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## LITERACY TUTORING STRATEGIES OF AMERICA READS UNIVERSITY-LEVEL TUTORS

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LITERACY TUTORING STRATEGIES OF AMERICA READS  
UNIVERSITY-LEVEL TUTORS

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A Dissertation  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University,  
San Bernardino

---

In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education  
in  
Educational Leadership

---

by  
Mauricio Cadavid

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June 2017

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore, study, outline and describe tutoring strategies applied by American Reads (AR) tutors and non-American Reads (nAR) tutors helping young tutees develop early literacy skills. There is limited research on the implementation of effective tutoring strategies during one-on-one tutoring with elementary school children in terms of early literacy development. Most of the literature is split between peer tutoring and program tutoring. This lack of research presents a particular challenge when it comes to identifying an effective tutor and effective tutoring methodologies. Using a qualitative approach, this study utilizes survey data, session recordings, and interviews to not only explore the process of tutoring, but also the strategies, learned or otherwise improvised, applied by volunteer and paid tutors. Based on the data and analysis, the researcher identified effective tutoring strategies of early literacy tutors and made suggestions for further research.

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To my wife, Aida O. Cadavid: the queen A. Thank you for your continuous reality check that always kept me grounded. You are my balance.

To my daughters Amelie Marieta, Audrey Katherine, and Annalisa Noelle Cadavid for providing the daily spark of unconditional love that fueled the many sleepless nights.

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To my friends, the doubters and the believers, I dedicate this dissertation because your honesty was always refreshing. If you are reading this, remember: “The true delight is in the finding out rather than in the knowing.” – Paul French

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Introduction to the Problem

Thomas Newkirk (2010) proposes that literacy instruction has become more about teachers focusing on drills and worrying about standardized assessments and less about slowing down instruction and allowing students the time to comprehend and acquire content. This race for standardization and speedy instruction hints at the increased need for resources at the state level, city level, school level, and community level; providing a great argument for the need of literacy tutors.

In the elementary school setting, much emphasis is placed on reading; however, reading is not an isolated component of student learning. With reading comes the ability to write and to express interpretation of what was read. In other words, reading and writing assist each other as they both are needed to process information and produce expression. To an extent, reading and writing are fundamental structures on which life skills are later built.

The Reading and Language Arts Framework for California Public Schools (2009) outlined the importance of early literacy skills development by explaining that “literacy competencies are the gateways to knowledge across the disciplines” and that “prior knowledge is the strongest predictor of a student’s ability to make inferences about text, and writing about content helps students acquire knowledge” (p. IV). Due to the fluid nature of literacy development, early

literacy is a different process for each child, and children and families often seek a learning environment beyond the classroom in the form of tutoring. In advocating literacy tutoring, the US Department of Education (2008) has noted that working with reading tutors:

- Provides more time on task, increases opportunities to read and immediate feedback
- Allows for immediate, positive and corrective feedback to help the learner stay on track and not repeat errors
- Can increase reading performance
- Can improve motivation and decrease frustration
- Enhances interpersonal skills as a bond is established with the tutor
- Allows for individual monitoring of progress to ensure that learning is taking place.

What is then the major difference between teachers and tutors? As will be presented in the review of the literature, there is a wealth of research on teachers, teaching, and instructional strategies implemented by those instructors considered effective teachers. However, how do we know when a tutor is effective? Do trained, or untrained, tutors implement strategies that are effective in accomplishing developmental goals for young students? It is this gap in the research that presents an opportunity to explore a tutoring program such as the America Reads Challenge, and attempt to identify tutoring instructional strategies implemented in early literacy development.

The literature is lacking in discussing the value or effectiveness of one-on-one tutoring with elementary school children in terms of literacy development. Most of the literature is split between peer tutoring, where tutors are matched with tutees based on factors such as age, gender and academic expertise; and program tutoring where a tutor is the content expert relating information to a group of tutees. This lack of research presents a particular challenge when it comes to identifying an effective tutor and effective tutoring methodologies. When it comes to studying what tutors do, many variables come into play that outline the disconnect between the similarities of teacher instruction and tutor instruction. It is this particular limitation in the literature that highlights the importance of understanding what tutors do, and how they are able to help tutees develop literacy skills necessary for their own literacy development.

The second area where literature is lacking is in defining who an effective tutor is and what effective tutoring instruction is; particularly university trained tutors. The literature reviewed did not explicitly describe the difference(s) between tutoring and instruction, or effectively describe who an effective tutor is. Throughout the literature reviewed, however, authors made a case for focusing on specific tutoring programs conducted only by university trained tutors, and paid attention to the actual process of tutoring rather than the dialectic processes occurring between tutors and tutees. Thus, a study that not only looks at the process of tutoring, but also the strategies, learned or otherwise improvised,



applied by volunteer and paid tutors, is a crucial, and much needed contribution to the field.

### Purpose of the Study

This study will then provide a preliminary analysis of the similarities that indeed exist between tutoring and instruction in a literacy center staffed with American Reads and non-America Reads tutors. Furthermore, this study will identify the characteristics of effective tutors working with early literacy tutees, as well as the positive impact these tutors have on tutee literacy development.

This study is anchored on the main objective of identifying whether there is a relationship between America Reads and non-America Reads tutors' tutoring strategies in a one-on-one instruction setting. America Reads tutors are paid tutors who have completed an instruction strategies course at the university. These tutors are prepared and molded based on the America Reads Challenge curriculum-training manual. Similarly, non-America Reads tutors are paid through work-study funds of the university, but are not necessarily required to complete the instruction strategies university course. In this study, volunteer tutors will also be included as part of the non-America Reads tutors group.

Within the main objective of the study, the researcher:

- Identified and examined the characteristics of effective tutoring instruction;
- Identified and examined the role (if any) of tutor self-efficacy in both AR and nAR tutors;

- Identified and examined the characteristics of scaffolded instruction;
- Compared and described the similarities (if any) between tutoring and instruction;
- Outlined the characteristics that define an effective tutor in a literacy program;
- Outlined the characteristics that define effective tutoring strategies.

Therefore, it is the purpose of this study to explore, study, outline and describe tutoring strategies applied by American Reads (AR) tutors and non-America Reads (nAR) tutors helping young tutees develop early literacy skills.

### Research Questions

This study was guided by the following questions:

1. What strategies do AR/nAR tutors implement when helping tutees develop literacy skills in a one-on-one tutoring program?
2. What role (if any) does the tutor's sense of efficacy in tutoring play in the implementation of a one-on-one tutoring program that fosters development of early literacy skills?

### Theoretical Framework

Vygotsky's studies on the social formation of the mind through a socially constructed learning approach, explores several elements relevant to the understanding of how children learn to read and write. Within the general field of

Vygotskian research, the literature presents four distinctive themes that emerge as possible descriptions of the process of learning to read and write.

### Zone of Proximal Development

One theme to emerge was taken from Vygotsky's approach to education. Although this theme is not exclusively or entirely dedicated to reading comprehension, it is clear that the most basic premise of this learning theory can be applied to reading through the analysis and interpretation of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). Also, the Vygotsky's approach to education is paired with his theory of transmission, which is directly related to the teacher. In this case, the same principle occurs within the interactions of tutors and tutees.

### Strategies

Although somewhat different from instruction, strategies focused more on the activities and processes used to help students in their scaffolding process of learning. In tutoring, these strategies are directly tied to purposeful instruction in that tutors specifically choose a particular activity that focuses on a particular task, with an expected outcome, and follow it through. Different from instruction, strategies are individualized for each specific tutee with a specific need. Instruction then is seen, from a literature perspective (Brunner, 1977; Cazden, 1986; Palincsar & Brown, 1984), as the general collection of those activities as one unit, whereas strategies in the literature are seen as the specific activities (possibly independent from each other) used to target a specific objective.

## Assessment

Assessment, together with summative outcomes, is greatly influenced by variables that affect reading and comprehension. Assessment is also important to consider as it directly relates to measuring reading comprehension, engagement and retention. For example, America Reads tutors are trained to help young readers become “problem solvers” (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) through their own process of growing as readers, and America Reads tutors often are able to assess beginning readers’ understanding of the text they are reading, as well as their ability to predict common words that appear within the text.

## Instruction

The literature on instruction exclusively focused on teacher preparation as well as teaching methodologies and approaches. For teacher preparation, the literature highlighted describes processes teachers perform in order to get ready to teach. Along with this procedural preparation, the literature also included the academic and professional skills teachers acquired. Similarly, teaching methodologies referred to activities, and/or procedures, teachers implement in their classroom with the methodical intention of teaching (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky on Instruction. The area of instruction is perhaps the most significant area of study when it comes to understanding the influential processes related to the development of reading comprehension. Instruction, from a Vygotskyan perspective, is relevant as it states that a child cannot develop the ability to successfully reach a mastery skill in reading, unless there is some sort

of instruction involved. This emphasizes the importance for instructors to utilize proper teaching approaches that encompass and involve the child in a learning environment that is apt for developing the skill. In the case of the literacy center in this study, tutors and tutees, are provided with a learning environment that fosters scaffolded instruction and learning under the concept of Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural/constructivist theory. In this environment, tutors are able to slowly guide the tutee's learning process from dependent on the tutor, through joint work, to independent reading. This theory is discussed in more detail below.

### Social/Reciprocal Learning

Human interaction, and more specifically social interaction, was the most significant developmental precursor to cognitive development, according to Vygotsky (1978). Vygotsky (1978) believed the process of socialization allowed the individual to begin to make sense of the world around him/her. This process of making meaning through social interaction led Vygotsky to develop a socio-cultural approach to human development. According to Vygotsky (1978), the process of making meaning was through social interaction that occurred in stages. Vygotsky's initial concept of socio-cultural development served as the foundation for Bruner to develop a theory of scaffolded instruction. Bruner's work (1960, 1966, 1977) regarding the use of scaffolding in instruction was based on the assertion that learning only occurs when the right conditions are present. Similarly, Cazden (1986) agreed with Bruner that learning occurs when the right conditions are present and expanded the argument in support of "reciprocal

teaching” (p. 106). Cazden’s work was also heavily influenced by the work of Palincsar and Brown (1984) who were influential in developing their theory of reading comprehension instruction.

Thus, based on the scaffolded theory developed by Bruner (1977), and Palincsar and Brown’s (1984) work on reading comprehension instruction, Cazden (1986) contributed to the theory of reciprocal teaching as a strategy that targets the improvement of “reading comprehension through instruction in four cognitive strategies: predicting, generating questions, summarizing, and clarifying” (p. 106). These four cognitive strategies have become the pillars for evaluating reading comprehension, as well as tools for assessing how effective teachers use reading instruction strategies. In this study, these strategies guided the researcher’s observations of tutors during the live tutoring sessions. Furthermore, the four cognitive strategies were considered when creating the interview questions (Appendix A) in order to discover whether tutors specifically knew if they were applying the strategies. Since these cognitive strategies are founded on the basis of social/reciprocal learning theory, America Reads tutors are expected to apply these strategies during literacy tutoring.

### Assumptions of the Study

The following were basic considerations for this study:

1. Tutors’ instruction was consistent with the literacy center’s handbook.

2. Tutors and tutees would conduct their tutoring sessions in a private room without much external distraction.
3. Tutees would remain committed to attending all tutoring sessions throughout the quarter.
4. Materials used during the tutoring sessions were consistent throughout the quarter.
5. A tutoring structure and routine were established from the beginning and continued throughout the quarter.

#### Limitations of the Study

1. A small sample size
2. A short study term
3. Lacking in quantitative data

#### Delimitations of the Study

1. The participants in this study were American Reads and non-American Reads tutors.
2. The tutees were in grades 4<sup>th</sup> through 8<sup>th</sup> grade; and have a reading level score below grade level.
3. The study was conducted during one quarter of the academic year.
4. The study was conducted within the literacy center building and under supervision.

5. To measure self-efficacy, the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) measurement was implemented. Interview questions were used during the academic quarter.

### Role of the Researcher

Qualitative research is exploratory in nature as it seeks to provide both a rich description and a broad view of the processes and events being studied. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1995), the research is considered an instrument used to collect data, and because the data collection is performed by a human being, the researcher becomes the human instrument. During qualitative research, as the researcher, I became immersed in the environment of study and interacted with the tutors and tutees to be studied. Therefore, I was the primary instrument for gathering data. Due to the nature of the mixed-methods design, a very descriptive language was used to inform the reader of the details, concepts, findings, and analysis yielded by the qualitative portion of the study. My role in the study was that of a non-observer (Creswell, 1994; Cohen, 1986), which means that all tutors and tutees knew of my presence, although I did not partake in any activities, instruction, or support, during the tutoring sessions.

My role as the instrument of collecting data during the research process was limited to the qualitative portion of the study. As the researcher of the study, I was aware that my role needed to be limited to an outside observer and that interaction with the tutors during the first phase of the study (tutoring sessions) needed to be limited to introductions, as well as providing basic instructions



about the recording process. Because of my familiarity with the tutoring center, I recognized that during the initial phase of the study, I needed to limit my presence in the center. Also, due to my academic background and deep interest in the topic, I needed to limit my personal observations about tutoring, instruction, and the research study expectations with the tutors.

As the researcher in this study, I recognized that my academic studies have always focused on education, specifically in early development and early literacy. My interest in the topic began during my bachelor's degree where I focused on human development, specifically on learning how children learn. During this time, I spent hundreds of hours volunteering at K-6 schools, reading to children, drawing with children, and on occasions teaching them English. I also worked as an English instructor with K-8 students at a private institution where I actively implemented early literacy strategies to help students learn a second language. My graduate studies were specifically focused on Reading and Language Arts, and it was during this time I committed to working at the literacy center in the present study where I tutored children in early and emergent literacy. Two years volunteering with the literacy center helped me understand more in depth how the process of tutoring worked, as well as how early literacy students learn.

I recognize my biases toward the topic, as well as my personal, academic, and professional connection to the literacy center. For this reason, I attempted, to

the best of my abilities, to remain neutral during the data collection phase, as well as during the final interview with the tutors.

#### Definition of Key Terms and Constructs

To assist in the understanding of all elements of the study as presented, the following key terms are defined in Table 1 These constructs will be utilized throughout the research.

