FAMILY ORIENTATION TOWARD LITERACY AND BEGINNING READING

by

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship between the levels of scores obtained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness in Reading Readiness and each item of the sections from a Parent Questionnaire dealing with attitude toward reading, letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement. The linguistic awareness scores and the questionnaire responses were also investigated according to the sex of the subject.

The subjects were thirty-five kindergarten students and thirty-one parents of these students. Each student was tested with the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness and these test scores were grouped into three levels. The parents were each interviewed in their homes by using a specially designed Parent Questionnaire. The parent responses were then related to the levels of scores attained on the Linguistic Awareness Test.

The results of the study indicated that particular items in the sections dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement were significant factors on the levels of scores attained on

the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. In addition, the sex of the subject was a significant factor on the parent responses to several items on the questionnaire. However, the items dealing with attitudes toward reading, and the sex of the subject were not significant factors on the levels of scores attained on the test.

The results of the study indicated that certain behaviours of the child in relation to letter knowledge, reading materials, writing materials and areas of parental support and involvement were significantly related to their level of linguistic awareness. In the discussion it was noted that according to the literature examined and the results of this study, children needed to experience written language in a variety of ways to enable their level of linguistic awareness to increase. It seemed that the factors that were found to be significant in terms of the child's linguistic awareness became the basis of experiences for the development of the child's strategies for reading. Finally, it was suggested that further research was needed to substantiate the parents' perceptions of their child's linguistic behaviours and to determine if the child's behaviour with written language at home was similar to the behaviour noted at school.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

I CONTEXT OF THE PROBLEM

Investigations have been made as to the nature of the child's early experiences with written language and the extent to which these early experiences influence learning to read. The question is important to, among others, educators, developmental psychologists and language learning theorists. It has been investigated from different points of view and through differing methodologies. Examination of the literature suggests that various aspects of the child's pre-reading experiences with written language have been identified for research purposes. These include attitude toward reading, linguistic awareness and the orientation toward literacy in the home.

Generally, these aspects of pre-reading experiences have been studied in isolation. Research in the areas of linguistic awareness (Reid, 1966; Downing, 1969, 1969/70, 1971/72; Downing and Oliver, 1973/74) and print awareness (Clay, 1967; Doake, 1979) has found that when most children enter school they lack specific expectancies of the nature of the activity of reading, they are unsure of the purpose of written language and they have little understanding of the technical concepts of written language. It seems that

their ability to read at the end of grade one is related to their linguistic awareness at the end of kindergarten.

Studies that have been conducted to investigate early reading attempts (Durkin, 1966; Clark, 1976; Doake, 1979; Mason, 1979) show that parents seldom make a conscious and systematic attempt to teach their children to read, but do answer their questions as they arise and do read to them. It seems to be important that parents are actively involved with their children both with shared experiences and shared language interaction. Printed materials, such as books or magazines have been shown to play an important role in the home environment (Clark, 1976).

More recently, the acquisition of reading skills before school entrance and the child's linguistic awareness have been examined within the context of the family orientation toward literacy (Torrey, 1969; Clark, 1976; Durkin, 1966). This has been investigated through loosely structured interviews, group testing, intensive case studies, classroom observation and parent questionnaires.

In light of the increasing prominence of the psycholinguistic theories of beginning reading, it is imperative that research is conducted to investigate the interrelatedness of these various factors and their influence on the child's emerging strategies of reading.

II STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

This present study was undertaken in an attempt to determine the level of the child's experiences with written language in relation to the orientation towards literacy in the home.

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between the child's concept of written language or linguistic awareness as measured by the child's score on a specially designed linguistic awareness test, and the parents' perception of the child's attempts at beginning reading, which was determined through the administration of a parent questionnaire. The child's actual ability in dealing with written language according to the test results was related to how the parents thought the child was developing an awareness of and pursuing an interest in written language.

By means of the parent questionnaire it was possible to determine the parents' point of view in regard to their child's developing linguistic awareness and then see how this related to the actual performance of the child with written language.

In addition to asking the parents to comment on their child's emerging strategies of reading, the extent of the parents' support and involvement with the child was questioned. Does the child's level of linguistic awareness reflect the

extent to which the parents are involved with and support the child's early reading strategies? By interviewing the parents in their home environment, the home experiences which help children develop the concepts of written language necessary for learning to read could be determined.

