognition skills by reviewing letter names and sound relationships.

The program consists of four magnetic boards with colorful magnetic picture cards that can be used to play a variety of games such as dominoes, bingo, and concentration. These games introduce important phonemic awareness concepts: initial/final sounds, blending, segmentation, letter-names and letter-sounds relationships. The games and skill requirements range from easy to difficult, advancing gradually, to ensure that as children learn they are able to progress to more advanced tasks.



Sound & Letter Time originated as an early literacy program in Israel known as Ready to Read (RTR). During 2002–2003, Ready to Read was field tested with 600 Israeli children from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds in preschool, kindergarten, first grade and special education classes. Dr. Michal Rosenberg conducted extensive formative research by visiting classrooms and engaging in RTR games and activities with groups of approximately 3–4 children. These sessions were comprised of the following key components:

- 1. **Naming:** Every session began by showing a variety of picture cards to the children and asking them to name each picture out loud.
- 2. **Games and Activities:** Several different games were played with the children, according to the age and ability level of each group.
- 3. **Teacher Observation:** The classroom teacher would observe the activities and play while taking notes on the children's progress and/or the implementation of the program.
- 4. **Teacher Interview:** The teacher was interviewed to gather educator feedback and insights on the program. The goal of the interview was to determine if the teacher, through observation of the RTR games and activities, could evaluate the skills of the individual children as well as determine each child's strengths and weaknesses.
- 5. **Professional Development:** The last component of the testing process included conducting professional development with the teacher based on his/her observations and discussions of the program. The insights from this component of the formative research were used to inform the development of the Teacher's Guide.

Based on the results of the formative research, Ready to Read was modified to make the program more engaging and effective with children. Key revisions, which were translated to Scholastic Sound & Letter Time, included:

- Substituting several of the pictures used when they proved too difficult for the children to identify or understand.
- Reducing the size of the boards and magnetic game cards to make them more manageable for the children to hold and manipulate.
- Adding numerous new games, such as bingo, that focus on initial and final sounds.

The Ready to Read program was a tremendous success in Israel, where it was adopted in most Israeli kindergartens. Great interest soon immerged to bring the same program to students in the United States. Although Hebrew and English are visually and linguistically very different languages, they are both alphabetic. Therefore, the processes behind literacy acquisition and instruction are the same for both languages. Ready to Read was renamed Sound & Letter Time in the United States, where the program was built on three research-based pillars: phonemic awareness, alphabet recognition, and purposeful play.

## **PILLAR ONE: PHONEMIC AWARENESS**

#### The Importance of Phonemic Awareness

Researchers agree that phonemic awareness is a strong predictor of reading achievement (Adams, 1990; Juel, 1988; Share, Jorm, Maclean, and Matthews, 1984; National Reading Panel, 2000; Scanlon & Vellutino, 1987). In her research, Adams (1990) states that, "Faced with an alphabetic script, children's level of phonemic awareness on entering school may be the single most powerful determinant of the success he or she will experience in learning to read." In order to benefit from reading instruction, developing readers need to understand the internal structure of words; that words are made up of discrete sounds. Once children understand the concept that words can be divided into individual phonemes and that those phonemes can be blended into words, they can use that knowledge of letter-sound relationships to read and build words (Adams, 1990; Chard & Dickson, 1999).

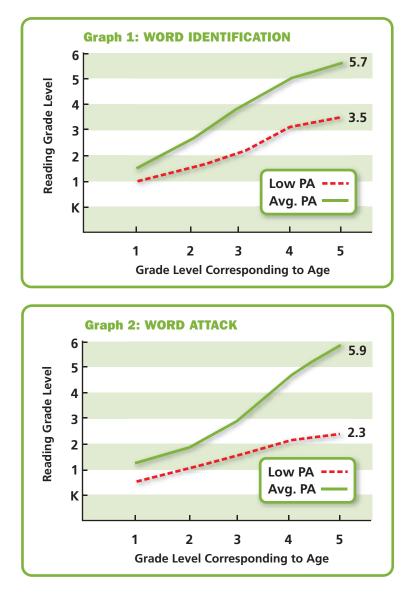
Phonemic awareness is often confused with phonological awareness. Snow, Burns & Griffin (1998) eloquently define the two concepts, "The term phonological awareness refers to a general appreciation of the sounds of speech as distinct from their meaning. When that insight includes an understanding that words can be divided into a sequence of phonemes, this finer-grained sensitivity is termed phonemic awareness." Phonological awareness includes phonemic awareness, but also encompasses the awareness of word units larger than the phoneme like syllables. However, both types of awareness include the ability to distinguish the individual sounds within words at the phonemic level so they are both relevant to this paper.

A number of researchers have found that children with phonological and phonemic awareness skills are more successful at learning to read than those without these skills (Bentin & Leshem 1993; Stanovich, 1986; Adams, 1990; Torgesen & Mathes, 2000). In several studies, students' level of phonological awareness and naming speed in kindergarten were found to be strong predictors of reading achievement in first and second grade (Kirby et al., 2003; Schatschneider et al., 2004; Parrila et al., 2004). Two studies took these important results a step further to highlight the educational sustainability of early phonemic awareness instruction. Byrne et al. (2000) demonstrated that phonemic awareness instruction provided to children in preschool had modest but significant positive effects on these children's reading skills in fifth grade. Juel's seminal research (1988; 1994) revealed that poor readers in fourth grade had entered first grade with limited phonological awareness and that this skill gap contributed to their slowness in learning letter-sound correspondences and decoding.

Torgesen & Mathes (2000) confirmed these findings when they tested children on the growth of their sight words (word identification) and word attack (phonemic decoding) skills. When they compared those children who began first grade with average phonological awareness skills to those who began first grade below that threshold, they found that those with higher phonemic awareness in first grade tested higher for sight words and word attack skills in *every* grade.



The achievement gap in the scores between these two groups of children grew considerably larger starting in third grade and continued to grow dramatically in fourth and fifth grades. Torgesen & Mathes concluded that those children with sufficient phonemic awareness had a better understanding of "how words work," and were therefore able to identify and read words by sounding them out. Those students who did not possess sufficient phonemic awareness skills had to rely on memorizing words by sight. As these children entered second grade, the texts they read grew less patterned and predictable and as a result their reading skills began to suffer. *(See Graphs 1 and 2.)* These results prove that the deficit of phonemic awareness persists over time. If it is not rectified, it will continue to affect reading performance in middle and high school (Fawcett & Nicolson, 1995) and into adulthood (Pennington et al., 1990).



Torgesen, J.K. & Mathes, P.G. (2000). A basic guide to understanding, assessing, and teaching phonological awareness. Texas: Pro-Ed Press.

Phonemic awareness can also aid the acquisition of other literacy skills such as comprehension and spelling. For children to understand what they are reading, they must be able to read words fluently—both efficiently and accurately. By doing so, fluency frees children from the decoding process and allows them to attend to the meaning of the text (*Put Reading First*, 2003). Children without proper phonemic awareness skills must memorize words, an inefficient process for reading, and therefore cannot spend the necessary attention to comprehend text. Additionally, phonemic awareness, particularly the skill of segmenting words into phonemes, can help children learn to spell. When children understand that sounds and letters are related in a predictable way, they can connect the sounds to letters as they spell new words (*Put Reading First*, 2003).