Table 1. Definition of Key Terms and Constructs

Terms	Definition
One-on-one instruction	Tutoring that occurs between one tutor and one tutee; in addition, one-on-one tutoring allows tutors the opportunity to pursue a given topic until the tutee has mastered it (Slavin, 1996).
Guided Instruction	Pedagogical skills of knowing when to give feedback, scaffoldings, and explanations (Fitz-Gibbon, 1977).
	Guiding the reader to pay close attention to the text, as well by assisting readers in finding ways to relate the text information to their personal experiences, while drawing from their knowledge (Linden & Wittrock, 1981).
Scaffolded Instruction	Socio-cultural theory (learning from others) (Vygotsky, 1978).
	Helping students learn when the right conditions are present (Brunner, 1977).
	Reciprocal teaching (four cognitive strategies – predicting, generating questions, summarizing and clarifying) (Cazden, 1988)
	Reading comprehension instruction (four strategies). (Palincsar & Brown, 1984).
Tutoring Effectiveness	Applying strategies of scaffolded instruction, guided instruction, and framing in a one-on-one tutoring session that demonstrate tutee engagement and reading success (America Reads, US Department of Education, 1997b)
Tutoring Frame	The structure of dialogue between tutor and tutee based on an exchange of questions and answers (Graesser, Person, & Magliano, 1995).
Reading Comprehension	Making sense of written text, as well as reconstructing meaning by developing a relationship with the text (Gambrell, K0skinen, & Kapinus, 1991).
Reading Motivation	Amount of time spent on reading task, as well as time spent on think-time interaction with text (Grambrell, 1983).
Reading	Reading is constructing meaning and using all that the reader knows in order to construct that meaning (Smith, 2003; & Weaver, 2002).
Teacher Efficacy	The set of beliefs a teacher holds regarding his or her own abilities and to teach and influence student behavior and achievement regardless of outside influences or obstacles (Steele, 2010).

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The focus of the research was to study the implementation of a one-on-one individualized tutoring program provided by a literacy center in a higher education institution staffed with America Reads and non-America Reads tutors. This review of the literature examined what research had addressed about literacy development in early years, tutee engagement during tutoring sessions, and characteristics of effective America Reads tutoring programs. As background to the study, three bodies of literature were addressed: 1) literacy development, 2) tutoring strategies, and, 3) America Reads tutoring effectiveness.

This review of the literature included a focus on 1) reading motivation, student engagement, and early reading development, 2) classroom instruction and reading development, and 3) one-on-one tutoring and reading development.

#### Background

##### What is Reading?

According to Smith (2003), reading written words is as natural as reading faces. In Smith's view, "learning to read should be as natural as any other comprehensive aspect of existence" (2003, p. 13). Although it is important to recognize that reading is not a simple process, it is widely agreed that reading entails searching for meaning. Clay (2005) reminded us that reading is indeed a

complex process that involves the decoding of the meaning intended by the author of the written text. Weaver (2002), Clay (2005) and Garrett (2002) agree that in order to create meaning, a reader must use everything he/she knows, as well as looking for further information from a variety of other sources.

### History of American Reads – Nation

Early in 1996, former President Bill Clinton challenged Americans to help children to learn to read independently by the end of third grade. Providing help through after school and summer programs, as well as reading support programs during the weekends would support the challenge. In order to accomplish this, former President Clinton suggested families serve as the child's first teacher, and community members could serve as tutors, mentors and reading partners. In 1997, the Department of Education published a document titled *Simple Things You Can Do to Help all Children Read Well and Independently By the End of Third Grade* which provided the title of the challenge: *America Reads Challenge: Read\* Write\* Now!* (U.S. Department of Education, 1997). This manual outlined the core elements of the challenge and provided resources as to how to meet and complete the challenge. The core objective of the challenge was to read to a child for 30 minutes a day, five days a week (with the reading done by a tutor at least one of those days), and finally, help the child learn at least one new word a day.

The *America Reads Challenge: Read\* Write\* Now!* Also outlined specific items needed to be considered by different support groups that wanted to get

involved such as families, schools, librarians, community members, universities, and employers, among others. Of particular importance to the *America Reads Challenge* Program is the involvement of tutors. According to the guidelines laid out by *America Reads Challenge*, “[T]utors are most effective and successful when they are trained and well coordinated” (U.S. Department of Education, 1997b p. 8). Furthermore, the President’s *America Reads Challenge* calls for universities to develop and implement initiatives that incorporate training materials for reading tutors and include “tutoring/mentoring skills and service learning opportunities in academic programs involving teacher preparation, social service, and human resources” (U.S. Department of Education, 1997, p. 19) in order to recruit part-time student volunteers who can be involved as reading partners.

#### History of America Reads at Site of Study

The University currently supports The America Reads/Counts program, and relevant to this study is the America Reads (AR) program. The program started at the university during the 1997/1998 academic year and as of 2015, it had been recognized by The President's Higher Education Community Service Honor Roll for seven consecutive years. The AR program provides tutorial support in Reading development primarily for school aged children grades K-6. The AR program also provides tutorial support at the local Adult School in adult literacy and has also placed tutors at public libraries for pre-K and provides tutorial support for parents/literacy programs all throughout the local community.

America Reads tutors at the university in this study are paid by the work-study program with funding from the Title IV financial aid Department of Education. Annually, the work-study program expends more than \$100,000 on just the America Reads programs. Since the academic year 2009/2010, there have been approximately 302 America Reads tutors in the program. Currently, there are 45 tutors working under the work-study program. These tutors are also referred to as Instructional Student Assistants (ISA), and are employed both on and off-campus. All tutors employed at an institution of higher education in Southern California work for the College of Education Literacy Center.

The process to become an America Reads tutor with the university adheres to the following procedures: 1) An applicant must have financial need, which is determined by the FAFSA application process. 2) Once the FAFSA application is completed and approved, students must complete an application process for the literacy center. 3) When both applications are completed and approved, the student will be given a work-study award to his/her financial aid package. 4) Tutors need to enroll in and pass ESEC 545, which is an adolescent tutoring course for students entering the teaching field. In this course, students are required to eight hours of tutoring per quarter. Additionally, enrolling in the ESEC 545 course fulfills one of the America Reads stipulations of preparing tutors in various instructional strategies and classroom activities before they begin tutoring under the America Reads program. 5) Students need to complete a background check that includes: life scan (finger prints), TB test, and drug

tests; the university provides students a stipend to assist with all these fees. Once students have completed all of the aforementioned steps, AR tutors can work up to 20 hours a week or up to their work-study award, and they need to maintain good academic standing in order to retain their employment as tutors.

### Reading: Motivation, Student Engagement, and Development

It is clear that to become better readers, students need to read. According to Miller (2010), the more readers read, the more time they can dedicate to processing what they read, and the greater their vocabulary growth. However, what role does reading motivation play in the student's literacy development? Miller (2010) believed that when teachers exposed students "to a variety of texts and authors, as well as validating their reading choices" (p. 35) students increased their reading motivation and interests while improving understanding of text structure and features and vocabulary usage, and even enhancing their background knowledge (Miller, 2010). Miller's assertion is supported by Krashen's (2004) research, which confirmed that motivating children to read a variety of texts also influences their comprehension, vocabulary, fluency, and even writing.

The National Research Council (1994) has proposed for several years that motivation is a crucial component for students to be successful readers. Based on studies done by the NRRC, Koskinen, Palmer and Codling (1994) investigated how children "acquire the motivation to develop into engaged readers" (p.176). The authors were also interested in identifying how "personal



and situational factors influenced a student's motivation to read" (Koskinen, et al., 1994, p.176). In this study, elementary school teachers of third and fifth graders asked their students the simple question: what motivates them to read? The authors categorized their responses into four influences that characterized students' motivation to read. These influences included: prior experience with books, social interaction with books, book access and, book choice. These four influences yielded important and significant results concerning factors that play an important role in students' motivation to read. For example, students who had experience with books, interacted with books, had access to books, had a choice of books, presented an inclination to read more varied books, spent more time reading books, and demonstrated a diverse imagination with regards to the main ideas of the books. In all, the influences and the factors identified by Kroskinen, et al. demonstrated and supported Vygotsky's (1978) premise that explains learning as the process that leads to higher order thinking, which occurs mainly through social interactions and language (Kozulin, 1986; Thomas, 1985).

Although a considerable amount of literature focused on struggling readers at third and 4<sup>th</sup> grade, Miller (2010) proposed the four influences on reading motivation can be applied to understanding what motivates and engages readers at an earlier age. As previously mentioned, Miller (2010) proposed that exposing students to a variety of texts helped them increase their vocabulary, as well as their comprehension of the different parts of text structure. Applying Miller's assertion to the expectations of the 4<sup>th</sup> grade reading to learn approach

serves as a reminder that understanding text is a complex process that builds on the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade extrinsic motivation for learning to read and becomes a more intrinsic motivation for comprehending reading as a process (Thomas, 1985).

A theoretical perspective in explaining reading motivation is the engagement model of reading comprehension (Guthrie, Hoa, Wigfield, Tonks, Humenick & Littles, 2007). This perspective specifically looked at the different multifaceted constructs of reading motivation. The premise of the engagement model specifies that “reading comprehension is the consequence of an extended amount of engaged reading” (Guthrie, et al., 2007, p. 283). Correspondingly, the Guthrie, et al. (2007) defined engaged reading as “motivated, strategic, knowledge driven and socially interactive; [...]” (p. 283). This is also consistent with Gambrell, Pfeiffer and Wilson (1985) who stated that in order for reading comprehension to exist, there must be construction of meaning through the relationship between reading engagement and text information. Looking at strategies tutors use in a controlled one-on-one session can serve to provide understanding of the immediate process that occurs when tutees move from using text structure to create meaning, and the actual meaning of the text they are reading.

### Early Literacy Skills

The U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1971 defined literacy as “the ability to read and to write a simple message in English or other languages” (Stoodt, 1989, p. 4). Literacy is a set of reading and writing skills people acquire at varying

levels. In school, literacy skills are defined as reading and writing achievement. Adams (1990) and van Kleeck (1998) noted that literacy learning experiences and accomplishments fall broadly into two categories: print (orthographic) and speech (phonological) processing skills. It is important to recognize that print-related literacy achievement outcomes are measured in the following areas: print awareness and meaning, alphabet knowledge, beginning reading, and invented spelling and writing (Robyak, Masiello, Trivette, Roper & Dunst, 2007). These print-related literacy outcomes should be seen in a one-on-one tutoring setting as indicators of early literacy development.

### English-Language Arts

When taking a detailed look at the English-Language Arts (ELA) Content Standards for the California public schools, there is a clear need to understand the importance of helping students develop strong foundations in literacy skills. Emphasizing the importance of developing strong literacy skills in the early years, the ELA content standards state, “the ability to communicate well—to read, write, listen, and speak—runs to the core of human experience” (California Department of Education 2009, p. v). It is in this human experience that language skills play such a significant role. The ELA CA standards also emphasize that language skills are essential tools as they serve as the necessary basis for further learning and career development and they enable the human spirit to be enriched, foster responsible citizenship, and preserve the collective memory of a nation (California Department of Education, 2009). The ELA content standards highlight

the importance of presenting children with the opportunity to “read and write often, particularly in their early academic careers” (California Department of Education, 2009, p. vi), as this will contribute to helping students learn about themselves, and understand their social relationship with others. Cairney (2002) noted that the experiences children have day in and day out in their homes and community, as well as those provided as part of early childhood intervention, contribute to later literacy success.

#### Reading and Early Literacy Development

Slavin (2006) defined emergent literacy as the “knowledge and skills related to reading that children usually develop from experience with books and other print [material] before the beginning of formal reading instruction in school.” Children acquire reading fluency gradually. The most rapid growth occurs in the elementary-school years, although teachers at every level of education contribute to students’ literacy (Stoodt, 1989). Chall (1983) identified six stages of reading development. According to Chall (1983), children at ages 6-7, first or second grade, are at stage 1 (initial reading and decoding). Subsequently, children at ages 7-8, second or third grade, are at stage 2-3 (confirmation fluency). Chall also concluded that between the ages of 4-14, children experience stage 3, or reading for learning new information. Only the second and third stages are relevant to this study since the children in the study are between 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grade in school.

## Reading Learning and Acquisition

According to Freeman and Freeman (2004), reading serves two particular purposes: the first is to acquire meaning, and the second is to build knowledge upon that meaning. Recognizing words and decoding them to make sense of their meaning falls under learning the language. While combining background knowledge, and linguistic cues, with the learned words, language is acquired. Smith (2003) suggested reading is basically “making sense of print” as an “everyday aspect of most people’s visual word” (p.13), breaking the process of reading down to a much more graspable concept that required no special tools or techniques necessary for a child to become a reader—only experience. However, consideration also needs to be given to theories of reading acquisition, as well as types of readers, in order to better understand where potential problems in reading comprehension arise.

Freeman and Freeman (2004) provided two views that corresponded to the distinction between learning and acquisition in reading. The word recognition view simply referred to the process when the reader decodes the printed words and recognizes them as words in his/her own oral language, while the sociopsycholinguistic view is the process of constructing meaning by utilizing background knowledge and understanding cues from linguistic systems that help the reader make sense of the text (Freeman & Freeman, 2004). Subsequently, be it through the word recognition or sociopsycholinguistic view, the process of

attempting to achieve reading literacy plays a major role in students becoming either good or poor readers.

Thus, how does the process of learning to read help children to read? The literature presents two schools of thought that address this question. Adams (1990) and Clay (2005) see reading as a process that follows specific, non-flexible steps. While others, such as Smith (2003) and Weaver (2002), believed reading is achieved when the reader establishes a relationship with the text, and uses his or her personal experiences to draw connections. Smith's (2003) and Weaver's (2002) approach to reading will help answer the question: what is reading? For this study, the definition of reading will be that reading is constructing meaning and using all that the reader knows in order to construct that meaning.

Smith (2003) believed children learn to read when conditions are right. These conditions include the relationship that children develop with books and other reading materials, as well as the relationship that they – the children – develop with the people who will help them to read (Smith, 2003). The literature (e.g. Adams, 1990; Clay, 2005; Smith, 2004; Weaver, 2002) is clear that children learn to read in conditions where they establish good relationships with books and people. Indeed, Weaver (2002) suggested ways that this 'environment' and conditions can be utilized in the process. Such an environment can include working with an enthusiastic instructor, parent participation at home, library activities, etc. To Weaver (2002), there are eight main components common in

teacher-developed classroom [reading] literacy programs. These components are:

- Read-aloud: “teacher demonstrates how to read with expression and how to portray characters’ voices” (p. 232).
- Guided reading: “teacher focuses on reading for meaning and not just words; using phonics along with other cues [...]” (p. 233).
- Shared reading: using a large print book, the teacher reads aloud to the class, then re-reads the text pointing “to each word encouraging the children to chime in whenever they can” (p. 233).
- Sustained reading: teacher has children “read, read, read!” which helps them develop the “expectation that ‘I can read’” (p. 233).
- Free voluntary reading: children “[read] texts for pleasure” (p. 233).
- Individual reading conferences: Teacher allows for time to “confer with students individually about their reading” (p. 233).
- Literature groups: all students in the group/class read the same book and sit around in circles to discuss it; often with the teacher, but mainly by themselves.
- Inquiry, or reading to learn: teachers guide students in “developing skills for dealing with informational texts [...]” (p. 234) and on how to use the newly learned information to inquire about a topic.

The present study looked at tutors' strategies to help tutees develop early literacy skills, by means of activities and goals set for each tutoring session, which are based, mainly, on Weaver's components..