The researcher was also interested in examining the relationship of the sex of the child and his/her linguistic awareness as measured by their test score to see if the child's sex was a factor in their developing awareness of written language. Also, the child's sex was investigated in terms of the parental responses to the questionnaire to determine if there was a difference in parent responses according to the sex of the subject.

The major findings of this study outline the relationship between the parents' perception of the child's letter knowledge-related, reading-related and writing-related behaviours; the child's attitude toward reading; the extent of the parental support or involvement and the child's linguistic awareness and sex.

It had not been possible to find a study that examined specifically the relationship of the child's linguistic awareness upon kindergarten entrance and the parents' knowledge of their child's awareness of written language. Therefore, this study attempts to determine such a relationship.

III DEFINITION OF TERMS

Linguistic Awareness refers to the child's awareness of written language. Linguistic Awareness is explained by Downing (1979) as the simultaneous understanding of the communicative functions of written language and of the rules for coding in writing those features of the spoken language that are accessible for logical analysis (p. 5, 9).

The Family Orientation Toward Literacy refers to the role of reading and reading related behaviours within the home environment. Examples of this include parents reading to their children, children looking at books or parents themselves reading.

Beginning Reading refers to the emerging strategies employed by the child to decipher written language. Examples of this include the identification of words on signs, the recognition of ending, beginning or medial consonants or, the recognition of their own name or that of a member of their family.

IV HYPOTHESES AND POSTULATES

HYPOTHESES:

The hypotheses of the study were written in null form and were significant at the $P < .05$ level:

1) There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with attitude toward reading and the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

2) There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviours and the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

3) There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with reading-related behaviours and the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

4) There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with writing-related behaviours and the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

5) There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with parental support and involvement and the levels of scores attained in the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

6) There is no significant relationship between sex and the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

7) There is no significant relationship between sex and the responses on the parent questionnaire.

POSTULATES:

1) The parents answered honestly regarding their children's behaviours in each of the questions of the questionnaire.

2) The Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness is accurate enough to clearly indicate the student's level of linguistic awareness.

3) The sample size was sufficient to give indication of typical relationships between the variables.

V LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1) The parent responses are acknowledged to be subjective opinions and not always substantiated.

2) The study cannot be used unequivocally to generalize to all beginning kindergarten children. The students included in the study represent a small urban population of British Columbia, not the entire school population. The study used intact groups instead of a random sample because randomization was not possible.

3) This study does not take account of the slight differences in age between the subjects.

4) The use of a questionnaire as a testing instrument is limiting in that a questionnaire relates self-reporting data. In addition, the use of a questionnaire could influence respondents to answer in terms of what they think their child should be doing or in terms of what they think the researcher wants to hear.

5) There was not a follow-up to verify the data.

6) The study included a small sample size.

7) The checklist on attitudes toward reading which was compiled by Heathington and Alexander (1978) had been used with children who had already been in school and were reading. In this study it was used with children who had just entered kindergarten and who were only beginning to be aware of written language.

VI ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

This study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the problem, states the hypotheses and outlines some of the consideration involved in the study. The second chapter is a review of the literature on the subject. The third chapter gives the methodology used in choosing the sample and collecting the data. Chapter four reports the data and the results of the statistical calculations used to analyze it. Results are interpreted in terms of the stated hypothesis. Chapter five consists of a summary and discussion of the results of the study. It relates the results to the introduction and the review of the literature.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I. FAMILY ORIENTATION TOWARD LITERACY

The controversy of when children should begin to read, how children learn to read and what factors influence beginning reading is as old and complex as the process of reading itself. The available research on beginning reading remains inconsistent and inconclusive. The research obtains answers to specific questions such as "which method is better" or "when is the best time to start" but seldom goes beyond these questions to investigate "what" produced better results and "why". Consequently, we have little empirical research from which we can conclude why some children begin to read early.

The earliest reference to this question of early reading seems to be by Edmund Huey (1908) in his book The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading in which he suggests parents could help pre-school children with reading. Huey felt strongly that the way reading instruction was taught in schools at that time was unnatural. He devoted a whole chapter of his book to a description of the more natural ways in which children could begin to read at home.