#### Who Benefits from Phonemic Awareness Instruction?

Research indicates that almost *all* children can benefit from phonemic awareness instruction, including "normally developing readers, children at risk for future reading problems, disabled readers, preschoolers, kindergarteners, first graders, children in second through sixth grades, children across various socioeconomic levels, and children learning to read in English as well as in other languages (National Reading Panel, 2000)."

However, there is a population of children for whom phonemic awareness instruction is particularly critical. An estimated 20 percent of children are affected by a significant lack of phonemic awareness skills in kindergarten (Honig, B. 1997; IRA Board of Directors, 1998). These children have difficulty learning to decode because they are completely unaware of the fact that spoken language is segmented—into sentences, into syllables, and into phonemes. If there are no preventative measures in place, many of these children are eventually labeled as learning disabled or dyslexic and so continue to fall behind their classmates in reading skills (Snider, 1995).

Preschool and kindergarten age children are capable of learning and distinguishing the sound units of their primary language. Phonemic awareness instruction has proven beneficial for developing readers as early as age four and that instruction can have a lasting effect three years later. First and second graders and other children at-risk of failing to read have been shown to benefit from phonemic awareness training as well (Blachman, et al., 1999; O'Conner, Jenkins & Slocum, 1995).

Phonemic awareness instruction has proven valuable for children with reading disabilities. Learning disabled children often have deficiencies with phonological processing skills (Shaywitz, 1996). Research reveals that children with dyslexia and children with speech impairments have phonemic awareness skills that are significantly inferior to typically developing children (Sutherland & Gillon, 2005; Bruck, 1992). In fact, according to Torgesen & Mathes (2002), deficiencies in phonological awareness are one of the most reliable diagnostic indicators of reading disabilities. These children require more explicit and intense training in phonological awareness to have a substantial impact on their deficits (Torgesen et al., 1994). Research has further demonstrated that children who participate in extensive phoneme segmentation activities



can substantially improve their ability to perceive, discriminate, and manipulate sounds. In Gillon's latest research, preschoolers with speech impairments who received speech therapy including phonemic awareness and letter knowledge activities developed phonemic awareness skills that were equal to that of their peers without speech impairment (Gillon, 2005). Moreover, the children who received this instruction were also reading at or above grade level in their first and second years of school.

## **Implications for Instruction**

The inability to phonologically process language is considered the most common barrier to early reading skills (Chard & Dickson, 1999; Liberman, Shankweiler & Liberman, 1989). Understanding the concept of phonemic segmentation—that words can be divided into individual phonemes and that those phonemes can be blended into words—is not an easy task for developing readers. It does not develop naturally or easily without instruction (Liberman & Shankweiler, 1985). Smith, Simmons & Kame'enui (1995) concluded that phonemes are difficult to perceive because of the following characteristics: a) they are the smallest phonological unit, b) they are not acoustically pure, c) they are independent of meaning in isolation, and d) they are abstract and arbitrary.

However, the National Reading Panel's (2000) review of the research clearly argues that:

- Phonemic awareness *can* be taught.
- The most effective way to teach phonemic awareness is through systematic and explicit instruction.

A number of studies have examined the effects of explicit and structured phonemic awareness instruction in kindergarten. These studies found that both the phonemic awareness and reading skills of the group receiving such explicit instruction were stronger than those of the control group (Adams, 1990; Ball & Blachman, 1991; Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Reiner, 1998). Furthermore, in *Put Reading First* (2003), Armbruster & Osborn concluded that phonemic awareness instruction is most effective when children are taught to manipulate phonemes by using the letters of the alphabet, and when instruction focuses on only one or two types of phoneme manipulation as opposed to several types at once.

Blachman, Ball, Black & Tangel (1994) specifically evaluated the influence of a phonemic awareness instructional program in kindergarten with at-risk children from several lowachieving, inner-city schools. These teachers administered 41 phonological awareness lessons over an 11-week period to small groups of four or five children. Each lesson was short, lasting 15 to 20 minutes, and each included 1) an articulation/segmentation activity, 2) one other phonemic awareness practice activity, and 3) one game that taught the names and sounds of letters. At the end of the instruction, the children in the treatment group significantly out performed the control group on a number of phonemic awareness measures, including phoneme segmentation, letter-name and letter-sound knowledge, phonetic reading of real and pseudowords and developmental spelling (Blachman, 2000). The Blachman et al. study also illustrates that phonemic awareness instruction does not need to take significant amounts of time to be effective in developing young children's skills. The National Reading Panel Report of the Subgroups emphasizes that phonemic awareness training lasting between 5 and 18 hours produced larger effect sizes than either short or longer treatments (National Reading Panel, 2000).

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

The path towards phonemic awareness is a step-by-step process. According to Adams (1990), there are five basic types of phonemic awareness tasks:

- Rhyme
- Oddity Tasks
- Oral Blending
- Oral Segmentation
- Phonemic Manipulation

Although some of these tasks, like rhyming, may be more accurately labeled as phonological awareness tasks, the mastery of these skills will ultimately lead to awareness at the phoneme level (Bryant et al., 1990).

According to Chard & Dickson (1999), these phonemic awareness tasks fall into a continuum of gradual advancement. The initial tasks, such as rhyming, fall at the beginning of the continuum. In the middle of the continuum are activities that relate to segmenting words into sounds and blending sounds into words. The most complex tasks include segmenting words into onsets and rimes and blending onsets and rimes into words. Each task type represents progressively more complex phonological skills that ultimately lead a student to the understanding that words can be divided into phonemes.

Scholastic Sound & Letter Time program follows this phonemic awareness continuum in the sequencing of the games and activities. Before instruction begins, students are assessed on their level of phonemic awareness skills. The results from this assessment are used to determine appropriate instructional groups. By comparing each groups' skill level to the phonemic awareness benchmarks described by Torgesen & Mathes (2000), the teacher can set instructional goals and determine the scope and sequence of the games and activities that will support each child in attaining those goals.



#### **PILLAR TWO: ALPHABET RECOGNITION**

#### The Importance of Alphabet Recognition

Although phonemic awareness is a very important component of literacy acquisition, it is not sufficient in itself. Another essential component is alphabet recognition, which involves letter shape recognition, letter-name knowledge, letter-sound knowledge and rapid-letter naming. Alphabet recognition, specifically letter naming, has historically been used as an indicator of future reading achievement (Snow et al., 1998). Numerous studies have proven that a child's knowledge of letters is a strong predictor of his/her success in learning to read (Bond & Dykstra, 1967; Share, Jorm, McClean & Matthew, 1987; Adams, 1990). Scanlon & Vellutino (1996) further revealed that letter knowledge was as strong a predictor on its own as other predictors combined. In fact, "reading scores in tenth grade can be predicted with surprising accuracy based on a child's knowledge of the alphabet in kindergarten" (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2003).

Without a firm knowledge of letters, children will have difficulty with other aspects of literacy (Bradley & Stahl, 2001). The learning of letter names helps children understand the alphabetic principle, or how letters and sounds connect, because the names of many letters contain the sounds they most often represent (Lyon, 1997). This is supported by Scott & Ehri (1990) who demonstrated that prereaders become capable of forming letter-sound correspondences when they learn letters well enough to take advantage of the phonetic cues the letters provide. Developing readers who are able to acquire and apply the alphabetic principle will reap long-term benefits in reading acquisition (Stanovich, 1986). The understanding of letter-sound correspondence is a prerequisite to effective word identification, and a primary difference between strong and poor readers is their ability to use letter-sound correspondence to identify words (Juel, 1991).