### Struggling and Skilled Readers

Reading and writing are the most significant literacy skills students need to learn in the elementary school years. Studies on reading and writing focus on the developmental difficulties of struggling readers by the end of 3<sup>rd</sup> or the beginning of 4<sup>th</sup> grade (e.g. Baker, 2003; Clark & Paivio, 1991; Foorman, Francis, Fletcher, Schatschneider, & Mehta, 1998; Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993; Guthrie & Wigfield, 1999; Hecht & Close, 2002; *Report of the National Reading Panel*, 2000; Paterson, J.J. Henry, O'Quin, Cetrano, & Blue 2003; Scanlon & Vellutino, 1997; Torgesen, 2004; Torgesen, Rashotte, Alexander, Alexander, & MacPhee, 2003). However, fewer studies argue that struggling students have encountered difficulties in reading and writing since the first grade or even kindergarten (e.g. Bus & Van Ijzendoorn, 1999; Cassady & Smith, 2005; Gambrell, 1981; Juel, 1988; and Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998). Additionally, reading and writing are not isolated processes learned independently from each other (Clay, 2005). When studying the process of learning to read, it needs to be noted that while students learn to read, they are also learning to write. Strickland, Ganske and Monroe (2002) argued the ultimate goal for developing reading and writing skills was to be able to create meaning. Strickland, Ganske and Monroe (2002) also found that one of the differences between struggling and skilled readers and writers



was that skilled students were able to process print more efficiently, leaving them with time to devote to understanding.

Strickland, Ganske and Monroe (2002) have gone on to argue that “when word knowledge is limited, as is often the case with struggling readers and writers, so much attention must be given to figuring out individual words that little energy is left for comprehending text and expressing ideas” (p. 1). Because reading and writing are not completely isolated processes, instruction in the early grades, particularly in first and second grade, needs to focus on helping students develop processes that they can begin to associate the spoken word with letter sounds. Strickland, Ganske and Monroe (2002) found this combination of phonetic awareness and recognizing the word’s printed form, allowed students to build the reading vocabulary necessary to help them write.

Clay (2005) agreed with Freeman and Freeman (2004) that readers are either good or poor readers, and added the distinction that good readers are good because they are smart readers. In Clay’s view, the reader-text interaction is dependent on how the mental readiness of the reader matches the text. In other words, “smart readers ask themselves very effective questions” that help them reduce the uncertainty of the text; in contrast, “poor readers ask themselves rather trivial questions” which leads them to increase their uncertainty about the text (2005, p. 14). Along with Clay, Gibbons (2002) categorized readers based on their ability to interact with the text. In Gibbons’ (2002) view, successful readers fit into one of the following four reading categories: 1) Readers as code-breakers

who understand sound-syllable relationship and left to right directionality and have knowledge of the alphabet. 2) Text participants who connect a text with their own background knowledge, culture, and gender. 3) Text users who are able to participate and play a major part in social activities written in a text. And 4) Text analysts who recognize assumptions and read a text critically as an object produced by an author who has a set of ideologies. Shagoury (2010) supported Gibbons (2002) and added good readers who interact with the text formed connections to the characters of the story as it unfolded before them.

### Classroom Instruction and Reading Development

An often-used instructional strategy employed in the classroom for teaching and assessing reading comprehension is retelling (Gambrell, Koskinen & Kapinus, 1991). The process of retelling text-acquired information allowed the reader to focus on reconstructing the information to make meaning. Gambrell et al., (1991) proposed that learning to “reconstruct text is a vital part of the reading process” (p. 171), so much so, that only through developing and establishing relationships with text, can reading comprehension occur. Linden and Wittrock (1981) also advocated for building relationships with the text and called it “generative learning” (p. 45). This type of learning defined reading comprehension in two facets: the first was the relationship between the text and the reader’s knowledge, and second, was the reader building relationships among the parts of the text (Linden & Wittrock, 1981). Gambrell, et al. took the concept further than just a personal relationship between the reader and the text

and proposed that “the most important strength children bring to the task of learning to read is their oral language ability” (1985, p. 216). However, the literature suggested that during teacher centered or directed instruction, children are provided with little opportunities to verbalize” (Gambrell, et al., 1985, p. 216).

Gambrell (1983) studied the importance of teacher and student think-time, which is the time after a teacher asks a question and before a student answers, during reading instruction. Gambrell found that in addition to comprehension instruction and think-time occurrence, engagement and motivation were key factors for students’ success in reading comprehension. Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa, Perencevich, Taboada, Davis, Scafiddi and Tonks (2004) demonstrated that students’ engagement and motivation was directly related to how much time and energy teachers devoted to these two areas. In their study, Guthrie, et al. (2004) identified students who worked with teachers who displayed high levels of interaction and energy had high levels of engagement and motivation along with higher levels of reading comprehension.

Similarly, comprehension instruction is also related to the teacher’s role as a director and manager of practice (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991). Dole, et al. (1991) found that during comprehension instruction, the teacher “becomes a mediator who helps students construct understanding” about the content of the text, interpreting the text, and “the nature of reading itself” (p. 252). Dole, et al. (1991) suggested “instruction can be characterized as a process in

which teachers attempt to make learning sensible and students attempt to make sense of learning” (p. 256).

### Some Common Strategies for Teaching Reading

Newkirk (2010) proposed that by teaching children how to memorize, or “knowing by heart” (p. 9), readers developed a sense of owning a text in a very special and individual way. In addition to memorizing, reading aloud, annotating a page and even reading poetry are strategies that allowed readers to interact with the text differently, as well as to increase their attention to meaning (Newkirk, 2010). Along this same argument, Ivey (2010) proposed an effective strategy for readers to increase their recall and remembrance of the text was to switch approaches to the books provided to read. Ivey (2010) asserted that “instead of focusing on how to get students to remember what they read, our best bet is simply to provide them with texts that are memorable” (Ivey, 2010, p. 19).

Another effective instructional strategy for teaching reading is promoting “close reading” (Gallegher, 2010). According to Gallegher, “teaching close reading is not the same as chopping up a book into so many pieces that it becomes unrecognizable” (p. 40); instead, close reading allows students to read large chunks of text, after which the students identify “strategically key passages” that reaffirm their thinking about the reading (p. 40). This strategy can also be maximized when the teacher is able to facilitate reading comprehension by guiding the reader to pay close attention to the text, as well by assisting readers in finding ways to relate the text information to their own personal experience,

while drawing from their knowledge (Linden & Wittrock, 1981). This, according to Linden and Wittrock, helps readers build associations and abstractions from the text (1981).

The focus on teacher instruction was addressed in Gambrell's (1991) research, which identified a common deficiency during teacher directed instruction. Gambrell (1991) found that during reading comprehension instruction, American teachers usually allow only about one second for students to respond to teacher-prompted questions. This finding revealed that although a think-time period is necessary for appropriate reading instruction, limiting the allowed response time "does little to stimulate a student's depth of thought or quality of response" (Gambrell, 1991, p. 77).

When examining the definition of reading comprehension instruction, it was found that a further drawback, besides the shorter response time, was a lack of definition of goals for the instruction period (Durkin, 1979). Durkin also demonstrated that comprehension instruction could move in two different directions: the first is equating comprehension with reading, and the second Durkin called "loss of identity" (1979, p. 487). In Durkin's (1979) view, the first path made instruction so broad that anything done that helps children to learn is then considered comprehension instruction. The second path suggested comprehension instruction places all its attention on isolated words and meaning that is larger than single words (Durkin, 1979).

Another strategy that has shown positive results is “manipulation strategy” (Glenberg, Brown, and Levin, 2007). In this strategy, children were asked to follow directions from sentences marked with a green traffic light that served as a signal for the child to manipulate a toy (Glenberg, Brown, & Levin, 2007, p. 390). Their study provided four reasons why this manipulation strategy works on enhancing comprehension. The reasons were listed as: memory works better in shorter mimed phrases, rather than longer memorized phrases; also, the effect is consistent with the dual-coding approach as well as being consistent with mental models of text comprehension; and finally, “the effect is consistent with most embodied theories of cognition” (Glenberg, Brown, & Levin, 2007, p. 390).

In a different but similar study, Garrett (2002) stated the cognitive act of reading is directly influenced by affective functions. These functions are in turn the catalyst that help’s children experience success in reading by performing activities designed exclusively to “target the development of the affective domain” (p. 21); in other words, children cannot only be influenced cognitively by reading, but emotionally as well.

### Scaffolded Instruction

Scaffolding is regarded as a set of knowledge, skills, and prior experiences that allows the child to accomplish tasks that previously would have been impossible to achieve unassisted (Wertsch & Sohmer, 1995). Although not a Vygotskian term, scaffolding was first developed by Woods, Bruner and Ross (1976) as a way of operationalizing the process, and later reexamined by Daniels

(2001) who believed scaffolding was an appropriate metaphor for understanding Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development as the process by which a student is guided through the development of skills necessary to perform a task independently. From Daniels' (2001) perspective, scaffolding needs to be understood as the process by which a learner moves from being supported during the initial performance of a task, to a subsequent performance without assistance. Figure 1 represents the interaction between teacher involvement and student work, aligned with scaffolded instruction and scaffolded learning to support the student learning process.

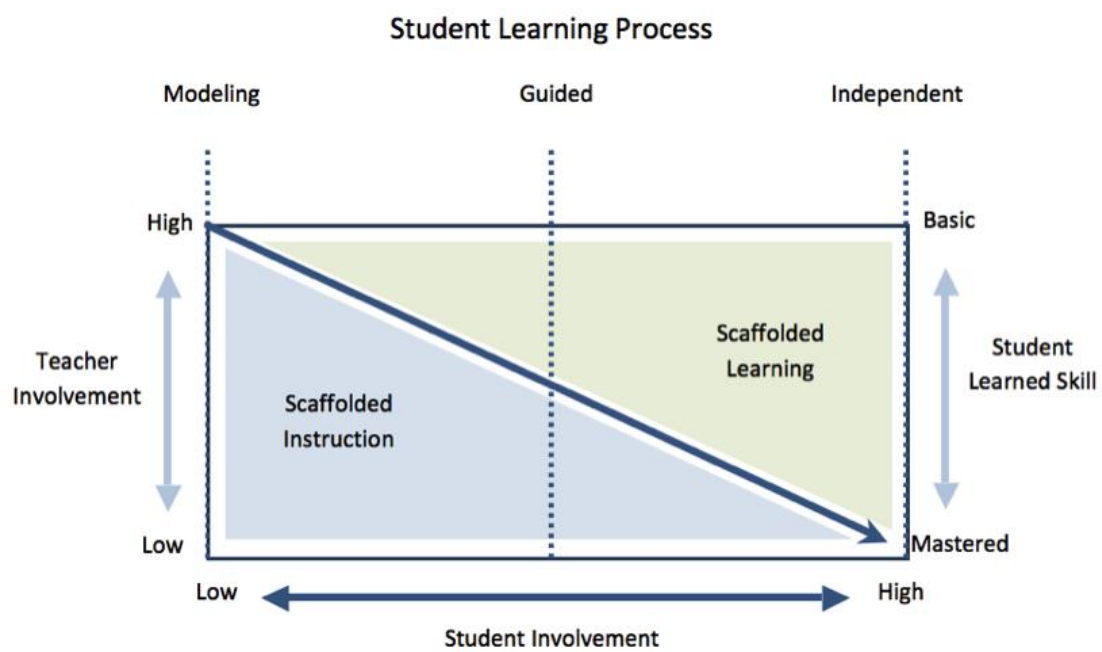


Figure 1. Student Learning Process Aligned to the Process of Scaffolded Instruction

*Note: this figure is an adaptation of Brantley's student learning process, and the process of scaffolded instruction and learning.*

## Teacher Effectiveness

The research literature in the field of teacher effectiveness addressed the following questions: 1) What is teacher effectiveness? 2) Who is an effective teacher? 3) What are the characteristics of an effective teacher? And 4) How does an effective teacher implement instruction techniques?

No Child Left Behind (2001) defined a highly qualified teacher as one who possessed a degree, was state certified, and demonstrated knowledge of the subject content taught. The Teaching Commission (2004) stated the definition of teacher quality was based on high standards of teacher performance and student achievement. These definitions of a qualified teacher are narrow and are an indicator of how policymakers view teacher quality and effectiveness as based solely on teacher academic abilities, rather than personal qualities.

A more comprehensive definition of teacher effectiveness includes a combination of academic qualifications and personal characteristics possessed by the teacher. Teacher effectiveness also includes students' perceptions and observations about the teacher's behaviors in the classroom. Brown, Morehead, and Smith (2008) studied self-perception of teacher candidates before and after a pre-service program to determine whether the teacher's perceptions of what constitutes an effective teacher changed after completing the pre-service program. Brown, Morehead, and Smith (2008) compared their results to Patton's (1990) six distinct themes related to students' conceptions of a good teacher were identified. These themes were professionalism, a student-centered



approach, knowledge, classroom management, personal attributes and teaching skills (Patton, 1990). In Brown, Morehead, and Smith's (2008) study, 123 elementary education teacher candidates were enrolled in two "integrated courses linking instructional design with understanding the diverse needs of children" (p. 171). The purpose of the study was to identify changes in prospective elementary "teachers' conceptions related to their descriptions of the qualities of effective teachers" (Brown, Morehead, & Smith, 2008, p. 172).

Brown, Morehead, and Smith (2008) looked at their findings using the method developed by Miles and Huberman (1994) for analyzing qualitative data, and discovered that nearly 100% of responses provided by the pre-service teachers were included in the personal attributes theme. Figure 2 is from Brown, Morehead, and Smith's (2008) findings.