> The child makes endless questionings about the names of things as every mother knows. He is concerned also about the printed notices, signs, titles, visiting cards, etc., that come in his way, and should be told what these 'say' when he makes inquiry. It is surprising how large a stock of printed or written words a child will gradually come to recognize in this way. (p. 314)

Huey says the following about children who learn to read by themselves:

> They grow into it as they learned to talk, with no special instructions or purposed method, and usually such readers are our best and most natural of all. (p. 330)

Milner (1951) studied the relationship between reading readiness in grade one school children and patterns of parent-child interaction. The forty-two subjects were drawn from three urban schools. Milner divided the subjects into two groups "high scores" and "low scores", based on "language I.Q. scores". Each of the children was interviewed individually and the mothers of both groups were interviewed. Included in Milner's results were that high scorers indicated they possessed several or a great many story books and that they were habitually read to by their mothers and/or fathers. Mothers of high scorers seemed to talk a great deal to their children and encourage their children to participate in conversation.

Milner found generally that high scoring children have more books available to them, are read to by adults more often and are "taken places" by their parents more

often than low scoring children. Milner suggests that these varied verbal-reading experiences at home had positively influenced the child's degree of readiness to read.

When Dolores Durkin started her investigation into early reading in 1957, she was able to find little documented research on children who read early. The result of Durkin's investigation of the research at that time was two longitudinal studies which explored the long term effect of early reading.

The first study began in September, 1958 and terminated six years later in June, 1964. The second began in September, 1961 and also terminated in June, 1964. The first study was intended to examine early reading achievement in a general way. According to Durkin, it was to explore the following questions:

1) How may children learn to read at home and, as a result, enter first grade already reading?

2) What is the effect of this early ability on a child's future achievement in reading?

3) What kinds of factors promote early reading, and do they have implications for school instruction in reading?

In the first study which took place in California, Durkin's early readers were children who had learned to read without school training before the first grade; they could successfully read eighteen out of thirty-seven common, easy words and they could obtain a raw score in the Gates Primary Reading Test. Of her forty-nine subjects, twenty were boys and twenty-nine were girls.

In this study the early readers were compared through the sixth grade with children who were not early readers. Since some of the early readers had been double promoted, adjustments in the comparison of the groups were made. The results clearly indicated that children who had learned to read before first grade maintained a reading advantage through elementary school. In addition, the children who first learned to read at home did not seem to encounter problems with reading once school instruction began.

As well as determining the reading achievement of these early readers, Durkin also interviewed the parents during home visitations.

The purpose of the interviews in the first study (1958) was to explore some of the family factors that might encourage pre-school achievement in reading. The questionnaire centered around three general topics: (1) family background; (2) the early reader; and (3) his/her early reading ability. Such questions as:

a) "What do you have around the house that might encourage a young child's interest in reading?" and

b) "At what age did your child first show an interest in written words and numbers?"

were included. Generally, families showed pride in the early reading achievement of their children and most parents themselves were enthusiastic readers.

The majority of early readers had been to kindergarten and according to the interview data, the children began asking questions about written words and numbers at ages that varied from two years to five years. They began to print words and numbers at ages ranging from two years to six years. The parents described their early readers as being "persistent", "perfectionistic", "high-strung", "good disposition" and "neat". Thirty-eight of the early readers themselves specifically mentioned having learned to read at home and forty-two referred to people other than a teacher as initially having taught them. Twenty-six of these forty-two said a parent was their teacher. Fourteen subjects recalled that older siblings had first taught them to read. The parental help given to the subjects included:

1) reading to subject
2) buying an alphabet book, picture dictionary or both
3) helping with printing
4) talking about sounds of letters
5) buying easy basal readers
6) identifying sounds

The parents stated that:

1) being read to at home
2) eagerness to keep up with older sibling
3) availability of reading materials in the home
4) availability of a blackboard

were the primary sources from which the children's pre-school interest in reading developed.

Durkin's second study (1961) in New York was designed to investigate the pre-school years of both early readers and non-readers. Subjects for the second study were identified in a similar manner as in the first study. Early readers were matched by I.Q., sex and first grade teacher with subjects who were not early readers and studied through the third grade. The research questions were basically the same as for the first study.

Two groups were formed; the experimental group comprised of thirty early readers, nineteen boys and eleven girls; and the control group of thirty non-early readers. The families of the sixty children were also interviewed.

Reading achievement in the second study was again significantly higher for early readers. Also several children in the experimental group were double promoted during the three year study whereas none of the children in the control group were accelerated.

Interviews in the second study were held with families of the thirty early readers in the experimental group and with families of the thirty non-early readers of the control group. The basic content of the questionnaire was the same as the one used in the California study with several additional questions such as:

1) "When no other children were available, what did your child usually do to occupy his time?"

2) "Did your child like to play alone?" and

3) "Did your child watch any nursery-school-kindergarten type programs on television?"