Furthermore, research reveals that letter names may be a precursor to or facilitate phonemic awareness (Johnston, Anderson & Holligan, 1996; Stahl & Murray, 1994; Carroll, 2004). Bowey (1994) investigated this link by comparing the phonemic awareness of readers and non-readers to their levels of letter recognition. The results revealed a positive correlation between the two: children with strong letter recognition demonstrated higher levels of phonemic awareness than children with minimal letter recognition ability. Similarly, Murray, Stahl & Ivey's research (1996) found that the teaching of letters to preschool children improved their performance on phonemic awareness tasks.

Finally, letter recognition is known to facilitate word recognition. Studies which track eye movement during reading have revealed that skilled readers attend to almost every word in a sentence and process the individual letters that comprise each word (McConkie and Zola, 1987). Therefore reading is a "letter-mediated" process rather than a "whole-word-mediated" one (Just & Carpenter, 1987), and this process relies on a reader's attention to each letter in a word.

Ehri (2003) concludes that a skilled reader is able to read familiar words accurately and quickly because the necessary access routes have already been created and all of the letters have been secured in memory. Levin et al.'s (2002) studies of kindergarten children confirm this theory by demonstrating that knowledge of letter names helps children in word recognition tasks and spelling.

#### Who Benefits from Alphabet Recognition Instruction?

As with phonemic awareness, all children, particularly preschool and kindergarten age children can benefit from alphabet recognition instruction. Children must become expert users of the letters they will see and use to write their own words and messages (Lyon, 1998). Without a firm knowledge of letters, children will have difficulty with all other aspects of early literacy. However, according to a report from NCES (2000), 34 percent of children entering school cannot recognize letters of the alphabet by name.

Socioeconomic factors play a critical role in this lack of preliteracy skills, highlighting the particular need for at-risk children to receive alphabet recognition instruction. In their landmark research, Hart & Risley (1995) determined that there were significant differences in the amount and quality of preliteracy activities and level of vocabulary among various groups of children entering school. Most importantly, these school readiness differences were strongly correlated with variance in socioeconomic status. Thus, there exists a gap in background knowledge and preliteracy skills between those from disadvantaged and middle class backgrounds. A parent's education level and minority language status are also contributing factors to the gap, which ultimately leads to a gap in achievement (Hart & Risley, 1995; Bradley & Stahl, 2001). This gap has been demonstrated to impact alphabet recognition skills. According to NCES (1999), only 10 percent of children ages three to five living in poverty recognize all the letters in the alphabet, as compared to 28 percent of non-poor children.

Children who begin school able to quickly and accurately identify and articulate the letters of the alphabet, have an advantage in learning to read (Chard & Osborn, 1999). As children are exposed to many literacy activities, they will begin to recognize and discriminate letters. Children who have already learned to recognize most letters as preschoolers will have less to learn upon formal school entry (Lyon, 1997). Children whose knowledge of letters is not well developed when they start school require organized instruction and practice that will help them learn how to identify, name, and write letters.

#### **Implications for Instruction**

It is clear that letter recognition is a critical factor in learning to read, as letters are the most basic units of written language. Beginning readers cannot become skilled readers if they do not know and understand the alphabet (Ehri, 2003). Alphabet recognition is especially important because it is critical for understanding phonics. The goal of phonics instruction is to teach the alphabetic principle; that there is a systematic relationship between letters and sounds (Chard & Osborn, 1999). Phonics instruction teaches the beginner reader these letter-sound correspondences and how they can be used to decode words that have not been previously encountered.



Researchers have concluded that learning letter names and shapes can serve as a mnemonic for letter-sound associations, which then allows young readers to devote more energy to the critical tasks of decoding and comprehension (Adams, 1990).

According to Ehri (2003), children use several different strategies when reading words, all of which require the mastery of letter recognition skills. For unfamiliar words, children may choose to decode the word by using their knowledge of letter-sound correspondence to recall the sound of each letter and then blend those sounds into words. Children may also use analogy to read unfamiliar words by looking for familiar letters or letter combinations within the target word. Some children will attempt prediction, whereby they recognize some of the letters in the unknown word and can then guess the word from the context of what they are reading. Finally, recognizing words from memory or "sight words" still requires knowledge of letter-sound correspondences to attach the spellings of these four strategies will not be practical unless the child has the ability to recognize letters and match them to their appropriate sound.

Research reveals that phonemic awareness instruction is more effective when it is combined with alphabet recognition training (Blachman, 2000). Bradley and Bryant (1983) clearly established the benefit of making explicit connections between sound segments and letters when teaching phonemic awareness. Their research compared two groups of four–five year old children. Those children who received instruction in sound categorization while connecting those sounds to letters achieved significantly higher scores in both reading and spelling than those in the control group. Four years later, Bradley conducted a follow-up study and determined that the children who received instruction in both phonemic awareness and letter-sound correspondences maintained their superior scores in reading and spelling.

Recent research continues to reveal that phoneme manipulation and phoneme segmentation skills are closely associated with letter knowledge and letter-sound knowledge (Gunning, 2000; Mann & Foy, 2003). Carroll (2004) conducted two studies investigating the links between letter knowledge and phonemic awareness. The first study evaluated a group of three–four year old children on letter knowledge, receptive vocabulary, and phonemic awareness tasks. Results revealed that no child was successful on any phoneme awareness task unless he/she knew at least one letter, and those children who scored significantly higher on the phoneme completion or phoneme deletion tasks recognized at least four letters correctly. In the second study, another group of four-year old children were provided twenty minutes of training in letter recognition for a total of 18 sessions. The results from this research indicate that letter knowledge instruction can improve letter knowledge performance—and that such knowledge is strongly correlated to the development of phoneme segmentation skills in preliterate children (Carroll, 2004).

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

According to Chard & Osborn (1999), a beginning reading program should include the following key elements:

- A variety of alphabetic knowledge activities in which children learn to identify and name both uppercase and lowercase letters.
- Games, songs, and other activities that help children learn to name letters quickly.
- A sensible sequence of letter introduction that can be adjusted to the needs of individual children.

The Sound & Letter Time curriculum thoroughly meets all these requirements. Through the fun and engaging games and activities, Sound & Letter Time teaches alphabet recognition by focusing on letter names, letter matching, and letter-sound relationships. These games and activities integrate phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition to improve a child's prereading skills. The small-group instruction allows teachers to adjust the level of instruction according to the skill levels of their children.

# **PILLAR THREE: PURPOSEFUL PLAY**

#### The Importance of Purposeful Play

Young children learn best when they are actively participating in the learning process and are encouraged to explore, interact, create, and play (Katz, 1994; Thompkins, 1991). Play is an especially effective way of gaining knowledge. As children engage in play activities relevant to their interests they are building knowledge (Neuman & Roskos, 1993), and are more likely to understand and remember relationships, concepts, and strategies (Owocki, 1999). Research into the effects of play has linked play to improving creativity and critical thinking (Holmes & Geiger, 2002); attention, planning skills, and attitudes (McCune & Zanes, 2001), memory (Jensen, 1999, 2000); and language development and literacy skills (Clawson, 2002; Creasey, Jarvis, & Berk, 1998; Pellegrini, 1980).

Play positively impacts the cognitive and social development of children (Owocki, 1999). Children gain knowledge by constructing it through physical, social, and mental activity (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). Play gives young children an opportunity to build on their existing knowledge through exploring their world, interacting and cooperating with others, and learning how to concretely represent their thoughts and emotions in multiple ways (Owocki, 1999; Bodrova & Leong, 1996).