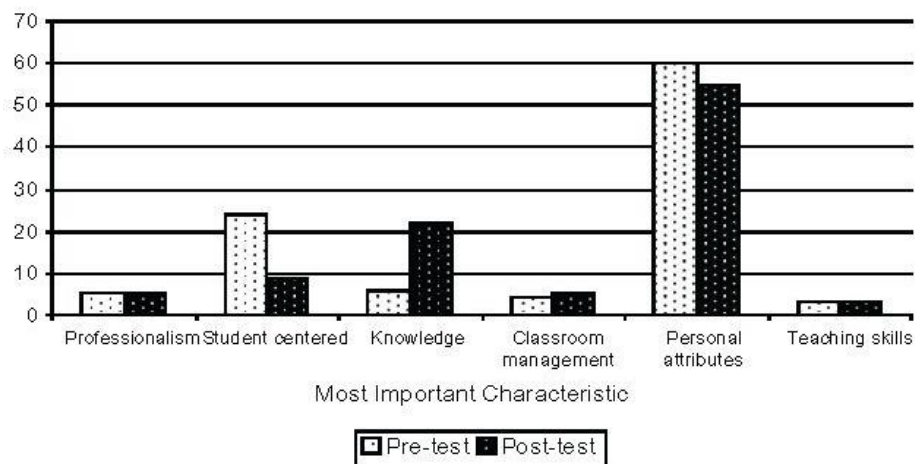


Figure 2. Brown, Morehead, and Smith (2008), Students' View of the Most Important Characteristics for Good Teaching  
*Note: this figure was taken directly from Brown, Morehead, and Smith's (2008) study*

### Characteristics of an Effective Teacher

The literature reviewed does not make a distinction between a good teacher and good teaching practice. Studies that identified teacher effectiveness were related to effective teaching practices. The reviewed literature suggested an effective teacher displayed effective teaching techniques, which in turn helped identify general, personal and academic characteristics of an effective teacher (e.g., Tschanmen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

In a similar study to Brown, Morehead, and Smith's (2008) work, however, on a larger scale, over one 1000 teacher candidates across four countries enrolled in nine different teaching methods courses, including Social Studies, Science, Math, Curriculum Development, Child Development, and Intro to Special Education (Walker 2008). Teacher candidates in a teacher education program were asked to write essays on what they considered to be characteristics of effective teachers. Following pre- and post- classroom discussions, Walker (2008) found "twelve identifiable personal and professional characteristics" of effective teachers (p. 64). These characteristics are important as they provide the foundation for observations in the present study to identify strategies used by tutors in their one-on-one sessions, which can be attributed to either personal, professional, or both tutor characteristics. Table 2 summarizes Walker's characteristics, as well as framing the characteristics of an effective teacher from a general and personal perspective

Table 2. Personal and Professional Characteristics of Effective Teachers

Characteristics	Personal	Professional
Prepared		x
Positive attitude	x	
High expectations	x	x
Creative		x
Fair	x	
Displays a personal touch	x	
Cultivates sense of belonging	x	
Compassionate	x	
Sense of humor	x	x
Respects students	x	x
Forgiving	x	
Accountable	x	x

*Walker's (2008) twelve characteristics of effective teachers*

In a review of the literature on teacher effectiveness and effective teachers, Dibapile (2011) concluded effective teaching is a combination of teaching skill, preparation, and self-perception. Dibapile's (2011) conclusion is consistent with Tschanmen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) assertion that effective teachers display abilities in three main areas: instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement. Steele (2010) added nonverbal communication as well as servant leadership as additional characteristics of effective teachers. Steele's (2010) contribution to the literature of teacher effectiveness highlighted the characteristic of servant leadership as a fundamental component of developing a strong efficacy perception of an effective teacher. Steele's work summarizes Jennings and Stahl-Wert (2003) principles for being an effective servant leader in the classroom. These five principles are:

having a purpose, ability to unleash students' strengths, talents and passions, setting high standards, ability to address the strengths and weaknesses of the students, and finally, humbleness. These principles will serve as the foundation for understanding tutor self-efficacy in the present study.

### Teacher Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as a person's belief in the ability to succeed in a particular situation and "the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required managing prospective situations" (Bandura, 1977, p. 2). Gist and Mitchell (1992) defined self-efficacy as the belief in one's ability to complete a specific task. This concept of self-efficacy allows an individual to gauge one's own understanding of whether one would be successful. Gist and Mitchell (1992) described the level of self-efficacy as the strength of one's belief in how much one can be engaged in the learning process. Denham and Michael (1981) first reported on teacher self-efficacy as being directly related to student achievement. According to Denham and Michael (1981), a teacher's perception of the ability to be effective depended on the level of achievement students demonstrated when completing tasks and assignments. This will be important to consider only as it relates to the tutor's sense of efficacy in the present study.

Two dimensions of self-efficacy which relate to teaching are general teaching efficacy, which is generally perceived as a belief in the power of teaching to achieve results in the classroom, and personal teaching efficacy, which is one's belief in one's personal ability to achieve results (Barnes, 2000).

Teachers with positive self-efficacy have a strong academic and people orientation (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Kinzie & Delcourt, 1991). Teachers with positive self-efficacy feel a personal accomplishment, have high expectations for students, feel responsibility for student learning, have strategies for achieving objectives, have a positive attitude about teaching and believe they can influence student learning (Ashton, 1984). Teachers who perceived themselves efficacious spent more time on student learning, supported students in their goals and reinforced intrinsic motivation (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986). For the purpose of the present study, teacher efficacy, defined as “the set of beliefs a teacher holds regarding his or her own abilities and competencies to teach and influence student behavior and achievement regardless of outside influences or obstacles” (Steele, 2010, p. 4), was used to determine tutor efficacy.

### Tutoring and Reading Development

Topping (1996) defined tutoring as not being the same “as mentoring or cooperative learning” (p. 43). Instead, tutoring focuses on curriculum content “and is characterized by specific role taking” (p. 43) in that someone, at some point, will be the tutor while the other is the tutee. Topping (1996) also stated that the traditional assumption about tutors, especially those in college, is that they needed to be the best students in their respective classes. However, studies on tutor motivation (e.g. Maher, Maher & Thurston, 1998; Scruggs & Mastripiieri, 1988) have demonstrated that unless tutors had something to gain from the

tutoring, they were under stimulated, which led to a drop in motivation toward tutoring.

One of the key reasons why tutoring has such a positive impact on student success is “because it fosters social interaction through the creation of a supportive relationship between the tutor and the tutee” (Topping, 1996 p. 46). Topping reported on 30 previous reviews and meta-analyses (e.g. Bobko, 1984; Chi, 1996; Dvorak, 2001, 2004; Medway, 1991; Person, Kreuz, Zwann, & Graesser, 1995) of hundreds of individual studies on the effectiveness of peer-tutoring and discovered that there “is strong evidence of cognitive gains” (p. 44) for tutees and tutors. Further, Topping found evidence of improved attitudes and self-image and improved outcomes in cross-age tutoring. In addition, Topping (1996) reported most of the studies on tutoring effectiveness showed an increased effect on academic achievement when the tutoring sessions were done as part of a “structured program of relatively frequent tutoring” (p. 45). Topping concluded that “tutoring methods should be structured to maximize the potential advantages and minimize the potential disadvantages of [volunteer] tutors” (p. 48), as well as “be complementary rather than supplementary” (p. 48).

### Some Common Strategies for Tutoring

#### One-on-one/Individual Tutoring

Slavin (1992) and Fitz-Gibbon (1977) provided three general findings to support one-on-one tutoring. In one-on-one tutoring, students gained understanding, were motivated, and worked efficiently (Slavin, 1992). According

to Slavin (1992), one advantage in one-on-one tutoring is the difference between teachers and tutors in that in tutoring, tutors have the opportunity to pursue a given topic until the student has mastered it. Second, in one-on-one tutoring, tutors have often mastered the subject matter themselves before they conduct a tutoring session or sessions. Finally, tutors often do not have formal training in tutoring skills (Fitz-Gibbon, 1977); however, according to Fitz-Gibbon (1977), tutors do develop tutoring skills which refer to the pedagogical skills of knowing when to give feedback, scaffolding, and explanations, when to hold back error corrections, and allow the students to infer that an error has been made. These skills, in many cases, are part of training programs for volunteer tutors, such as America Reads tutors.

The Gallop Center (1988) provided a report that highlighted their four fundamental beliefs about effective tutoring, as well as what they called the “six ingredients” (p. 5) for a good tutoring program. These beliefs and ingredients are fundamental in understanding the importance of having well trained, caring, tutors, and a well-established and organized tutoring program.

The Gallop Center was founded on the following fundamental beliefs: 1. “The child’s self-esteem is of great importance” (1988 p.10). Self-esteem comes after developing a relationship of mutual trust. Through appropriate scaffolded instruction, the child starts to become aware of his/her own ability and success. As self-esteem grows, it frees the tutor from the responsibility to maintain a position of authority, and allows the child to depend on his/her own newly

developed skills. 2. An emphasis on a “trusting relationship” (p. 10) wherein the child develops trust for the tutor and the process. The effectiveness of individual tutoring [one-on-one] is that it eliminates the element of competition, which means that the child has only himself to compete against, as opposed to competing with other children in the group. Consequently, one-on-one tutoring helps the child learn about individuality in the sense that it helps the child go through a process of moving from dependency on the tutor, to independence from the tutor. Finally, 5. The tutoring program needs to focus on “identifiable problems” (p. 11) in order for it to be effective toward helping the child learn. Tutors need to have clear objectives and goals, be able to develop a specific program (lesson plan) that is tailored to the individual student’s needs. Further, help (tutoring) should be offered early in a child’s school career and tutoring should be fun.

To support their beliefs of what constitutes an effective one-to-on program, the Gallop Center (1988) provided what they called “the six ingredients for a good tutoring program” (p. 5). In short, these ingredients are: a willing child, a good tutor, a qualified supervisor, a well-designed program, adequate time, and supportive parents.

## Tutoring Effectiveness

### Elements of Effective Tutoring

It is hard to determine the effectiveness of tutors since there is little understanding of what formal training for tutors is. Most of the research on tutor



training is focused on university-level tutors working as peer-tutors, which is different from this study on tutors working with early literacy tutees. An important note to make is that there are studies showing that there is no significant relationship between the impact of tutoring on learning and amount of tutor training (or age difference between tutor and student) (Chi, Hausmansnn, Jeong, Siler, & Yamauch, 2001). In the case of AR tutors, they have received about 20 hours of instruction, plus up to 48 hours of tutoring, and approximately 35 hours of studying outside class (Turpin & Smith Interview, May 2015). Conversely, it was estimated that the average amount of tutor training in formal programs, such as the ones run in colleges, was approximately six hours.

In their study, Chi, et al. (2001), looked at three hypotheses regarding tutor effectiveness. The hypotheses asked the questions: Does tutoring effectiveness arise from the tutor's pedagogical skills? Can tutoring effectiveness arise from student's active interaction? Does tutoring effectiveness arise from the joint effort of both the tutors and the students? They discovered that in some cases, tutor effectiveness arose from tutors' own understandings of their pedagogical skills, as well as the perceived joint effort of both the tutors and their students working together. Subsequently, Chi, et al. (2001) did not find significant support for whether tutoring effectiveness arose from students' active interaction in their own learning process.

In a similar study, Graesser, Person, and Magliano (1995) focused on the dialogue between tutors and tutees, and concluded effective tutoring dialogue

between tutor and tutee consists of what they called a 'tutoring frame'. This tutoring frame consists of the following broad steps:

- tutor asking questions and student providing answers;
- tutor gives feedback to answer whether it is correct or not;
- tutor scaffolds to improve or elaborate the student's answer;
- tutor guides the child to develop/achieve the child's full potential;
- tutor gauges student's understanding of the answer;
- tutor asks comprehension questions to help the child identify and evaluate his/her own response (as cited in Chi, et al, 2001)

In addition to the studies on tutoring training and experience and tutor effectiveness, as presented by Chi, et al. (2001) and Graesser, et al., (1995), Giddings (1989) proposed regardless of the nature of tutoring programs in colleges, tutoring usually takes place in one of three forms: first, in small groups; second, in classroom situations; and the third more prevalent form of tutoring, individual tutoring. Furthermore, Giddings (1989) asserted in order for tutoring to be effective, tutors needed to be trained. According to Giddings (1989), training sessions for tutors needed to include information related to the following six areas: 1. Establishing rapport with students, 2. Obtaining information, advice and materials, 3. Applying informal diagnostic techniques, 4. Charting students' progress and keeping their records, 5. Developing motivational techniques; and finally, 6. Using specific tutoring materials. This information is currently provided

to the tutors in the present study, through the ESEC 545 course taken at the institution of higher education in Southern California.

### Characteristics of an Effective Tutor

Giddings (1989) outlined five basic principles for the tutor. These principles state that the tutor: 1. Understands and respects children, 2. Strives to help students achieve success in reading, 3. Is flexible in his or her approach to teaching reading, 4. Builds upon the experiential backgrounds of students, and 5. Brings novelty to reading instruction. Later, Hirsh (1993), noted good tutors display the following characteristics: were willing to pay attention to their tutees, knew their role, knew how to identify reading levels and plan resources accordingly, knew about the process of reading and how to help tutees decode, and finally, encouraged their tutees to make progress in their own learning process. Both Giddings (1989) and Hirsh (1991) noted the importance of preparation programs for tutors. For Giddings (1989), “students in teacher preparation programs, particularly those enrolled in reading method’s courses, can be considered one group with a decided advantage in term of tutoring assignments” (p. 8).

### Tutor Efficacy

The literature review thus far has touched on instruction, learning, teacher and teacher effectiveness, as well as on tutoring, tutoring programs, effective tutors and effective tutoring. However, the literature reviewed only touches briefly tutor efficacy, and thus as a means to address this gap in the literature, one

factor this study explores is how tutors' sense of efficacy directly correlates with effective tutoring practices and early literacy development instruction (reading and writing).

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

This research study was designed to describe the characteristics of effective tutoring practices in a one-on-one tutoring program staffed by America Reads (AR) literacy tutors. In order to understand the processes through which AR literacy tutors approach literacy tutoring, it was necessary to study non-America Reads (nAR) literacy tutors and to discover whether AR tutors apply different literacy tutoring strategies than nAR. While looking at how both AR and nAR tutors facilitate their respective tutoring sessions, it became important to study the approaches and tutoring styles.

Denzin and Lincoln (1995) proposed qualitative research is a “situated activity that locates the observer in the world,” and provides explanations that involve an “interpretative, naturalistic approach” (p. 3) of the world being observed through an objective lens. With this in mind, research questions were drafted to help investigate the tutoring practices of AR and nAR tutors interacting naturally in their own environment.

The following research questions guided this study: (a) What strategies do AR tutors implement when helping tutees develop literacy skills in a one-on-one tutoring program? (b) What effective instruction strategies are used to help tutees develop literacy skills? (c) What role does the tutor and tutoring effectiveness

play in the implementation of a one-on-one tutoring program that fosters development of early literacy skills?

### Research Design

This study incorporated a mix of qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The research design was primarily ethnographic in nature and was characterized by observing and recording tutors and conducting unstructured interviews at a center in a higher education institution in Southern California. This approach allowed the researcher to look closely and meaningfully at the components and processes that occurred during tutoring sessions. Furthermore, unstructured interviews were implemented in order to fully understand the situated activities that placed the researcher as the observer. Denzin and Lincoln (1995) have supported unstructured interviews as an opportunity for an in-depth ethnographic look at the event being observed. Lofland (1971) also advocated for the use of open-ended unstructured interviews along with the use of participant observations, as they go hand-in-hand and provide a more holistic capture of accurate data in the form of ideas, comments, questions, and honest participation.

### Recruitment and Participants

The study was conducted at the Ticho Center for the Advancement of Literacy Skills (TiCALS) at an institution of higher education in California during the spring quarter of 2015. Founded in 2004, the TiCALS is housed in the

College of Education at an institution of higher education in California, and provides one-on-one and one-on-two literacy tutoring in four literacy domains (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) to children in grades kindergarten through 12. For each tutee, tutoring sessions are one day per week, one hour per session, and are provided for eight weeks during the fall, winter, and spring. For the America Reads tutors to be eligible to tutor at the TiCALS, they have to have successfully completed a secondary education (ESEC 545) course, which provides tutors with training to help tutees increase their literacy skills. Non-America Reads tutors are part of the work-study program and can tutor (sometimes without tutoring training) at the center if completing a degree requirement in a related literacy field.