The data collected during the parent interviews were recorded by Durkin in terms of difference between early readers and non-readers. Some of the results included the following:

1) more mothers of early readers said they read more often than the average adult

2) more early readers (a) were read to at home prior to entering school; (b) showed pre-school interest in learning to read

3) more early readers were (a) described as being adept in activities that could be characterized as "quiet"; (b) when playing with other children participated in quiet games; (c) liked to play alone

4) more early readers (a) watched television for less than six hours in a week's time; (b) developed a curiosity about written words as a result of television viewing

5) more parents of pre-school readers attributed pre-school interest in reading partly to (a) availability of paper-pencils in the home; (b) availability of reading materials in the home; (c) availability of a blackboard in the home; (d) interest in the meaning of words

6) more parents of early readers gave pre-school help with (a) printing; (b) identification of written words; (c) meaning of words; (d) spelling; (e) sounds of letters

As was found in the California study, the mothers and siblings were found to have given most of the pre-school help with reading and related skills. The children in both groups were described by the parents as "having a

good memory", "being persistent", "curious", "competitive" and "perfectionistic". Durkin found also, that more of the early readers showed pre-school curiosity about reading and related skills. Children of both groups played with alphabet books and showed interest in writing and spelling their own name, as well as words found on signs, television commercials, calendars, food packages and the like. Children of both groups enjoyed having stories read and tended to memorize these stories.

Durkin suggests at the conclusion of her study that early readers are not some "unique species capable of being identified and sorted by tests" (p. 110). According to Durkin:

> Rather, it would seem, their pre-school achievement in reading is the combined expression of themselves, their parents, and the kinds of environment these parents provided. (p. 110)

Sheldon and Carrillo (1952) studied the relation of parents, home and certain developmental characteristics to children's reading ability. The eight hundred sixty-eight subjects were studied intensively in regard to (a) intelligence; (b) personal and emotional adjustment; (c) reading ability; (d) a general category (vision, perception, health teacher evaluation, parental and environmental background).

The results of the Progressive Reading Test, one of the instruments used to assess the subjects reading status, were then examined in view of the extensive parent questionnaire that was administered.

They found that five of the factors seemed to be definitely related to the reading ability of the child:

1) size of the family in that the smaller the family the greater percentage of good readers

2) the position in the family in that the earlier the ordinal position in the family the higher percentage of good readers

3) the number of books in the home where the home library increases the percent of good readers

4) the educational level of the parents in that good readers come more often from homes where the parents have reached higher levels of educational attainment

5) like or dislike of school showed that good readers tend to like school and poor readers tend to dislike school.

There seemed to be some relationship between reading ability and the age of speaking the first word and the age of speaking in sentences and occupational status of the father.

Plessas and Oakes (1964) attempted to identify the nature of prereading activities that might be associated with early success in reading. They administered a questionnaire to the parents of twenty first grade students who had been identified as early readers which included questions about the subjects' pre-school and first grade reading experiences. Plessas and Oakes found that reading was most often indicated in those questions dealing with the child's play things, home play and relations with adults. The children (a) were read to extensively; (b) were reported to have a personal interest in reading; (c) gave attention to signs

and asked questions about words, letters and numbers; (d) recognized words in the television; (e) learned the alphabet at an early age; (f) wrote their own name or copied words before first grade.

In her case study of a child who learned to read before entering school, Torrey (1969) examines the factors that enabled the subject (John) to learn to read with such facility. Torrey's subject was the third of five children from a low income family. At the time of the study he was five years of age and attending kindergarten.

The mother reported that John had not talked particularly early but had been able to read almost from the time he could talk. Since no one had read to him or taught him to read, the only plausible source of instruction she was able to mention was television commercials. The child seemed to enjoy writing and spent much time printing words and numbers. Torrey suggests that the repetitive nature of television commercials and the short and easily pronounceable words enable children to get a start on the basic vocabulary and make a few inferences about phonics. She felt that John then could "extend his reading knowledge through phonics, use the redundancy of language in simple books, ask occasional questions and be corrected by an adult" (p. 150).

Torrey maintains that while a teacher can provide guidance, the key to learning to read is in the questions the child asks of his environment and if he is able to get

answers from a variety of sources.