Vygotsky argued that the development of cognitive processes and activities occurs within social situations. This development happens most effectively when a child is engaged in problem-solving activities in collaboration with an adult who is able to structure the interaction and guide the child through tasks that are just beyond their capability (Vygotsky, 1978 as cited in Bowman, Donovan, & Burns, 2000)—the phenomenon widely known as the "zone of proximal development." Play can provide the perfect context for a teacher to guide children to those more challenging tasks and skills.

As children and adults engage in discussion and collaboration, children develop key language and early literacy skills necessary for reading. Educators must create structured opportunities for children to become involved with the concepts of letters, letter-sounds, and words (McLane & McNamee, 1991). Purposeful play is an effective strategy for creating these opportunities. Leong, Bodrova, et al. (1999) contend that play promotes four major skills necessary for the development of literacy, including:

- 1. Developing basic cognitive skills.
- 2. Developing symbolic representation.
- 3. Developing oral language.
- 4. Developing early literacy skills and concepts (i.e., sound to symbol correspondence).

Research confirms that play can be an effective method of promoting the essential early literacy skills of phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition. When young children engage in literacy-related play, they are trying to make sense of the basic concepts of reading and writing—and they are doing so long before they can actually read and write (McLane & McNamee, 1991).

#### Research-Based Purposeful Play in Sound & Letter Time

Sound & Letter Time uses several research-based purposeful play approaches to teach and reinforce phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition skills. Each of these approaches correlates to the four preliteracy skills significantly impacted by play, which were highlighted by Leong and Bodrova above. These approaches include:

- Relevancy to Children's Lives—Develops symbolic representation.
- Naming and Articulation—Develops oral language.
- Building Vocabulary—Develops early literacy skills and concepts.
- Gradual Advancement—Develops basic cognitive skills.
- Differentiated Instruction—Develops basic cognitive skills and early literacy skills and concepts.
- Motivation and Engagement—Develops basic cognitive skills, symbolic representation, and early literacy skills and concepts.

#### Relevancy to Children's Lives

To help young children learn, instructional activities need to be concrete, real, and relevant to their lives (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997). When children have meaningful experiences that connect to their own lives, they are better able to acquire important literacy skills, including phonemic awareness and alphabet knowledge (Neuman, Bredekamp, & Copple, 2000). It is also critical that children develop a broad base of general knowledge about the world in which they live. Background knowledge is important to the ultimate goal of reading—making meaning from text. It helps young readers to make sense of novel word combinations, gives meaning to potentially confusing sentences, and allows for inferences in communication, both spoken and written (Hirsch, 2003).

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

In Sound & Letter Time, children practice phonemic awareness skills by using common vocabulary that is relevant, meaningful, and frequently encountered. All of the photographs on the magnetic game cards are high-utility objects, animals, and people that can be used to explore and expand on children's existing knowledge. For example, with the *eggplant* card (*egg* + *plant*), discussion can include other examples of compound words, such as *cow* + *boy* = *cowboy*, and *foot* + *ball* = *football*. Additionally, Sound & Letter time can be effectively used to broaden children's background knowledge. Examples include:

- Rainbow picture card: children can be asked to identify other kinds of bows, such as a hair bow or bow and arrow.
- Igloo picture card: discussion can include who lives in an igloo and what is an igloo made of.



## Naming and Articulation

According to Wagner & Torgesen (1987), naming speed is one of three distinct abilities that comprise phonological awareness (the other two are phonemic awareness and verbal short term memory). Naming speed, or the speed in which a person can retrieve and articulate item names, is an important measure because it indicates a person's ability to mentally access sounds, sound-sequences, and word meanings (Parill, Kirby, & McQuarrie, 2004; Cornwall, 1992; Bowers & Swanson, 1991; Davis & Spring, 1990).

The implications of naming speed are especially important in preliterate children. When children are first learning letters, their naming speed reflects their general letter knowledge. Bowers & Wolf (1993) propose that children with slow naming speeds cannot identify graphemes (letters) fast enough to support word recognition. This in turn interferes with the processes involved with letter-sound correspondences.

Research reveals that the most effective way for beginning readers to store sight words in memory is by analyzing the sounds in the spoken word and matching those sounds to the letters in the printed word (Ehri, 1992). Gaskins, Ehri, et al. (1997) argue that to help children fully represent words in memory, instruction must provide them with a model of how to analyze the words they are learning, along with opportunities to practice articulating, stretching out, and hearing the sounds in words.

## **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

Sound & Letter Time requires children to name the pictures on the magnetic cards prior to every game or activity. Children learn to correctly identify the picture, properly pronounce its name, as well as practice and improve their naming speed. To gain the most benefit, the Sound & Letter Time curriculum recommends that children initially practice pronouncing each word slowly, so that they learn to distinguish the individual sounds within each word.

#### **Building Vocabulary**

Developing an extensive vocabulary leads to greater language development and better comprehension of words in text (Baumann, Edwards, et al., 2003; Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982). A large oral vocabulary will also help readers to decode text. With printed words in their oral vocabulary, children are better able to map sounds to letters and read fluently (National Reading Panel, 2000). As children learn more new words, they gain additional general knowledge and can think of the world in more sophisticated ways. This sophistication ultimately leads to greater comprehension (Stahl, 2003).

Children learn the meaning of many words through indirect means. They will learn new words through their everyday experiences with language, such as conversations with fluent adults, being read to, and when capable, extensive independent reading (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001).

However, not all young children are equal in their vocabulary knowledge. Research reveals that preschoolers are entering formal schooling with significant vocabulary differences (Graves, Brunetti, & Slater, 1982), and that these differences can be largely attributed to socioeconomic status (Hart & Risley, 1995). Hart & Risley's seminal research revealed that over the course of one year a child in a professional family would hear 11 million words, while a child from a welfare family would only hear 3 million words. This difference in the exposure, amount, and quality of conversation ultimately impacts the developing vocabularies of young children, so that by age three, children from professional families possess significantly higher oral vocabulary than their disadvantaged peers (Hart & Risley, 1995).

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

Sound & Letter Time provides many opportunities to expose all children, especially those with special needs (at-risk, low SES, English-language learners), to many new words at an early age. The program includes hundreds of magnetic picture cards with images of common people, places, and things, representing much of the basic vocabulary that young children need to acquire. Sound & Letter Time offers extensive learning opportunities for new vocabulary, as well as practice and reinforcement for oral vocabulary already known. The magnetic picture cards are used in multiple Sound & Letter Time games, providing repeated exposure to help children store the vocabulary in memory.



## Gradual Advancement

Phonemic awareness includes a progressively advanced scope and sequence of skills. Anthony et al. (2002) determined that phonological sensitivity tasks differ in their complexity. However, they follow a developmental sequence whereby children generally master word-level skills before mastering syllable level skills, syllable level skills before onset-rime skills, and onset-rime skills before phoneme-level skills (Anthony et al., 2003). Thus, higher-level skills, like phoneme sensitivity, cannot be learned until the child has mastered the previous tasks in the sequence (Adams, 1990).