### Recruitment

With the permission of TiCALS's director, an email invitation to participate was sent to the four AR tutors and five nAR tutors who had previously taken ESEC 545 (see Appendix B). These tutors were not randomly selected, as they all met the selection criteria for the study. All tutors invited to participate via email accepted. Once email replies were received from the tutors, a one-on-one meeting was held to explain the study and what would be required of them as participants (observations, interviews, and surveys). After discussing the nature of the study and research expectations, all nine tutors agreed to move forward with their participation in the study. Next, tutors were given a consent form asking their permission to be video recorded, interviewed, and take part in a survey

(Appendix C). All nine tutors consented. There was no incentive provided for their participation. Tutors were given the opportunity to withdraw from the study at any time during the study over the period of an academic quarter. Tutors were made aware that there are no known risks associated with participation in this study. Tutors were also informed of the foreseeable benefits of participating in the study, including, but not limited to: feedback on their instructional practices, the opportunity to learn about effective strategies for literacy development tutoring, the opportunity to learn from their own strategies while observing their recorded sessions, and a letter of acknowledgement for their contributions to the study and to the bettering of the center. All nine participants were over the age of 18.

### Participants

Participants were current America Reads and non-America Reads tutors in the TiCALS and all participating tutors needed to have been tutoring in the center for a minimum of two consecutive academic quarters as a criterion for participation. The center employed four AR tutors all of whom were willing to participate. The center staffed twelve nAR tutors; however, the researcher identified five nAR tutors in an Initial Teaching Credential track.

### Data Sources

Nine tutors (four AR and five nAR) participated in the study. All nine tutors completed a Teacher Self-efficacy Scale (TSES) survey at the beginning of the study, which lasted one academic quarter. At the end of the academic quarter, six tutors (two AR and four nAR) completed the post-TSES; the other three tutors



opted-out of completing the post-TSES. Tutors were recorded while tutoring and also when interviewed by the researcher. The initial phase of recordings took place during the first two weeks of the academic quarter, the middle phase by weeks five and six, and the final phase during the last two weeks of the academic quarter. By the end of the study, there were 21 tutoring recordings and five one-on-one interview recordings for a total of 26 recordings; one nAR tutor opted-out of being interviewed at the end of the study.

### Tutoring Recordings

Tutors were recorded during one-hour tutoring sessions with their center-assigned tutees (these tutees were the same throughout the academic quarter). As the researcher and observer of this study, implementing a qualitative approach meant pulling back from being present at the initial recordings of the tutoring sessions in order to allow the participants to act and interact naturally. Each tutor-tutee pair worked together in a private room at the TiCALS. With the exception of one tutor-tutee pair who had worked together the previous academic quarter, the rest of the tutor-tutee pairs were first-time pairs. The times and dates for each tutoring session were arranged by the director, and the researcher recorded the first session of the academic quarter for each participating tutor-tutee. A video camera was placed on a tripod at the end of the room opposite from the tutor, facing away from the tutee. The video camera was directly focused on the tutor, and the tutee was outside of the video frame. Only the tutor was video recorded, and the tutees' audible feedback was not used for data

analysis or dissemination. Although tutor-tutee pairs remained the same throughout the study, the focus of this study was on the tutors and not the tutees. After checking that video and audio were functional, the researcher left the room and did not return until the session was finished and the tutor and tutee had left the room. Once the tutoring session was completed, the researcher retrieved the video camera and kept the video files secured in a password-protected folder in a password protected, encrypted laptop computer, locked in a drawer in the researcher's locked office, to which only the researcher had a key. The researcher did not open, view, or analyze the recordings until the interviews were conducted.

### Interview Recordings

The use of interviewing in qualitative research is common, and as Fontana and Frey (1998) proposed, the process of interviewing is not simply the act of asking and answering questions; those involved in the information exchange process lead a "collaborative effort called 'the interview'" (p. 161). Given the ethnographic nature of this study, the researcher decided the most effective type of interview would be "unstructured interviewing" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1995). According to Denzin and Lincoln (1995), unstructured interviewing provides "greater breath than do other types [of interviews] given its qualitative nature" (p. 705). Thus, the interviews followed a flexible set of guiding questions (see Appendix D), and the researcher provided a set up that allowed both the researcher and tutor to observe the recorded tutoring sessions and discuss the

processes and strategies the tutor used. As the field of literacy development has not firmly established an interview protocol for tutor self-assessment, the researcher developed the interview questions. The researcher observed all tutoring recordings, and selected six clips, two clips per session, where the tutor demonstrated the use or application of pertinent teaching strategies. Having completed a Master's degree in Reading and Language Arts and having taught reading courses in the past, the researcher was able to identify common classroom teaching strategies used in the tutoring sessions. The researcher then identified the strategies that aligned with those in the TSES and the tutoring frame and chose the clips accordingly. Due to the rich, complex, and interactive nature of observing a tutor observe himself/herself, the interview session was also recorded in order to support the researcher's field notes.

One-on-one tutor interviews were conducted within one week of the completion of the recorded tutoring sessions. During the interview, tutors watched the compilation of tutoring recordings the researcher created, commented on their tutoring style and methodology and answered debriefing questions such as: How long have you been tutoring? Do you enjoy tutoring? (What do you enjoy about tutoring?) When you are tutoring, what do you look for in the tutoring session? Included are other questions directed at the tutor's own perception of their tutoring strategies. For example, when you are tutoring, what do you look for in the session? (e.g., student engagement, body language, visual cues, etc.); as well as questions about what they became aware of while viewing

their tutoring recording. The researcher developed these questions based on empirical studies in tutor/tutee interactions, which establish a framework for categorizing tutor feedback (Chi, et al., 2001; Schmidt, 2011). The complete list of the questions used in the interview can be found in Appendix D. There was a pre-determined maximum time limit for each interview of one hour (with the possibility of ending sooner). The interviews were conducted in a private room in the TiCALS.

### Survey

The instrument used for measuring tutoring self-efficacy is an adaptation of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) Long Form developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), which has an overall reliability of  $\alpha = 0.94$ . The TSES is a 24-item questionnaire on a scale of 1-9 (TSES scale where 1 = none at all, 9 = a great deal) that measures tutor self-efficacy in three areas: efficacy in tutee engagement (8 items,  $\alpha = 0.87$ ), efficacy in instructional strategies (8 items,  $\alpha = 0.91$ ), and efficacy in session management (8 items,  $\alpha = 0.90$ ). Adaptation of the TSES for this study meant that the instructions substituted the word “teacher” for “tutors”, the word “student” for “tutee,” and the word “classroom” for “session,” in each statement that had the words “teacher”, “student”, and “classroom.” Due to the small sample size in this study,  $\alpha$  scores were not calculated for pre or post TSES responses.

Examples of tutee engagement items included: “how much can you do to help your tutee think critically?” and “how much can you do to motivate tutees

who show low interest in school work?” Instructional strategies items included: “how well can you respond to difficult questions from your tutees?” and “to what extent can you craft good questions for your tutees?” Examples of session management items included: “how much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the session?” and “how much can you do to calm a tutee who is disruptive or noisy?” All TSES statements are provided in Appendix E.

The TSES was administered in the presence of the researcher to each tutor 30 minutes before the tutor’s scheduled first session with the tutee during the first week of the spring academic quarter. The TSES was administered again during the last week of the spring academic quarter, after each tutor had completed his/her last tutoring recording. Tutors were not informed of their pre-TSES scores to avoid influencing their answers on the post TSES. The post-TSES was also completed individually in the presence of the researcher.

## Data Analysis

### Survey Responses

AR and nAR tutors completed a tutoring self-efficacy survey (the TSES) at the beginning and end of the study. This confidential survey helped the researcher measure the tutors’ self-efficacy belief in their ability to tutor and served as the baseline comparison between the tutors’ belief in their ability to tutor and the actual strategies used during their tutoring sessions. The TSES survey was used to measure student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. Tutors’ responses were categorized, as originally

indicated in Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's study (2001), to determine which of the areas had a stronger indicator (in the mean range of 8-9), and which were weaker (in the mean range of 4-5). These results were then used to compare the tutors' beliefs in their ability to engage students, apply instructional strategies and manage their classroom to their responses in their one-on-one interviews and what was observed in the recordings of the tutoring sessions.

### Tutoring Recordings

The video recordings of the tutoring sessions were transcribed and thematically coded. The researcher transcribed and coded only the tutor input from the tutoring recordings, leaving out any tutee input. Transcribing the video recorded tutoring sessions was a crucial step in guaranteeing authenticity of the data being collected. Tripp (1983) claimed that transcribing feedback (video, audio, interviews, or face-to-face interactions) from participants represented the most accurate data collected, and that those words transcribed "carried that accuracy with negligible loss" (p. 40). Once the recordings were transcribed and coded, the researcher identified themes that matched to TSES survey (efficacy in tutee engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, and efficacy in session management). Without the transcription or coding it would have been impossible to the resulting themes to triangulate and confirm what the tutors self-disclosed in the survey and what was observed during the tutoring recording. In other words, knowing the three subscale themes from the TSES permitted the researcher to combine and organize the transcription codes into the TSES themes.

### Interview Recordings

Although the one-on-one tutor interviews were recorded, the video recording was only used to support the researcher's field notes. The interviews were unstructured, and the duration varied based on how much information and feedback each tutor provided. The interview video recordings were not transcribed or coded; instead, they were analyzed for accuracy and to support the researcher's assumptions about the observed themes from the sessions and TSES results. After the tutor interviews were completed, the researcher accessed the tutoring transcriptions, the survey results, and the interview field notes in order to support any relationships between what the tutor self-disclosed in the interview and the actual tutoring session.

### Validity and Trustworthiness

Three possible threats to validity were considered. As Maxwell (1996) mentioned, threats to validity include description, interpretation, and theory.

Threat of description occurs when the researcher omits, purposefully or accidentally, what was observed or experienced. To help avoid this threat, tutoring sessions were recorded and transcribed to make sure all tutor comments, observations, questions, etc., were taken into consideration. In addition, descriptions of what was observed during the tutoring sessions were provided, and before the final one-on-one interview with the tutors, a review of what was observed was shared verbally with each tutor.

Threat of interpretation occurs when the researcher attempts to interpret the meaning of the study from his/her own perspective instead of allowing participants to express their own interpretation. To account for and minimize this threat, the questions used for the final interview did not include any close-ended questions; instead, open-ended questions were used, (see Appendix D) and participants were allowed to elaborate on their responses as much as they felt was necessary. The interviews were recorded, and although not transcribed, the researcher compared participants' responses to themes found in the literature, as well as those themes found during the tutoring sessions. As a result, data was presented through the participant's own lens.

The final threat considered was the threat of theory. Maxwell (1996) considered theory to be a threat to a study's validity when the researcher fails to recognize and acknowledge other possible theories that could explain similar findings. Perhaps a benefit to this study was the absence of any direct theory in the field that applies to tutor effectiveness or tutoring strategies. As a researcher, I discovered that tutoring, especially in early literacy development, has been overlooked in the field and, as a result, not fully researched. As the literature summarized in the previous chapter, there are tutoring studies in higher education, college, and community centers as well as studies on writing centers, peer tutoring, and group tutoring. As a researcher, I found this gap in the field to be the perfect opportunity to explore and study.



## Researcher Positionality

I was born in a very small town in Colombia, South America. I am the only child of a single mother, but was considered by many to be the town's child. By South American standards of living, I was a very lucky child, with most of my immediate family living already in the United States of America, and a grandmother who would spend every other year with us. My mother, being the only one who could provide for us, worked practically all day, every day of the week, which left me with a lot of alone time. Unfortunately, growing up I did not have many books, just barely what was required for schoolwork. Fortunately, I was gifted with a very vivid imagination and spent most of my time making up stories and writing my own books. However, it was on my ninth birthday that I received two particular gifts I will never forget. While all of my friends were getting bikes, shoes, soccer balls, etc., I received my very first encyclopedia along with my very first English-Spanish dictionary. A few months later in that year I was enrolled in an English-speaking school because, according to my mother, "just in case." Fast-forward 30 years later, and I am here working on my dissertation.

School was never a difficulty for me; on the contrary, school always seemed to come through easily for me. So easily that I had the tendency to wonder and daydream during classes in high school. Even when I began to learn English, I noticed that things were not as hard as others made them seem to be. This would all change when I first arrived in the USA and was, metaphorically,

thrown into high school two weeks after my arrival. The only words that came out of my mouth always seemed to be 'my name is,' 'I am 15 years old,' or 'I am from Colombia.' Whatever happened to all of those English classes I thought I was good at? How come I could barely communicate in a language I thought I understood well enough to be able to explain myself?

After all, I knew how to read and write in Spanish, and I felt pretty confident that I could understand when others were speaking to me in English. Looking back, I am again reminded that reading is not a simple process, and as Smith (2003) suggested, it is widely agreed that reading entails searching for meaning. My biggest struggle at the beginning was trying to understand what my teachers wanted me to do in the homework packets – and by packets I mean all the homework stapled together with instructions and directions on how to do each problem. In a way, I began to realize later on that my teachers were doing the hard work for me and all I needed to do was follow directions. As I think of it now, I am reminded of Smith's view of reading: "learning to read should be as natural as any other comprehensive aspect of existence" (2003, p. 13), but then again, Clay (2005) has reminded us that reading is indeed a complex process that involves the decoding of the meaning intended by the author of the written text. Now, I have come to fully understand that my struggles as an early reader, as well as second language learner, were a natural process of literacy development. And that ultimately overcoming these challenges was based on what Weaver (2002), Clay (2005) and Garrett (2002) have agreed was needed in

order for me to create meaning: I needed to use everything I knew, as well as look for further information from a variety of other sources all around me.

As the researcher of the present study, I became aware that my role needed to be limited to that of an outside observer, and that interaction with the tutors during the first phase of the study (tutoring sessions) needed to be limited to introductions and providing basic instructions about the recording process. Because I experienced challenges early in my own literacy development, both in my own language and later as a young adult learning a different language, I recognized that during the initial phase of the study, I needed to limit my presence in the center. I did not want to bring my own biases, history, and memories of how I learned to read and write in both languages into the study, and possibly judge the tutors work based on them. This also meant that due to my academic background and deep interest in the topic, I needed to limit sharing my personal observations about tutoring, instruction, and the research study expectations with the tutors.

As the researcher in this study, I recognized that my academic studies have always focused on education, specifically in early development and early literacy. My interest in the topic began during my bachelor's degree where I focused on human development, specifically on learning how children learn. During this time, I spent hundreds of hours volunteering at K-6 schools, reading to children, drawing with children, and on occasions teaching them English. I also worked as an English instructor to K-8 students at a private institution where I

actively implemented early literacy strategies to help students learn a second language. My graduate studies were specifically focused on Reading and Language Arts, and it was during this time I committed to working at the literacy center in this study where I tutored early/emergent literacy children. Two years volunteering at the literacy center helped me understand more in depth how the process of tutoring worked, as well as how early literacy students learn.