Miller (1969) conducted fifty-five home interviews with mothers of three social classes to determine home prereading experiences. Miller found that most of the middle-class children: (a) had heard books or stories read to them by a parent or sibling; (b) had gone on family trips and discussed what they had seen with their parents; (c) used manipulative materials more often than the other social groups; (d) had dramatized stories; (e) could recognize most of the alphabet letters and simple words such as those seen on street signs, food labels or television commercials; (f) had considerable contact with books in their home and had "pretended" to read; (g) had a good sense of left to right progression; (h) were able to rhyme words. The children in the other two social groups had participated in fewer of these experiences. Miller found a significant relationship between upper-lower class home prereading experiences and children's reading readiness and middle class home prereading experiences and first grade reading achievement. Miller reported in general that middle-class children should be the best prepared for beginning reading while lower-lower class children might be the least well prepared.

King and Friesen (1972) compared differences in family background, pre-school experiences and selected variables associated with reading among thirty-one (eleven

boys and twenty girls) Calgary children attending kindergarten who were already reading, and thirty-one (twenty-one boys and ten girls) randomly selected non-readers.

The study was designed in four main parts:

1) identifying readers
2) obtaining information from the parents
3) assessing the abilities of the subjects
4) evaluating the reading progress of the subjects after one year of school instruction

The readers were identified as being able to (a) read names and other isolated words in the classroom; (b) read words not directly taught in the class; (c) read simple stories; (d) read a whole book at the grade one level or higher.

The parents of the readers and non-readers were sent a questionnaire which included questions about siblings, child's activities, child's previous group learning experiences and relevant pre-reading activities. Some additional questions that were included to parents of readers asked the beginning age of reading, beginning interest in reading and the kind of help provided to the child.

The subject's abilities were assessed through three standardized tests, on intelligence, reading readiness, and individual learning rate. Further information about the subject one year later was obtained by means of a teacher questionnaire and a standardized reading achievement test.

King and Friesen found that almost all of the early readers had some informal help in learning to read from members of their families, but had not received reading instruction in the kindergarten program. The greater part of the help in reading was received from the mother. Both groups of subjects had access to easy reading material in the home and were read to regularly. However, more readers were found to visit the public library regularly than non-readers. Quiet activities such as handwork and quiet games were preferred by kindergarten readers. The factors in family background which appeared to be most important were the mother's educational attainment and the father's occupation.

In her book Young Fluent Readers, Margaret Clark (1976) details her study of thirty-two children who were reading fluently when they entered school. Over a period of years, Clark observed their initial and later attainment and other characteristics as well as their early experiences and home background. Her findings and conclusions were almost identical to those of Durkin but she placed even greater emphasis on the home environment and the parents' encouragement and support of their child's interest in literacy-related activities.

Clark studied thirty-two Glasgow, Scotland children, twenty boys and twelve girls ranging in age from five years to five years six months, who could in starting school:

1) already read some books independently

2) read beyond the early books of the beginning reading schemes

3) read at least twenty-five words on the Schonell Graded Word Reading Test

4) reach reading age of seven years six months in a word recognition test.

The reading range of the subjects was shown to be from seven years six months to over eleven years. They read a variety of reading materials and most showed skills in a variety of language based situations. A number of the children measured out as being highly intelligent, although this was not true of all of the group. In addition, auditory discrimination was not a problem for the group. Clark, however, makes it clear that early readers could not be merely attributed to intelligence.

> It is important not to dismiss either their advanced language and intellectual development, or their development of reading skills and interest in reading, as a result of specific identified skills or of innate potential, but to consider their characteristics of their environment which interacting with their potential skills, have assisted this precocious development. (p. 24)

Clark also interviewed the parents of the early readers to gain information on:

1) family background

2) child's early development

3) parent's perception of the factors which had contributed to the early reading of the child.

She also found that information was gained in observing the language interaction between the parents and child.

Some of the results of Clark's findings during the parent interviews are as follows:

1) the subjects came from varying backgrounds and their place in the family varied

2) children were independent, able to do things on their own and absorbed themselves in activities with a high level of concentration

3) mothers welcomed attempts at verbal interaction with children

4) parents provided children with a variety of interesting materials with which to occupy themselves

5) adults provided instant encouragement in the child's attempts to learn to read

6) the homes were providing a rich and exciting environment and experiences within which books were an integral part

7) the families attended the library regularly

8) children made their own selection of books and read a variety of print, both fiction and non-fiction

9) parents read to the children, or, as the children became more fluent, they read to the parents

10) adults were available to children to talk and answer questions while they were learning to read

11) some of the children were attracted to reading through stories, signs, advertisements, letter games, print in their immediate environment or through television

12) the children were also interested in writing and copying words, letters, names or messages

13) mothers seemed to help children most often and usually before the child was four years of age.