Additionally, many researchers (Vygotsky, etc.) believe that for children to learn most effectively they must experience tasks that are challenging to them. With the collaboration of a teacher or other adult, children are able to overcome cognitive challenges, succeed, and move to more advanced tasks. Therefore, the interaction between the teacher and the child is a key component to that child's construction of knowledge and meaning. To help children through this process, teachers need to provide scaffolding to support children in incorporating new skills and concepts into already existing ones (Landry, 2001; Wood, 1998). During teacher-led scaffolding, questions or discussions are used to draw out existing knowledge and build upon it, which helps children develop the necessary strategies to solve new problems (Bowman, Donovan, & Burns, 2000; Bodrova & Leong, 1996).

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

The games and activities in Sound & Letter Time range in difficulty level. Through the program's assessment tools, the teacher can determine each child's stage of development along the sequence of phonemic awareness skills. The Teacher's Guide provides leveling guidance for all the games and activities, according to the difficulty of the specific phonemic awareness skills they target. For instance, initial sounds games are more difficult and require more skills than rhyming games, however, they are easier than games that require children to identify consonants at the end of words. In addition, Sound & Letter Time provides leveling suggestions *within* each game to make them, if needed, easier or more challenging.

## **Differentiated Instruction**

Children come to school with various approaches and dispositions towards learning, as well as varying levels of background knowledge, language, and literacy readiness (Kagen, 1994). Therefore, in every classroom, there are children of different skill levels and abilities. This is particularly true of phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition skills. As previously noted from Anthony et al.'s research (2002; 2003), phonological awareness skills fall into a sequence that ranges in difficulty—and children may enter school anywhere along that continuum.

To ensure that all children achieve their full potential, differentiated instruction for groups of children within the same classroom is needed (Torgesen, 1998). Often this means providing instruction with multiple groups of students working on different tasks ranging in difficulty levels and degrees of scaffolding (Tomlinson, 2000). Tomlinson further recommends that instruction be differentiated according to three areas:

- Content—the major concepts, skills, and principles that students need to learn, adjusted for difficulty level.
- Process—activities and other instructional methods used to facilitate the mastery of content, such as small groups.
- Product—the way that children demonstrate the knowledge they have gained and apply it to problem solving tasks.

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

Research reveals that small-group instruction, such as that provided in Sound & Letter Time, is most effective with helping students acquire early literacy skills (*Put Reading First*, 2003). After the initial Sound & Letter Time assessment, children can be appropriately grouped together for differentiated instruction. The game and activity content is leveled by difficulty, making it easy for teachers to select and engage in appropriate learning activities with each group of children, according to that group's abilities and developmental stage. This instructional format allows Sound & Letter Time to be effective for all children, including those with special needs.



## Motivation and Engagement

Motivation and engagement is critical for learning and achievement. In fact, some researchers believe that engagement facilitates motivation, because it encourages children to understand, builds confidence, and helps them to enjoy the learning process (Guthrie, 2001). Researchers and practitioners agree that the teaching of basic literacy skills should be conducted in a fun and engaging way. The National Reading Panel (2000) contends that "systematic phonics instruction can be provided in an entertaining, vibrant, and creative manner." Torgesen and Mathes (2000) further observe, "If kindergarten phonological awareness instruction is not fun, it is not being done properly."

Effective and engaging early literacy instruction does not require a highly structured program. Rather, engagement and motivation levels are higher among children in preschool programs that make effective use of incidental teaching techniques than programs that rely solely on highly structured instructional methods (McWilliam, 1991). Incidental teaching also provides opportunities for scaffolding through the expansion and extension of typical routines and activities (Noonan & McCormick, 1993).

#### **Research Into Practice With Sound & Letter Time**

Sound & Letter Time teaches and reinforces critical phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition skills using a fun educational game format. Children are engaged in early literacy games and activities that motivate them to practice the key skills necessary for reading. Sound & Letter Time provides extensive opportunities for creativity, scaffolding, positive interactions between teacher and children, and the incidental teaching of new vocabulary and background knowledge. The engaging nature of the program particularly serves special needs children as it encourages learning through play, which is motivating to children who may face ongoing challenges in the classroom.

## CONCLUSION

Phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition are the strongest predictors of later reading achievement. Research reveals that they are among the first, fundamental skills that all children need to master for successful reading as they progress through school. Phonemic awareness and alphabet recognition are the necessary precursors to decoding and sight word recognition, both of which must be developed before children can derive meaning from text. Teachers can effectively teach these skills through purposeful play strategies that include systematic teacherled instruction, while encouraging children to explore and build on their existing knowledge.

Sound & Letter Time is built on the three research-based pillars of phonemic awareness, alphabet recognition, and purposeful play. The program offers fun, engaging, and motivating games and activities, all of which include detailed instruction for the teaching and reinforcement of important skills along the phonemic awareness continuum. Sound & Letter Time also reinforces the key skill of alphabet recognition through the practicing of letter names, letter-sounds, and letter-sound correspondence. Most importantly, the sequential curriculum allows *all* children, including those with a variety of special needs (at-risk, speech/language delays, and English-language learners) to be served in an effective and engaging way.



#### REFERENCES

Adams, M. (1990). Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Anthony, J. L., Lonigan, C. J., Burgess, S. R., Driscoll, K., Phillips, B. M., & Cantor, B. G. (2002). Structure of preschool phonological sensitivity: Overlapping sensitivity to Rhyme, Words, Syllables, and Phonemes. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *82*(1), 65–92.

Anthony, J. L., Lonigan, C. J., Driscoll, K., Phillips, B. M., & Burgess, S. R. (2003). Phonological Sensitivity: A Quasi-Parallel Progression of Word Structure Units and Cognitive Operations. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *38*(4), 470–487.

Armbruster, B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read. Washington, DC: The U.S. Department of Education.

Baker, L., & Wigfield, A. (1999). Dimensions of children's motivation for reading and their relations to reading activity and reading achievement. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *34*, 452-477.

Ball, E. W., & Blachman, B. A. (1991). Does phoneme awareness training in Kindergarten make a difference in early word recognition and developmental spelling? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26(1), 49-66.

Baumann, J. F., Edwards, E. C., Bolan, E. J., Olejnik, S., & Kame'enui, E. J. (2003). Vocabulary tricks: Effects on instruction in morphology and context on fifth-grade students' ability to derive and infer word meanings. *American Educational Research Journal*, 40, 447-494.

Beck, I. L., Perfetti, C. A., & McKeown, M. G. (1982). Effects of long-term vocabulary instruction on lexical access and reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 17, 462-481.

Bentin, S., & Leshem, H. (1993). On the interaction of phonologic awareness and reading acquisition: It is a two way street. *Psychological Science*, *2*, 271-273.

Bergen, D., & Mauer, D. (2000). Symbolic play, phonological awareness, and literacy skills at three age levels. In K. A. Roskos & J. F. Christie (Eds.), *Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspective* (pp. 45-62). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Blachman, B. (2000). Phonological Awareness. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P.D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. 3*. New York: Longman.

Blachman, B. A., Ball, E. W., Black, R., & Tangel, D. (1994). Kindergarten teachers develop phoneme awareness in lowincome, inner-city classrooms: Does it make a difference? *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 6, 1-17.

Blachman, B. A., Tangel, D., Ball, E. W., Black, R., & McGraw, C. K. (1999). Developing phonological awareness and word recognition skills: A two-year intervention with low-income, inner-city children. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, *11*, 239-273.

Blevins, W. (1998). Phonics from A to Z. New York: Scholastic Professional Books.

Bodrova, E., & Leong, D. (1996). Tools of the mind: The Vygotskian approach to early childhood education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill.