I recognize my biases toward the topic, as well as my personal, academic, and professional connection to the literacy center. For this reason, I attempted, to the best of my abilities, to remain neutral during the data collection phase, as well as during the final interview with the tutors.

### Summary

In summary, tutoring sessions, as well as tutor interviews, were analyzed qualitatively. Ethnographic video recordings were collected during the first three weeks and last three weeks of the winter 2015 academic quarter. There were a total of 26 hours of recorded video, which included 21 tutoring sessions and five tutor interviews at the end of the academic quarter. The average video recorded session was of approximately 35 minutes, while the average interview recording was 40 minutes.

The tutor feedback portions of the tutoring sessions were transcribed and coded. Interview recordings were not transcribed or coded, but analyzed and used as field notes to help the researcher remember the interview feedback, and to provide support for the themes identified in the TSES. No tutee input was

transcribed or analyzed. Data collected through the tutoring recordings, interviews, and the tutor self-efficacy questionnaire was analyzed and compared to the feedback categories developed by Chi (1994) and Smidch (2011). Appendix F provides a timeline of the research questions, type of data collected, the analysis process, and the time frame of the data collection.

The specific findings of the research study are explained in detail in chapter four, including the transcripts of the tutoring recordings, and the interview feedback categories that frame the tutoring strategies of AR and nAR tutors. In addition, descriptive statistics tables, and analysis are provided for the quantitative aspect of the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

#### Introduction

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section is a report on quantitative measures. The second section is a report on the qualitative data gathered from video recordings of tutoring sessions and tutor interviews. The third section is a brief analysis of the significance of the results with respect to the overall purpose of the study.

The purpose of this study was to provide a preliminary analysis of the similarities that exist between tutoring and instruction in a literacy center staffed with American Reads and non-America Reads tutors. This study also attempted to shed light on the characteristics of effective tutors working with early literacy tutees, as well as the positive impact these tutors' sense of efficacy had on tutee literacy development. This study then explored, studied, outlined and described tutoring strategies applied by American Reads (AR) tutors and non-America Reads (nAR) tutors working with early literacy skills tutees. This study was guided by the following questions:

1. What strategies do AR/nAR tutors implement when helping tutees develop literacy skills in a one-on-one tutoring program?
2. What role (if any) does the tutor's sense of efficacy in tutoring play in the implementation of a one-on-one tutoring program that fosters development of early literacy skills?

## Survey Results

### TSES Scores

Tutors completed the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) survey during the second week of the academic quarter. The post survey was conducted during week ten of the academic quarter. Only two AR tutors completed the post-TSES, while four nAR tutors completed the post-TSES. Results of the pre and post-TSES are represented in Table 3.

Table 3. Pre and Post Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Long Form (24 Items)

	Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Areas					
	Student Engagement		Instructional Strategies		Classroom Management	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
*TSES	7.3	1.1	7.3	1.1	6.7	1.1
Pre-TSES						
AR (n=4)	7.4	0.3	7.3	0.1	7.6	0.2
nAR (n=5)	7.2	0.9	6.6	1.4	6.5	1.5
n = 9						
Post-TSES						
AR (n=4)	7.1	0.8	6.9	0.6	6.8	0.7
nAR (n=5)	7.6	0.8	7.0	0.9	7.4	0.9
n = 9						

*\*TSES: published means for the TSES. TSES Scale: 1 = none at all, 9 = a great deal (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p. 1)*

Based on the published means for each efficacy factor of the TSES areas in the Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) study, the factor means are 7.3

(engagement), 7.3 (strategies), and 6.7 (management). The results of the pre-TSES revealed AR tutors have a lower mean in student engagement, yet higher means in classroom management and instructional strategies. nAR tutors, on the other hand, were above the AR tutor mean in all three areas, but still below the TSES mean. Results for the AR tutors and the nAR tutors were within the range of the TSES standard deviation and suggest both trained and untrained university-level tutors considered themselves to be similarly efficacious in the application of strategies closely related to those associated with effective instructors.

#### Pre- and Post-TSES Surveys

Both pre and post TSES scores reflect a difference for AR tutors and nAR tutors in all three areas. Whereas the mean scores for AR tutors increased in all three areas, the mean scores for all nAR tutors decreased. AR tutors began with lower perceptions of their self-efficacy in the pre-TSES, while nAR tutors began with higher perceptions of their self-efficacy, as shown in Figure 3. However, the results of the post-TSES revealed an opposite pattern, as shown in Figure 4. As will be mentioned briefly in the presentation of results of the tutor interviews, a plausible explanation for this phenomenon was discovered during the interview sessions.



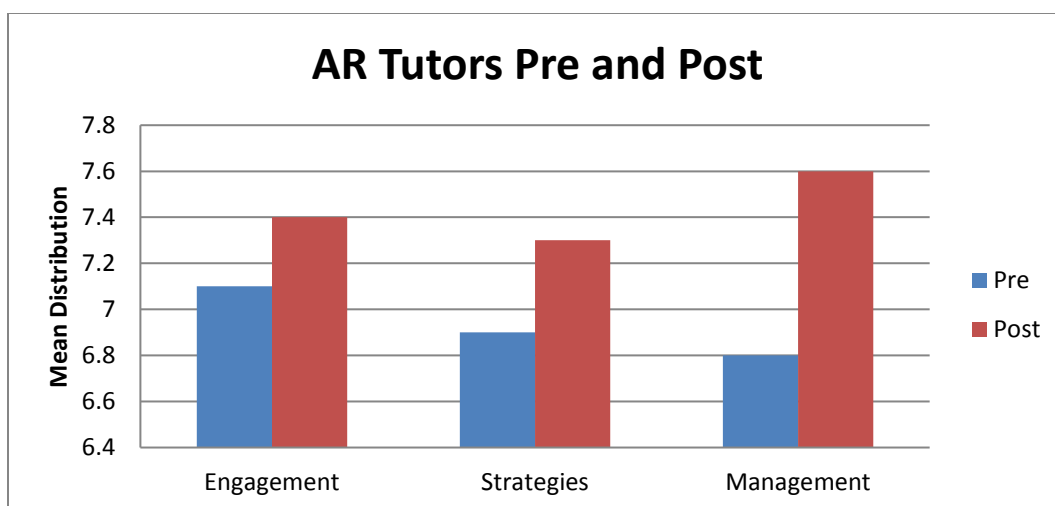


Figure 3. America Reads Pre- and Post-Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale comparison

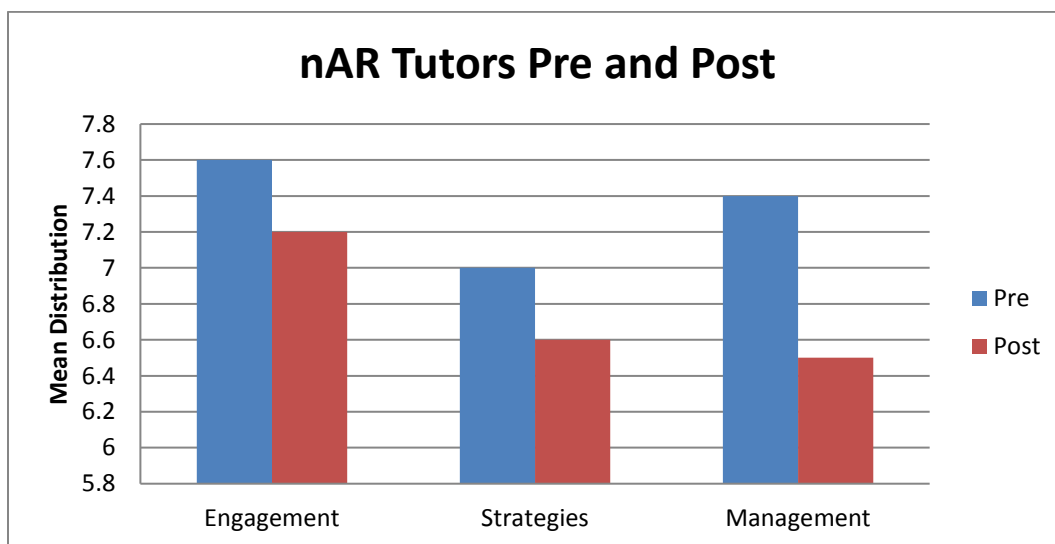


Figure 4. Non-America Reads Pre- and Post-Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale comparison

## Session Results

### Recordings

The tutoring sessions were recorded at three different times during the 10-week quarter. The anticipated plan was to record all nine tutors (four AR tutors and five nAR tutors) three times each for a total of 33 recordings. However, a total of 26 sessions were recorded. The missing seven sessions were due to tutee absences, and thus led to the disqualification of those tutors who were unable to complete the required three sessions. The loss of the four disqualified tutors (2 AR and 2 nAR) and their twelve potential recordings reduced the data collection from the anticipated 33 sessions, to 21 valid sessions to be studied. Table 4 shows the breakdown of the sessions recorded and the sessions missed.

Table 4. Summary of All Recorded Sessions

AR Sessions Recorded				nAR Sessions Recorded			
n=11	1st	2nd	3d	n=15	1st	2nd	3d
Tutor 1	1	1	1	Tutor 1	1	*DP	*DP
Tutor 2	1	1	1	Tutor 2	1	1	1
Tutor 3	1	1	1	Tutor 3	1	1	1
Tutor 4	1	*DP	*DP	Tutor 4	1	1	1
Tutor 5	1	*DP	*DP	**Tutor 5	1	1	*DP
				Tutor 6	1	1	1

*\*DP: denotes dropped*

*\*\*Tutor 5: denotes nAR tutor who withdrew from the study before the third session*

### Session Length

The average tutoring session was 37 minutes. There were several factors that influenced the length of the shorter sessions such as tutee tardiness, tutee

health, and tutee disposition and willingness. In the case of tutee disposition, it was noted that, at times, tutors experienced some deal of difficulty keeping tutees on task, focused, and engaged. On a couple of occasions, several tutees seemed disinterested in the readings or the purpose of the activities. This disposition was especially evident when tutors became disengaged themselves in the session, causing the session to be terminated early or prolonged a few more minutes in order to complete the task.

Another factor that influenced session times was the type of lesson being conducted on a particular day. If the tutee had completed the planned lesson, for example, reading and answering the comprehension questions, the tutee would be given time for independent reading or to leave the session a few minutes earlier. There were a total of four sessions that lasted more than 45 minutes.

#### Transcription and Thematic Coding

Tutor session transcription was crucial in order to further understand, and at times clarify, some of the observed behaviors present during the tutoring sessions. Transcribing each session for further analysis served to answer the two research questions: what effective instruction strategies are used to help tutees develop literacy skills? and what role the tutor and tutoring effectiveness plays in the implementation of a one-on-one tutoring program that fosters development of early literacy skills? In order to be able to identify differences between AR tutors' strategies and nAR tutors' strategies, AR and nAR responses were coded independently.

The 21 recorded tutoring sessions were transcribed and analyzed using the MaxQDA12 software for coding, themes, and frequency analysis. Table 5 provides the list of the most prominent themes that emerged in the analysis, and which were based on Walker's (2008) twelve characteristics of effective teachers. Acronyms for each theme were created in order to facilitate the transcript analysis, and each theme was coded with the corresponding acronym. These acronyms are used only in this research and are also shown in table 5.

Table 5. List of Themes That Emerged in The Study

Acronyms	Theme	Examples
CQ	Comprehension question	What do you think?
RQ	Recall question	Do you remember?
ACK	Acknowledges	Okay, ok, yup.
FLLW	Follows	And now... What's next?
CNF	Confirms	Correct, you are right.
PRS	Praises	Well done, good job, excellent.
RDT	Redirects	Let's get back, not now, next
INT	Interrogates	Really?
INST	Instructs	Now that you know this, lets...
SCF	Scaffolds	If you know this... How can you...?
*LDS	Leads	Repeat after me, say it like me
AFF	Affirms	hmm, ah ha.
RCL	Recalls	Remember how we made this word
RPT	Repeats	I said [...], the question is [...]
RST	Restates	How about if [...]
STP	Stops	Wait, hold on, stop

\*LDS = Leads (tutor usually leads after scaffolding)

### Frequency of Themes

AR Tutors. Table 6 represents the AR Tutors' frequencies of the coded themes presented in Table 5. Based on the frequencies of coded themes after three sessions, the results revealed the most commonly used themes used by AR tutors were confirmations, praises, affirmation, recall, and repetition. Themes also used, but to a lesser degree, were comprehension questions, recall questions, interrogation, and restating. The least used themes overall were following, redirecting, scaffolding, leading, and finally, stopping.

Table 6. America Reads Frequency of Codes for 3 Recorded Sessions

Themes*	Tutor 1	Tutor 2	Tutor 3	Total
CQ	57	45	48	150
RQ	33	29	47	109
ACK	5	10	52	67
FLLW	1	2	4	7
CNF	112	72	66	250
PRS	171	99	79	349
RDT	4	26	8	38
INT	33	53	38	124
INST	30	22	40	92
SCF	8	2	31	41
LDS	8	7	20	35
AFF	168	201	187	556
RCL	144	55	165	364
RPT	216	184	93	493
RST	58	58	40	156
STP	7	2	0	9
Totals	1055	867	918	2840

\*Themes: CQ, comprehension question; RQ, recall question; ACK, acknowledges; FLLW, follows; CNF, confirms; PRS, praises; RDT, redirects; INT, interrogates; INST, instructs; SCF, scaffolds; LDS, leads; AFF, affirms; RCL, recalls; RPT, repeats; RST, restates; and STP, stops.

nAR Tutors. Table 7 presents the nAR Tutors' frequencies of the themes after three sessions. The results show that nAR tutors' most commonly used themes were confirming, praising, affirming, recalling, and repeating. Also used, but to a lesser degree, were recall questions, acknowledgment, and instruction. Lesser used themes were comprehension questions, redirecting, and interrogation, while the least used themes overall were restating, scaffolding, following, leading, and stopping.

Table 7. non-America Reads Tutors' Frequency of Codes for 3 Recorded Sessions

Themes*	Tutor 1	Tutor 2	Tutor 3	Tutor 4	Total
CQ	54	26	58	47	185
RQ	37	77	99	101	314
ACK	14	13	102	109	238
FLLW	0	8	31	28	67
CNF	162	72	128	125	487
PRS	172	44	200	171	587
RDT	6	62	21	28	117
INT	2	76	13	52	143
INST	78	29	88	93	288
SCF	11	3	31	27	72
LDS	7	4	17	33	61
AFF	232	203	243	259	937
RCL	203	112	185	157	657
RPT	259	122	156	184	721
RST	10	12	23	43	88
STP	3	8	2	7	20
Total	1250	871	1397	1464	4982

\*Themes: CQ, comprehension question; RQ, recall question; ACK, acknowledges; FLLW, follows; CNF, confirms; PRS, praises; RDT, redirects; INT, interrogates; INST, instructs; SCF, scaffolds; LDS, leads; AFF, affirms; RCL, recalls; RPT, repeats; RST, restates; and STP, stops.