Bond, G. L., & Dykstra, R. (1967). The cooperative research program in first-grade reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *2*, 10-141.

Bowers, P. G., & Swanson, L. B. (1991). Naming speed deficits in reading disability. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *51*, 195-219.

Bowers, P. G., & Wolf, M. (1993). Theoretical links among naming speed, precise timing mechanisms and orthographic skill in dyslexia. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, *5*, 69-85.

Bowey, J. A. (1994). Phonological sensitivity in novice readers and nonreaders. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *58*, 134-159.

Bowey, J. A., McGuigan, M., & Ruschena, A. (2005). On the association between serial naming speed for letters and digits and word-reading skill: Towards a developmental account. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 28(4), 400-422.

Bowman, B., Donovan, M. S., & Burns, M. S. (Eds.). (2000). *Eager to Learn: Educating Our Preschoolers*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Bradley, L., & Bryant, P. (1983). Categorizing sounds and learning to read: A causal connection. Nature, 30, 419-421.

Bradley, L., & Bryant, P. (1983). *Rhyme and reason in reading and spelling*. International Academy for Research in Learning Disabilities Monograph series, No. 1. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Bradley, B., & Stahl, S. (2001). Learning the Alphabet. Presented at the National Reading Conference. San Antonio, TX.

Bredekamp, S., & Copple, C. (Eds.). (1997). *Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs*. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Bruck, M. (1992). Persistence of Dyslexic's Phonological Awareness Deficits. Developmental Psychology, 28(5), 874.

Bryant, P. E., MacLean, M., Bradley, L. L., & Crossland, J. (1990). Rhyme and Alliteration, Phoneme Detection, and Learning to Read. *Developmental Psychology*, *26*, 429-438.

Byrne, B., Fielding-Barnsley, R., & Ashley, L. (2000). Effects of Preschool Phoneme Identity Training after Six Years: Outcome Level Distinguished from Rate of Response. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *92*(4), 659-667.

Campbell, J. R., Voelkl, K. E., & Donahue, P. L. (1997). *NAEP 1996 trends in academic progress*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Carroll, J. M. (2004). Letter knowledge Precipitates Phoneme Segmentation, but Not Phoneme Invariance. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 27(3), 212-225.

Chard, D. J., & Dickson, S. V. (1999). Phonological Awareness: Instructional and Assessment Guidelines. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 34(5), 261-270.

Chard, D. J., & Osborn, J. (1999). Phonics and Word Recognition Instruction in Early Reading Programs: Guidelines for Accessibility. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 14(2), 107-117.

Christie, J. F., & Enz, B. (1992). The effects of literacy play interventions on preschoolers' play patterns and literacy development. *Early Education and Development*, *3*(3), 205-220.



Clawson, M. (2002). Play of language: Minority children in an early childhood setting. In J. L. Roopnarine (Ed.), *Conceptual, social-cognitive, and contextual issues in the fields of play* (Vol. 4, pp. 93-116). Westport, CT: Ablex.

Cornwall, A. (1992). The relationship of phonological awareness, rapid naming, and verbal memory to severe reading and spelling disability. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 25, 532-38.

Creasey, G. L., Jarvis, P. A., & Berk, L. (1998). Play and social competence. In O. N. Saracho & B. Spodek (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on play in early childhood education* (pp. 116-143). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Cronin, V., & Carver, P. (1998). Phonological sensitivity, rapid naming, and beginning reading. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 19, 447-462.

Davis, J. M., & Spring, C. (1990). The Digit Naming Speed Test: Its power and incremental validity in identifying children with specific reading disabilities. *Psychology in the Schools, 27*, 15-22.

Ehri, L. C. (1983). A critique of five studies related to letter-name knowledge and learning to read. In L. M. Gentile, M. L. Kamil, & J. S. Blanchard (Eds.), *Reading revisited* (pp. 143-153). Columbus, OH: Charles Merrill.

Ehri, L. C. (1992). Reconceptualizing the development of sight word reading and its relationship to recoding. In P. B. Gough, L. C. Ehri, & R. Treiman (Eds.) *Reading Acquisition* (pp. 107-143). Mahway, NJ: Ehrlbaum.

Ehri, L. C. (2003). *Systematic Phonics Instruction: Finding of the National Reading Panel*. Paper presented at the seminar of the Standards and Effectiveness Unit, Department of Education and Skills, British Government, London, England.

Ehri, L. C. (2005). Learning to Read Words: Theory, Findings, and Issues. Scientific Studies of Reading. 9(2), 167-188.

Ehri, L. C., Nunes, S. R., Willows, D. M., Schuster, B. V., Yaghoub-Zaden, Z., & Shanahan, T. (2001). Phonemic Awareness Instruction Helps Children Learn to Read: Evidence from the National Reading Panel's Meta-Analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly.* 36(3), 250-287.

Einarsdottir, J. (2000). Incorporating literacy resources into the play curriculum of two Icelandic preschools. In K. A. Roskos & J. F. Christie (Eds.), *Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspectives* (pp. 77-90). New York: Erlbaum.

Fawcett, A. J., & Nicolson, R. I. (1995). Persistence of phonological awareness deficits in older children with dyslexia. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 7(4), 361-376.

Gambrell, L. B., Palmer, B., Codling, R., & Mazzoni, S. (1996, April). Assessing Motivation to Read. *The Reading Teacher*, 49(7), 518–533.

Gaskins, I. W., Ehri, L. C., Cress, C., O'Hara, C., & Donnelly, K. (1997). Procedures for word learning: Making discoveries about words. *The Reading Teacher*, *50*(4), 312-327.

Gillon, G. T. (2005). Facilitating Phoneme Awareness Development in 3- and 4-Year-Old Children With Speech Impairment. *Language, Speech & Hearing Services in Schools, 36*, 308-324.

Graves, M. F., Brunetti, G. J., & Slater, W. H. (1982). The reading vocabularies of primary-grade children of varying geographic and social backgrounds. In J. A. Harris & L. A. Harris (Eds.), *New inquiries in reading research and instruction* (pp. 99-104). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

Gunning, T. G. (2000). Phonological Awareness and Primary Phonics. MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Guthrie, J. T. (2001). Contexts for engagement and motivation in reading. *Reading Online*, 4(8). http://www.readingonline.org/articles/art\_index.asp?HREF=/articles/handbook/guthrie/index.html

Guthrie, J. T., Schafer, W. D., & Huang, C. (2001). Benefits of opportunity to read and balanced reading instruction for reading achievement and engagement: A policy analysis of state NAEP in Maryland. *Journal of Educational Research*, *94*(3), 145-162.

Hart, B. & Risley, T. R. (1995). *Meaningful Differences in Everyday Parenting and Intellectual Development in Young American Children*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

Hirsch, E. D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge—of words and the world. *American Educator*, 27(1), 10-29.

Hohn, W. E., & Ehri, L. C. (1983). Do alphabet letters help prereaders acquire phonemic segmentation skill? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 752-762.

Holmes, R., & Geiger, C. (2002). The relationship between creativity and cognitive abilities in preschoolers. In J. L. Roopnarine (Ed.), *Conceptual, social-cognitive, and contextual issues in the fields of play* (Vol. 4, pp. 127-148). Westport, CT: Ablex

Honig, B. (1997). Reading the Right Way: What research and best practices say about eliminating failure among beginning readers. *School Administrator*, 8(54).

IRA Board of Directors Position Paper. (1998). International Reading Association.

Jensen, E. (1999). *Teaching with the brain in mind*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Jensen, E. (2000). Moving with the brain in mind. Educational Leadership, 58(3), 34-37.

Johnston, R. S., Anderson, M., & Holligan, C. (1996). Knowledge of the alphabet and explicit awareness of phonemes in prereaders: The nature of the relationship. *Reading and Writing: An interdisciplinary Journal*, *8*, 217-234.

Juel, C. (1988) Learning to Read and Write: A longitudinal Study of 54 Children from First through Fourth Grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(4), 437-447.

Juel, C. (1991). Beginning reading. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 759-788). New York: Longman.

Just, M. A., & Carpenter, P. A. (1987) The Psychology of Reading and Language Comprehension. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Kagen, J. (1994). Galen's prophecy. New York, NY: Basic Books

Katz, L. G. (1994). What should young children be learning? Child Care Information Exchange, 100, 23-25.

Kirby, J. R., Parrila, R. K., & Pfeiffer, S. L. (2003). Naming Speed and Phonological Awareness as Predictors of Reading Development. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. 95(3), 453-464.



Landry, S. (2001). *Supporting cognitive development in early childhood*. Address presented at the White House Summit on Early Childhood Cognitive Development, Washington, DC.

Liberman, I. Y., & Shankweiler, D. (1985). Phonology and the problems of learning to read and write. *Remedial and Special Education*, 6(6), 8-17.

Liberman, I. Y., Shankweiler, D., & Liberman, A. M. (1989). The alphabetic principle and learning to read. In D. Shankweiler, & I. Y. Liberman (Eds.), *Phonology and reading disability: Solving the reading puzzle* (pp. 1-33). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Leong, D., Bodrova, E., Hensen, R., & Henninger, M. (1999). *Scaffolding Early Literacy through Play*. Paper presented at the NAEYC Annual Conference, New Orleans, LA.

Levin, I. (2000) The Committee for Development of the Oral and Written Language in Kindergarten. Ministry of Education. Israel, Jerusalem. (In Hebrew.)

Levin, I, Patel, S., Margalit, T., & Barad, N. (2002). Letters Names: Effect on Letter Saying, Spelling, and Word Recognition in Hebrew. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 23(2), 269-300.

Lyon, R. (1997). *Report on Learning Disabilities Research*. Testimony given before the Committee on Education and the Workforce in the U.S. House of Representatives, Washington, DC.

Lyon, R. (1998). *Overview of reading and literacy initiatives*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Committee on Labor and Human Resources, Washington, DC.

Mann, V. A., & Foy, J. G. (2003). Phonological Awareness, Speech Development, and Letter Knowledge in Preschool Children. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 53, 149-173.

McConkie, G. W., & Zola, D. (1987). Two examples of computer-based research on reading: Eye movement monitoring and computer-aided reading. In D. Reinking (Ed.), Reading and computers: Issues for theory and practice (pp.97-108). New York: Teachers College Press.

McCune, L., & Zanes, M. (2001). Learning, attention, and play. In S. Golbeck (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on early childhood education* (pp. 92-106). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., Omanson, R. C., & Pople, M. T. (1985). Some effects of the nature and frequency of vocabulary instruction on the knowledge of use of words. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20, 522-535.

McLane, J. B., & McNamee, G. D. (1991). The beginning of literacy. Zero to Three: Bulletin of the National Center for Clinical Infant Programs. 12(1), 1-8

McWilliam, R. A. (1991). Targeting teaching at children's use of time: Perspectives on preschoolers' engagement. *Teaching exceptional children*, 23(4), 42-43.

McWilliam, R. A., Trivette, C. M., & Dunst, C. J. (1985). Behavior engagement as a measure of the efficacy of early intervention. *Analysis and Intervention in Developmental Disabilities*, 5, 59-71.

Murray, B. A., Stahl, S. A., & Ivey, M. G. (1996). Developing phoneme awareness through alphabet books. *Reading and Writing*, *8*, 307-322.

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (2001). http/nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/reading

National Center for Education Statistics. (1999). *Home Literacy Activities and Sign of Children's Emerging Literacy*, 1993 and 1999. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2000/2000026.pdf

National Center for Education Statistics. (2000). *Entering Kindergarten: Findings from the Condition of Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2001/2001035.pdf

National Center for Education Statistics. (2002). *Children's reading and mathematic achievement in kindergarten and first grade*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2002/2002125.pdf

National Reading Panel-NRP. (2000). Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching Children to Read: An Evidence-Based Assessment of the Scientific Research Literature on Reading and its Implication for Reading Instruction. Reports of the subgroups. Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.

Neuhaus, G. F., Foorman, B. R., Francis, D. J., & Carlson, C. (2001). Measures of information processing in Rapid Automatized Naming (RAN) and their relation to reading. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 78(4), 359-373.

Neuman, S. B., Copple, C., & Bredekamp, S. (2000). *Learning to Read and Write: Developmentally Appropriate Practices for Young Children*. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Neuman, S. B., & Roskos, K. (1992). Literacy objects as cultural tools: Effects on children's literacy behaviors in play. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 27(3), 202-225.

Neuman, S. B., & Roskos, K. (1993). *Language and literacy learning in the early years: An integrated approach*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Neuman, S. B., & Roskos, K. (2005). Whatever Happened To Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Literacy?, *Young Children*, 60(4), 22-26.

*No Child Left Behind.* (2002). Research-Based Instruction in Reading. Student Achievement and School Accountability Conference. Bonnie B. Armbruster. University of Illinois.

Noonan, M. J., & McCormick, L. (1993). *Early Intervention in Natural Environments: Methods and Procedures*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

O'Conner, R., Jenkins, J., Leicester, N., & Slocum, T. (1993). *Teaching Phonological Awareness to young children with learning disabilities*. Exceptional Children, 59, 532–546.

Owocki, G. (1999). Literacy Through Play. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Parrila, R., Kirby, J. R., & McQuarrie, L. (2004). Articulation Rate, Naming Speed, Verbal Short-Term Memory, and Phonological Awareness: Longitudinal Predictors of Early Reading Development. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 8(1), 3-26.

Pedron, N., & Brown, S. (1999). The Phonology Factor. Toronto. Pirrinpub.



Pellegrini, A. D. (1980). The relationship between kindergartners' play and achievement in prereading, language, and writing. *Psychology in the Schools*, 17(4), 530-535.

Pennington, B. F., Van Orden, G. C., Smith, S. D., Green, P. A., & Haith, M. M. (1990). Phonological processing skills and deficits in adult dyslexics. *Child Development*, 61, 1753-1778.

Perfetti, C. (1992). The representation problem in reading acquisition. In P. Gough, L. Ehri, & R. Treiman (Eds.), *Reading Acquisition*. (pp. 107-143). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Piaget, J., & Inhelder, B. (1969). The psychology of the child. New York: Basic Books.

Put Reading First. (2003). The Research Building Blocks of Reading Instruction. Kindergarten through Grade 3. Second Edition. Washington, DC: The National Institute for Literacy.

Raspa, M. J., McWilliams, R. A. & Ridley, S. M. (2001). Childcare quality and children's engagement. *Early Education and Development*, *12*, 209-224.

Reiner, K. (1998). Developing a Kindergarten Phonemic Awareness Program: An Action Research Project. *Reading Teacher. 52*(1), 70-73.

Rubin, K. H., Bukowski, W., & Parker, J. G. (1998). Peer interactions, relationships, and groups. In W. Damon (Gen. Ed.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personal development (pp. 619-700). New York: Wiley.