### Theme Analysis

From the pre- to the post-TSES results, there was an increase in the frequency of the themes associated with classroom management wherein only AR tutors reported themselves efficacious in applying several strategies to help the tutees stay on task. The results of the data gathered from the tutoring sessions provided an opportunity to more deeply explore and interpret the increase of frequency in these themes. Table 8 provides an excerpt of a tutor redirecting a tutee's attention to stay on task, restating, instructing and, ultimately, praising (as indicated by the bracketed codes). It is important to note that this particular tutor had been working with this tutee since the previous quarter. Therefore, instructions may seem very direct, but in this environment, and considering the relationship that had developed between the tutor and the tutee, were not out of the ordinary.

Table 8. America Reads Tutor Redirecting Attention Back to Task

Direct Instruction to remain on task
Tr: It is no(t) time yet to do the second activity
Tt:
Tr: I don't look at the clock, I look at your work
Tt:
Tr: I don't care what time it is on the clock; you are not done with this reading
Tt:
Tr: [inaudible] ... agreed to do the second activity once you completed the first one and you are not done with the first activity.
Tt:
Tr: [RDT] No, you are wasting time. If you focus on the last paragraph instead of the clock, we could take a break and have time for the second one.
Tr: No, I think you do understand the task, but you don't want to do it. [RST] The second activity is similar to this one, but if you don't complete the first activity, you may not be able to complete the second one.
Tr: Okay, you can take a 2-minute break, but when you come back we will still have to work on the first activity.
Tr: [RST] ... [INST] the same as you did this paragraph (points to paragraph).
Tt:
Tr: Good job! [PRS] – was that difficult? [ACK] yes, that's right.
Tt:

*Note:* Tr = tutor, Tt = tutee

*Themes:* RDT, redirects; RST, restates; INST, instructs; PRS, praises; ACK, acknowledges

As the short interaction in Table 8 shows, the tutor employed the themes redirecting, restating and instructing as a means to remain firm throughout the interaction, preventing the tutee from further derailing the task at hand. Although the tutee attempted to skip completing the activity by questioning the time, asking for a break, pretending not to understand, blaming the tutor, and bargaining for an alternate task, the tutor stayed focused on what needed to be done as it was



clear that activity one would be needed to build on during activity two, which the tutee ultimately completed independently. Thus, while not coded in any one part of the exchange, the tutor's use of the themes presented in Table 8 also showed the tutors' use of the theme of scaffolding. Scaffolding is one of Walker's (2008) characteristics of an effective teacher and what Daniel (2001) describes as the process by which the learner moves from completing a task assisted to performing this, or a similar task, independently.

When comparing AR to nAR tutors' classroom management, the results revealed that AR tutors spent half the time redirecting their tutees back the task at hand and minimizing distractions than nAR tutors spent. This finding was in direct relationship to Denham and Michael's (1981) original assertion that a teacher's perception of his/her own effectiveness depended upon the achievement students demonstrated when completing tasks and assignments. Furthermore, AR tutors structured the lessons in smaller chunks with more mini breaks in between chunks. On average, AR tutors had seven breaks, while nAR tutors had four. Although nAR tutors' classroom management strategies were not dramatically different when compared to AR tutors, nAR tutors presented a more flexible environment for the session, which led to tutees assuming a more relaxed and, at times, more distraction-prone attitude, making the sessions at times more difficult to manage.

### Theme-associated TSES Strategies

In this study, strategies are referred to as planned methodologies used by tutors with the intention to accomplish a task. The data analysis showed that strategies were associated with multiple themes. The data revealed those strategies that emerged as the coming together of many and differing themes which represented expectations for tutee engagement, instruction, and classroom management. For instance, asking comprehension questions, acknowledging the tutee, following, praising, interrogating, and affirming, are themes most related to student engagement. Subsequently, asking recall questions, confirming, instructing, scaffolding, leading, recalling, repeating, and restating, are themes most related to instructional strategies. Similarly, redirecting, and stopping, are some of the themes that most relate to classroom management. Interestingly, some themes were used under several strategies and changed purpose based on how and when it was being used. For instance, a comprehension question could be used as an instructional strategy, while it could also be used to help a tutee become engaged. Using praise was another example where based on when it was used, it could serve to support tutee engagement or classroom management. Table 9 represent the theme-associated TSES strategies discovered in this study.

Table 9. Theme-associated Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale Strategy Categories

Acronyms	Theme	TSES Category
CQ	Comprehension question	SE and IS
RQ	Recall question	IS
ACK	Acknowledges	SE and IS
FLLW	Follows	SE
CNF	Confirms	SE and CM
PRS	Praises	CM
RDT	Redirects	CM
INT	Interrogates	SE and CM
INST	Instructs	IS
SCF	Scaffolds	IS
LDS	Leads	IS
AFF	Affirms	SE and IS
RCL	Recalls	IS
RPT	Repeats	IS
RST	Restates	IS
STP	Stops	CM

*SE = student engagement; IS = instructional strategies; CM = classroom management*

### Tutoring Frame

In addition to coding and analysis based on Walker's (2008) twelve characteristics of effective teaching, the data was also analyzed using what Graesser, Person, and Magliano (1995) called a "tutoring frame." The researcher created acronyms based on each part of the frame to aid in the transcription process. The acronyms are introduced below following each of the steps of the tutoring frame and are only used in this research. In this frame, effective dialogue between tutor and tutee consists of the following steps:

- tutor asks questions and tutee provides answers, (QA);
- tutor gives feedback to answer whether it is correct or not, (FDK);

- tutor scaffolds to improve or elaborate the tutee's answer, (SF);
- tutor guides the child to develop/achieve the child's full potential, (DVP);
- tutor gauges tutee's understanding of the answer, (GU);
- tutor asks comprehension questions to help the child identify and evaluate his/her own response, (CQ). (as cited in Chi, et al., 2001)

Graesser, Person, and Magliano's tutoring frame was used when answering the final research question: what role does the tutor and tutoring effectiveness play in the implementation of a one-on-one tutoring program that fosters development of early literacy skills?

#### Tutoring Frame Analysis

The tutoring frame provides a frame for the analysis of how the interaction between tutor and tutee develops as tutors foster opportunities for the tutee to develop early literacy skills. Consider the following one-minute excerpt of a second tutoring session in table 10 that highlights both the use and fluidity of the interactions of the tutoring frame an AR tutor employed strategies represented by the themes in this study.

Table 10. America Reads Tutoring Frame – Second Session

Tutoring Excerpt	*Tutoring Frame	**Theme
Tr: Okay, so what word does it say?	QA	RCL
Tt:		
Tr: You just said it right now	FDK	CNF
Tr: Good Job!	FDK	PRS
Tt:		
Tr: Nice!	FDK	PRS, CNF
Tt:		
Tr: Yeah!	FDK	CNF
Tr: These two EEs can be confusing, but it just sounds like you are saying E, so put  n	DVP	INST
Tr: [corrects] - It starts with N, so say  n -eed		RST, INST
Tr: Do you know what that words means?	QA, CQ	CQ
Tt:		
Tr: [PRS] - that's good!	FDK	PRS
Tr: The  e  sounds like you are just saying  E	GU	INST, LDS
Tt:		
Tr: [PRS] - Good job!!!	FDK	PRS

*Note: Tr = tutor, Tt = tutee*

*\*Tutoring frame: QA, question and answer; FDK, provides feedback; DVP, helps tutee develop skills; CQ, tutor asks comprehension questions; GU, tutor gauges understanding.*

*\*\*Theme: CQ, comprehension question; CNF, confirms; PRS, praises; INST, instructs; LDS, leads; RCL, recalls; RST, restates.*

### Tutor Interview Results

The results from the tutor interviews helped answer the first research question in the study. In response to the question “what strategies do AR tutors implement when helping tutees develop literacy skills in a one-on-one tutoring program?” Results show that AR tutors recognized the different strategies used during the tutoring sessions. For instance, an AR tutor commented during the interview that the tutee “always tried to waste time when we were reading for

comprehension” and therefore, the tutor felt the need to “switch where the tutee was sitting” and to “suggest what the tutee wanted to read instead.” An nAR tutor observed that when the tutee was getting to a “bored stand” a strategy that often worked to get the tutee’s attention back was to eliminate “the last 5 minutes of play-time the tutee usually got if all the work was completed.”

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

#### Study Overview

The objective of this study was to explore, study, outline and describe tutoring strategies applied by American Reads (AR) tutors and non-America Reads (nAR) tutors helping young tutees develop early literacy skills. Mainly, The purpose of this study was to provide a preliminary analysis of the similarities that exist between tutoring and instruction in a literacy center staffed with American Reads and non-America Reads tutors. The questions addressed were: “What strategies do AR/nAR tutors implement when helping tutees develop literacy skills in a one-on-one tutoring program?” and “What effective instruction strategies are used to help tutees develop literacy skills, especially reading achievement?”

#### Study Process

The study was conducted at the literacy center of a university in Southern California, and included 9 tutors, of which four were America Reads (AR) tutors and five were non-America Reads (nAR) tutors. Data collection occurred during ten weeks of the Spring 2016 academic quarter. Tutors completed the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale survey twice, a pre-TSES survey at the beginning of the study, and a post-TSES at the end of the study. Each tutor was also video recorded during three of their tutoring sessions. At the end of all the sessions,

five interviews were scheduled with the tutors who completed all three tutoring sessions. Only five tutors participated in the interview, with one tutor choosing to not be interviewed. The average time for each interview was 37 minutes.

### Overview of Findings

Observation of the sessions and interpretation of the data showed an association between the use of strategies and self-evaluations of efficacy for both AR and nAR tutors. Tutors who believed they were efficacious in particular areas used those strategies more often than those who rated themselves as having lower self-efficacy in those areas.

One of the most compelling findings was the opposite trend that emerged between AR and nAR tutors between the pre and post TSES testing. Post TSES scores reflect a difference for AR tutors and nAR tutors in all three areas. While the mean scores for AR tutors increased in all three areas between the pre and post, the mean scores for all nAR tutors decreased. AR tutors began with lower perceptions of their self-efficacy in the pre-TSES, while nAR tutors began with higher perceptions of their self-efficacy. This finding suggests that AR tutors have a more theoretical understanding of the challenges of classroom management and literacy development, which may cause them to see themselves as being unprepared at the beginning, whereas nAR tutors have not had explicit instruction in these challenges.

Finally, the results of this study demonstrate an association between what is known in the literature about effective tutoring strategies and effective teaching



strategies. This is perhaps best demonstrated by the analysis of the data using Graesser, Pearson, and Maggiano's (1995) tutoring frame. As tutors successfully moved through the steps of the frame, they employed the themes that facilitated the strategies in the TSES, which are associated with effective teaching.

## Discussion of Research Questions

### Research Question 1: Tutor Effectiveness

What strategies do AR/nAR tutors implement when helping tutees develop literacy skills in a one-on-one tutoring program?

From the data collected, it became clear that both AR and nAR tutors implemented what are considered to be effective tutoring strategies based on the literature (e. g. Chi, Hausmansnn, Jeong, Siler, & Yamaucho, 2001; Graesser, Person, & Magliano, 1995; and Giddings, 1989). The strategies were identified in this study in association with themes that emerged from the tutoring sessions. The themes, sometimes used in isolation while other times used jointly with other themes, ultimately converge to create the specific strategies used during the tutoring sessions, which in turn could be identified under one of the three categories measured by the TSES.

As mentioned above, AR tutors used themes most resulting in classroom management strategies and nAR tutors used themes most resulting in student engagement strategies. However, both groups used multiple strategies at one point or another. It is important to note that strategies are not simply the random occurrence of themes, but rather a purposeful application of themes. Further, the

data in this study suggests that these strategies can be closely related and often overlap. For example, an AR tutor during the second tutoring session applied many different themes and strategies within a short period of time to help the tutee get back on task. The following is a narrative description of the exchange:

1. Tutor asked a question, tutee answered (This is question and answer from the tutoring frame; plus, based on the question asked, it was coded as a recall question and a comprehension question, which are associated with the student engagement category of the TSES.)
2. Tutee answered correctly, tutor followed with praise (These are two themes: following and praising, used to engage and motivate the tutee, which in turn falls under the student engagement category of the TSES.)
3. Tutor asked a follow up question, tutee did not understand. Tutor restated the question, tutee answered incorrectly (This is question and answer from the tutoring frame; the themes are reinstating, following, and providing feedback, which are themes associated to instructional strategies category of the TSES.)
4. Tutee became distracted, and tutor redirected tutee's attention (This is feedback from the tutoring frame, plus the themes of stopping, redirecting, and restating, which fall under the category of classroom management in the TSES).

In addition to the use of these themes, tutors were more cognizant of the physical positioning of where the tutee sat, where the windows of the rooms were, and where their supplies were (notes, readings, pencils, etc.). When in larger rooms with other tutors/tutees present, AR tutors would sit their tutees facing the wall away from the other tutors/tutee's view in order to minimize distractions.

In comparison, nAR tutors demonstrated a more adaptive behaviors towards their surroundings, making the best they could of the environment and helping their tutees remain engaged in the session, which led to the use of themes resulting in the strategy of student engagement.

Although these strategies and their effective application in the tutoring sessions observed in the study are directly related to those characteristics of effective teachers mentioned in the literature review, it is important to highlight a few differences that exists between what the literature on effective teachers states and what effective tutors do. In this study, it is important to recognize the benefits that these tutors have in their one-on-one tutoring sessions. These benefits include: individualized attention (one-on-one), topic and objective specific instruction (skill development), and modeling (demonstration, adaption, and targeted instruction). During one-on-one tutoring, both AR and nAR tutors are able to provide their respective tutees with approximately 45 minutes of individualized attention. This individualized attention provides an opportunity for the tutor to implement lesson plans that are targeted to the specific needs of

each tutee. Finally, one-on-one tutoring provides the ideal setting for tutors to model learning to their tutees.

### Research Question 2: Tutor Sense of Efficacy

What role (if any) does the tutor's sense of efficacy in tutoring play in the implementation of a one-on-one tutoring program that fosters development of early literacy skills?

Results of the pre TSES surveys showed AR tutors having lower initial evaluations of self-efficacy. Post TSES survey results, however, showed an increase in AR tutor evaluations of self-efficacy. nAR tutors showed a reverse pattern wherein pre TSES results showed higher evaluations of self-efficacy and post TSES results showed lower evaluations of self-efficacy. This result seemed counter intuitive to the researcher in that the researcher believed AR tutors would have a theoretical understanding of the challenges and expectations of literacy-development tutoring, which would in turn increase their confidence in their own tutoring abilities. These results suggest AR tutors may, in fact, be more critical of their self-efficacy.

The results of the tutoring recordings revealed that both AR and nAR tutors demonstrated application and understanding of instructional strategies as measured by the TSES. However, AR tutors felt more efficacious in the area of classroom management than nAR tutors. This finding was supported by the observational data collected from the tutoring sessions wherein AR tutors applied themes leading to the strategy of classroom management with a higher

frequency than nAR tutors. nAR tutors, on the other hand, felt more efficacious with respect to student engagement. Although there was a drop in feelings of self-efficacy in terms of student engagement in the post TSES for nAR tutors, the observational data showed nAR tutors applied themes leading to the strategy of student engagement with a higher frequency than AR tutors. This finding suggests that AR tutors may be more comfortable with the more formalized strategies of classroom management, while nAR tutors may be more comfortable with the more social strategies of student engagement. This finding answers research question two as it reveals an association between self-efficacy and the use of strategies in tutoring sessions.

### Unanticipated Findings

An unanticipated finding in the study was the importance of the tutoring frame as a guiding feature for allowing tutors to implement strategies. Steps from Grasser, Pearson, and Maggiano's (1995) tutoring frame were present in every tutoring session recorded. This tutoring frame was also unique to each tutor. For instance, AR tutors had tendencies to instruct after praising, whereas nAR tutors had tendencies to confirm and affirm before instructing.

Another unanticipated finding was the connection between Walker's characteristics of effective teachers, the themes identified in the tutoring sessions, and the categories from the TSES. Figure 5 illustrates the connections between these concepts.

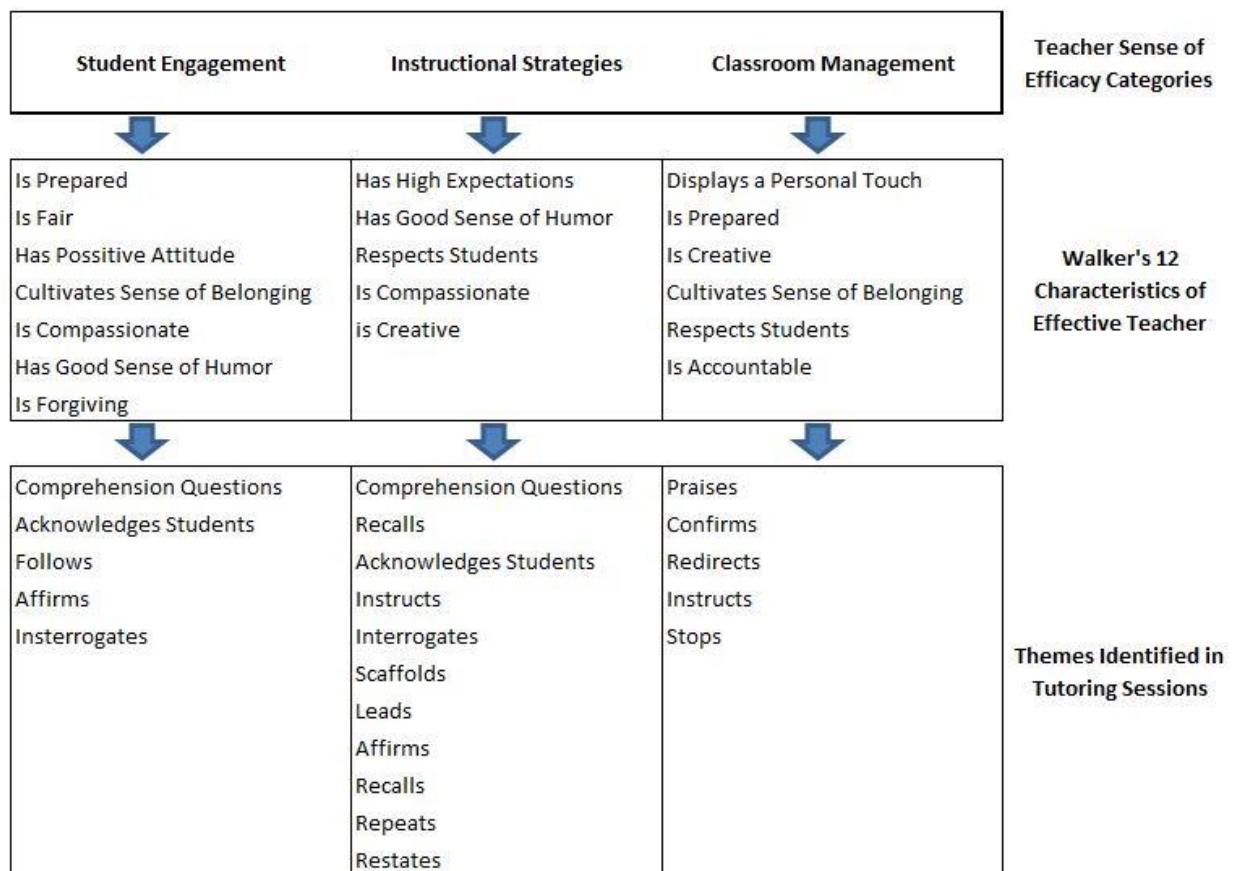


Figure 5. Alignment of Teacher Sense of Efficacy Categories with Walker's Characteristics of Effective Teachers and the Themese identified in the Tutoring Sessions.

*Note: This is an analysis of the themes that emerged from the tutoring sessions, and how these themes relate to the Walker's characteristics of effective teachers, which in turn were aligned to the categories measured with the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale survey.*

### Limitations

Some limitations to this study were the low number of tutors who participated, tutor withdrawal from the study, and tutee withdrawal from the program. The low number of participants limited the amount of data that the researcher could collect and thus limited the methodology to a qualitative

approach, which makes the results of this study difficult to generalize. Another limitation was the time duration of the quarter (10 weeks, but 8 weeks of actual tutoring). A longitudinal study with more participants would allow for the collection of more data and would thus facilitate a more quantitative methodological approach, allowing for more generalizable results.

### Recommendation for Future Research

The recommendations for future research include addressing the limitations previously mentioned. This includes increasing the number of participating tutors with equal distribution of AR and nAR tutors. In addition, increasing the observation period to at least two consecutive quarters with the same tutor-tutee pair. Furthermore, as it is crucial that tutees show up to their scheduled tutoring session so tutors can be studied, a study that provides incentives for tutee participants is recommended.

In addition, future research should look at utilizing aggregate data from the testing and assessments in the center. Further research on the impact of tutor self-efficacy and the relationship to tutee literacy development success needs to be studied.

Finally, future research should study the relationships between the beliefs of effective teachers, the themes identified in the tutoring sessions in this study, and the categories of the TSES and how knowledge of these relationships can be applied to classroom practices and/or in tutoring sessions.

### Local Impact for Educational Leaders

The preliminary results of this study revealed that American Reads tutors successfully implement effective strategies in student engagement, instruction, and classroom management. Based on these findings, the literacy center has begun to only hire America Reads tutors.



APPENDIX A  
TUTOR INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

## Interview Questions

Name: AR/nAR tutor (please circle one) Yes/No

Introduction. Thank you for agreeing to participate and be recorded during the interview phase of this research study. You will be watching a full-length recording of your tutoring session, and will be asked a few questions before, during and after the session is over. Although we scheduled for one hour, we may finish the interview sooner if we need to. Please feel free to pause the video when there is a particular point you want to make, or to answer a question. This questionnaire is only ten questions, and intended solely for the purpose of better understand your tutoring strategies.

### Questions

1. How long have you been tutoring?
2. Do you enjoy tutoring? (What do you enjoy about tutoring?)
3. Do you enjoy tutoring literacy development? (What do you enjoy about literacy development?)
4. Can you share with me your tutoring routine? ie. The process you follow for your tutoring sessions.
5. When you are tutoring, what do you look for in the session?
6. If or when you use a particular strategy in your session, can you tell me:
7. What was the strategy?
8. Why did you use it?
9. Did you accomplish what was intended?
  - a. Is there anything in particular that you observe that you **were aware of**?
  - b. Is there anything in particular that you observe that you **were not aware of**?
  - c. How do you think the session went?
10. Would you do anything different next time?

Questions developed by Mauricio Cadavid

APPENDIX B

INVITATION EMAIL TO PARTICIPATE IN STUDY

Hello,

You are receiving this invitation to participate in a research study that will look at the effective strategies used by college-level tutors on literacy development. Your information was provided by the literacy center because you meet one of two criteria: you are participating in the American Reads program, or you have successfully completed the ESEC 545 course.

The study has been designed in two parts with three phases each. Phase I will ask the participant to complete a short 10-15 minute teacher sense of efficacy scale. Phase II will consist of video recording of one of your tutoring sessions at the beginning of the quarter. The final phase will be a one-on-one interview with the researcher which will require you to observe the recorded tutoring sessions, and answer a few questions about the strategies used while tutoring. These phases will be repeated at the end of the quarter.

Total participation time estimated for this study is approximately 5 hours (2 surveys, 2 tutoring sessions, and 2 interviews); and it is expected to be conducted during the 2015 Spring quarter.

Your participation is voluntary, and your identity will be protected should you choose to participate.

The researcher does not anticipate any harm to come from participating in this study. No benefits or incentives are provided for participants, besides an opportunity to learn more about your own tutoring strategies.

Should you choose to participate, please respond to this email. A consent form will then be provided ask you to grant me, the researcher, permission to record you. Should you have any questions, comments, or concerns, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,  
Mauricio

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Developed by Mauricio Cadavid

## APPENDIX C

### INFORMED CONSENT FOR TUTORS TO PARTICIPATE IN STUDY



College of Education  
Office of Doctoral Studies

## INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR TUTORS

### Literacy Tutoring Strategies of America Reads University-Level Tutors

The study in which you are being asked to participate is designed to investigate the strategies used during literacy development tutoring sessions with tutees between second and fifth grade who have scored two reading levels below proficiency. Tutoring sessions and interviews will be video recorded (using a digital video recording camera) so that the data can later be transcribed for analysis. This study is being conducted by Mauricio Cadavid under the supervision of Dr. Deborah Stine, Professor in Educational Leadership and Technology, at California State University, San Bernardino. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board, California State University, San Bernardino.

As part of this study, the researcher will look at how you identify, select and apply instructional strategies for your tutoring session. As part of this research, participants will do the following:

1. Complete a survey twice (once at the beginning of the spring 2015 quarter and then again at the end of the quarter) that asks questions about their beliefs and strategies related to teaching/tutoring. The survey has 24 items, and it should not require more than 25 minutes to complete. The surveys will be completed on paper in the WALC center during a time convenient to you.
2. Allow the researcher to video record (using a digital video recording device) your tutoring sessions at three different times during the spring 2015 quarter. The recordings will occur at the beginning, (first week of the quarter) the middle (the 5<sup>th</sup> or 6<sup>th</sup> week of the quarter) and the end of the quarter (the 10<sup>th</sup> week). The recording will last the length of your tutoring session. The session will be recorded so that the data collected can later be transcribed and analyzed. The video and audio recordings will occur during your scheduled tutoring time, in your private tutoring room.
3. Allow the researcher to video record (using a digital video recording device) a one time one-to-one interview with the researcher. The interview will take place at the end of the spring 2015 quarter, and it will be video recorded so that data collected can later be transcribed and analyzed. The interview should not last more than one hour (60 minutes).

All information will be kept an encrypted, password-protected computer in a locked drawer, in a locked office, in the College of Education, to which only the researcher has access. Your name, or any identifier, will not be used. A pseudonym (coded name) will be used in place of your name. Your information will be kept confidential. All data will be shredded/destroyed within 7 years of completion of the study.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can stop participating in the study at any time without any negative repercussions.

Risks to you are minimal but may include psychological discomfort or embarrassment with regard to being video recorded during the tutoring/interview sessions. To lessen these risks, I will not be present

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College of Education  
Office of Doctoral Studies

during the tutoring recordings, and will stop the recording at any time you want to stop. You also have the right to request that the recordings be destroyed. Some of the benefits of participating in the study include increased recognition of your work as a tutor by your peers, your professors, and the center's director, as well as positive recognition among your peers both at the WALC and campus-wide. In addition, access to the recorded tutoring sessions during the interview can increase your awareness of the effective strategies you are using during your tutoring.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact my advisor, Dr. Deborah Stine, Professor in the Educational Leadership and Technology department, at this phone number: (909) 537-7311 or email her at [debstine@csusb.edu](mailto:debstine@csusb.edu).

I understand and consent to this. I will be audio recorded.

Initial \_\_\_\_\_

I understand that I will be video recorded.

Initial \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of Tutor: \_\_\_\_\_

Today's Date: \_\_\_\_\_

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## APPENDIX D

### TEACHER SENSE OF EFFICACY SCALE LONG FORM (24 ITEMS)



## Teacher Beliefs - TSES

This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create challenges for teachers. Your answers are confidential.

**Directions:** Please indicate your opinion about each of the questions below by marking any one of the nine responses in the columns on the right side, ranging from (1) "None at all" to (9) "A Great Deal" as each represents a degree on the continuum.

**Please respond to each of the questions by considering the combination of your current ability, resources, and opportunity to do each of the following in your present position.**

	None at all	Very Little	Some Degree	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal				
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
9. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

AR / nAR: \_\_\_\_\_

Developed by Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001).

APPENDIX E

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER



Academic Affairs  
Office of Academic Research • Institutional Review Board

April 09, 2015

Mr. Mauricio Cadavid  
c/o: Prof. Debbie Stine  
Department of Educational Leadership and Technology  
California State University, San Bernardino  
5500 University Parkway  
San Bernardino, California 92407

**CSUSB  
INSTITUTIONAL  
REVIEW BOARD**  
Expedited Review  
IRB# 14081  
Status  
**APPROVED**

Dear Mr. Cadavid:

Your application to use human subjects, titled "Literacy Tutoring Strategies of America Reads University-Level Tutors" has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The attached informed consent document has been stamped and signed by the IRB chairperson. All subsequent copies used must be this officially approved version. A change in your informed consent (no matter how minor the change) requires resubmission of your protocol as amended. **Your application is approved for one year from April 08, 2015 through April 07, 2016. One month prior to the approval end date you need to file for a renewal if you have not completed your research. See additional requirements (Items 1 – 4) of your approval below.**

Your responsibilities as the researcher/investigator reporting to the IRB Committee include the following 4 requirements as mandated by the Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46 listed below. Please note that the protocol change form and renewal form are located on the IRB website under the forms menu. Failure to notify the IRB of the above may result in disciplinary action. You are required to keep copies of the informed consent forms and data for at least three years. Please notify the IRB Research Compliance Officer for any of the following:

- 1) **Submit a protocol change form if any changes (no matter how minor) are proposed in your research protocol for review and approval of the IRB before implemented in your research,**
- 2) **If any unanticipated/adverse events are experienced by subjects during your research,**
- 3) **To apply for renewal and continuing review of your protocol one month prior to the protocols end date,**
- 4) **When your project has ended by emailing the IRB Research Compliance Officer.**

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional approvals which may be required.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the IRB Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at [mgillesp@csusb.edu](mailto:mgillesp@csusb.edu). Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

*Judy Sylva*

Judy Sylva, Ph.D., Chair  
Institutional Review Board

JS/mg

cc: Prof. Debbie Stine, Department of Educational Leadership and Technology

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