Saltz, E., Dixon, D., & Johnson, H. (1977). Training disadvantaged preschoolers on various fantasy activities: Effects on cognitive functioning and impulse control. *Child Development*, 48(2), 367-380.

Scanlon, D. M., & Vellutino, F. R. (1996). Prerequisite skills, early instruction, and success in first grade reading: Selected results from a longitudinal study. *Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities Research Review*, 2, 54-63.

Schatschneider, C., Fletcher, J. M., Francis, D. J., Carlson, C. D., & Foorman, B. R. (2004). Kindergarten Prediction of Reading Skills: A Longitudinal Comparative Analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 96(2), 265-282.

Scott, J. A., & Ehri, L. C. (1990). Sight Word Reading in Prereaders: Use of Logographic vs. Alphabetic Access Routes. *Journal of Reading Behavior. 22*(2), 149-166.

Scott, S., & McWilliam, R. A. (2001). Embedding Interventions. Chapel Hill, NC. http://www.fpg.unc.edu/~inclusion/Embedded\_flier.pdf

Share, D. L., Jorm, A. F., Maclean, R., & Matthews, R. (1987). Sources of Individual differences in reading acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(6), 1309-1324.

Shaywitz, B. A. (1996). The neurobiology of reading and reading disability. Unpublished paper prepared for the Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties in Young Children.

Shimron, J. (2002). *The Committee for Reform of Reading Instruction*. Ministry of Education. Israel, Jerusalem. (In Hebrew.)

Smith, P. K., & Dutton, S. (1979). Play and training in direct and innovative problem solving. *Child Development*, 50(3), 830-836.

Smith, S. B., Simmons, D. C., & Kameenui, E. J. (1995). *Synthesis of Research on Phonological Awareness: Principles and Implications for Reading Acquisition*. (Tech Rep. No. 21). Eugene: University of Oregon, National Center to Improve the Tools of Educators.

Snider, V. (1995). A primer on phonemic awareness: What it is, why it's important, and how to teach it. *Journal of psychology Review*, 24, 443-455.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Stahl, S. A. (2003). Vocabulary and readability: How knowing word meaning affects comprehension. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 23(3), 241-248.

Stahl, S. A., & Murray, B. A. (1994). Defining phonological awareness and its relationship to early reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *86*, 221-234.

Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew Effect in Reading: Some Consequences of Individual Differences in the Acquisition of Literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 360-407.

Stanovich, K. E. (1993). Distinguished Educator Series: Romance and Reality. The Reading Teacher, 47(4), 280-291.

Stone, S. J., & Christie, J. F. (1996). Collaborative literacy learning during sociodramatic play in a multiage (K-2) primary classroom. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, *10*(2), 123-133.

Stratton, J. M. (1996). Emergent Literacy: A New Perspective. Journal of visual impairment & blindness, 90(3), 177-183.

Sutherland, D., & Gillon, G. T. (2005). Assessment of Phonological Representations in Children With Speech Impairment. *Language, Speech & Hearing Services in Schools, 36*, 294-307.

Thompkins, M. (1991). Active learning: Making it happen in your program. In N.A.A. Brickman and L.S. Taylor (Eds.), *Supporting young learners*, 5-13. Ypsilanti, MI: High/Scope Press.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2000). Differentiation of instruction in the elementary grades. ERIC Digest. ERIC\_NO: ED443572.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2001). How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms. (2nd Ed.) Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Torgesen, J. K. (1998). Catch Them Before They Fall: Identification and Assessment to Prevent Reading Failure in Young Children. *American Educator*, 22 (1 & 2), 32-39.

Torgesen, J. K., & Mathes, P. G. (2000). *A Basic Guide to understanding, assessing, and teaching Phonological Awareness.* Texas: Pro-ed Press.

Torgesen, J. K., & Mathes, P. G. (2002). Assessment and Instruction in Phonological Awareness. Second Edition. Florida Department of Education. Division of Public Schools and Community Education.

Torgesen, J. K., Morgan, S., & Davis, C. (1992). Effects of two types of phonological awareness training on word learning in kindergarten children. *Journal of Educational Pyschology, 84*, 364-370.



Torgesen, J. K., Wagner, R. K., & Rashotte, C. A. (1994). Longitudinal studies of phonological processing and reading. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 27, 276-286.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (2003). *Head Start Policy Book*. Washington, DC. http://www.whitehouse.gov/infocus/earlychildhood/hspolicybook/summary.html

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of the Higher Psychological Processes.* Cambridge, MA: The Harvard University Press. (Originally published 1930, New York: Oxford University Press.)

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). Thought and language. Boston: MIT Press.

Wagner, R., & J. Torgesen (1987). The nature of phonological processing and its causal role in the acquisition of reading skills. *Psychological Bulletin*, 101, 192-212.

Wagner, R. K., Torgesen, J. K., Rashotte, C. A., Hecht, S. A., Barker, T. A., Burgess, S. R., Donahue, J., & Garon, T. (1997). Changing relations between phonological processing abilities and word-level reading as children develop from beginning to skilled readers: A 5-year longitudinal study. *Developmental Psychology*, 33(3), 468-479.

Wang, J. H. Y., & Guthrie, J. T. (2004). Modeling the effects of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, amount of reading and past reading achievement on text comprehension between U.S. and Chinese students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *39*, 162-186.

Williams, J.P. (1987). Educational treatments for dyslexia at the elementary and secondary levels. In W. Ellis (Ed.), *Intimacy with language: A forgotten basic in teacher education* (pp. 24-32). Baltimore, MD: Orton Dyslexia Society.

Wolf, M. (1991). Naming speed and reading: The contribution of the cognitive neurosciences. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 26, 123-140.

Wolfgang, C. H., Stannard, L. L., & Jones, I. (2001). Block play performance among preschoolers as a predictor of later school achievement in mathematics. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 15(2), 173-180.

Wood, D. (1998). How Children Think and Learn (2nd edition). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Wood, D., Bruner, J., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17, 89-100.

Yawkey, T. D. (1981). Sociodramatic play effects on mathematical learning and adult ratings of playfulness in five year olds. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, *14*, 30-39.

### **ABOUT THE AUTHOR**



Michal Rosenberg, Ph.D, has over thirty years of special education teaching and consulting experience in Israel. Her primary expertise is program development and consultation in the subjects of reading instruction and reading difficulties.

Dr. Rosenberg has held various senior positions in the Israeli educational system. She has served as the Regional Director of the Pedagogic Center

in Haifa and has, for many years, been involved in special education counseling work, as well as being a professor at The Gordon Teachers College in Haifa.

She is the author of several Hebrew-language curriculums for reading and emergent literacy. Among her books is *Mapping and Categorizing of Diagnostic Methods of Learning Disabilities*. Her papers have been presented at various professional conferences; among them are the first national conference of the Israeli Association for Child Development and Rehabilitation, the fortieth conference of the Israeli Association of Communication Clinicians, and the conference entitled *How to Start First Grade*? at the Interdisciplinary Clinical Center at Haifa University.

Dr. Rosenberg is the President of Didactica, Inc., a company focused on curriculum development and educational games. She is currently conducting workshops and in-service training for the Israeli educational systems. Dr. Rosenberg serves as a consultant to various organizations and commercial firms in the field of reading-skills development.

Research Foundation Paper



Scholastic Inc. 557 Broadway New York, NY 10012