Flood (1977) investigated parental styles in reading episodes with young children. He states that "educators have urged frequent oral reading to young children in the belief that language is as much caught as it is taught" (p. 864). He cites Durkin (1972) who urges parents to read to young children "because books and stories provide children with models of book language - an extremely important concept in young children" (p. 864).

Since it has been shown that it is "important for parents to talk with their children, answer questions and in turn provide them with experiences which result in new vocabulary," (p. 864), Flood underlines the need for parents to read to their children, an act which provides "unique opportunities for verbal interaction" (p. 865). Flood therefore investigated the best way to read to children by looking at the relationship between parental style of reading to young children and the child's performance on selected pre-reading tasks. Flood found six factors which he claims are important in parent-child reading episode:

1) total number of words spoken by the child;
2) number of questions answered by the child;
3) number of questions asked by the child;
4) warm-up preparatory questions asked by the parents
5) post-story evaluative questions asked by parents
6) positive reinforcement by parents.

In his investigations into identifying factors which are indicative of a positive environment in learning to read, Teale (1978) reviewed studies of early (pre-school) reading. He outlines four major factors as being repeatedly associated with the environment of early readers. The first of these is "an availability and range of printed materials in the environment" (p. 925). According to Teale, this availability enabled children to use and get used to written messages. Teale cites a variety of studies which have indicated that most early readers have had access to a range of reading materials both in the home and through the library as well as by seeing signs, television commercials, cookbooks, newspapers and bus timetables to name a few.

A second factor Teale states is "reading is done in the environment" (p. 926). The child needs to learn the function of print in the environment and must learn that print is meaningful. Reading to a child is a factor that has been repeatedly cited as a means for children to come to understand "the language of books" (p. 927) and other printed material. As well as being read to, it has been found that early readers had one or both parents who were themselves avid readers. The parents acted as models for reading behaviour and the children attempted to emulate such a model.

The third factor is that "the environment facilitates

contact with paper and pencil" (p. 920). Teale mentions several studies which have shown evidence for the importance of opportunities to write as being indicative of a positive environment for learning to read.

The last factor discussed by Teale is that "those in the environment should respond to what the child is trying to do" (p. 929). Studies have indicated that people in the child's environment were willing to help with reading when it was needed, responded to the interests of the child in reading and answered the questions that the child asked about reading.

Teale concludes his article with the view that a positive environment for learning to read should include the following:

1) a variety of types of written language, all of which serve a genuine communicative function

2) reading that is made part of the environment in that adults and older children read and enjoy reading themselves

3) people interpreting written language for the child by reading to him/her

4) giving the child the opportunity to scribble, copy and write

5) having someone available to answer the child's questions about words, letters, reading and writing

6) showing that reading activities are a stimulating and absorbing facet of the everyday environment

Hall, Moretz and Statom (1976) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between early writers and

learning to read, by looking at factors in the home backgrounds of children who were early writers.

They found that the children who were early writers had:

1) observed both parents and/or siblings engaged in writing activities

2) had easy accessibility of writing materials

3) had availability of books and enjoyment of being read to

They noted that there were three patterns to the interest in writing which included (a) the desire to communicate; (b) an introduction to letter names; (c) writing through direct instruction by parents, usually given at the children's request. Sesame Street was cited as contributing to knowledge of letter names and in creating an interest in reading. According to Hall et al, "parents reported that interest in writing preceded interest in reading in seventeen out of eighteen cases" (p. 584). They suggest that "learning to write in the pre-school years does occur for some children in homes which offer exposure to and models of writing in natural settings" (p. 584). They conclude that:

> The relationship of learning to write to reading readiness and reading achievement merit investigation. Investigation of the ability to reproduce written symbols should reexamine the relationship of this ability to perform the visual discrimination tasks of reading. (p. 585)

Anne Forester (1977) discussed what teachers could learn from "natural readers". Through her research Forester found many examples of children who had learned to read on their own without formal instruction. Forester reports that there was a set of common features which characterize "natural reading". She states:

> Given the opportunity to evolve naturally, reading is learned not as a set of rules, but as an expressive meaningful language on the basis of modelling, where a competent reader demonstrates fluent reading. (P. 164)

Forester points out that children will learn the text if they have heard it several times and have learned the language patterns that they hear. She suggests that children, while learning to speak by listening to models, could learn to read by listening to models as well. She supports this view through observations of a grade one classroom where reading is taught based on the natural learning strategies of the children as derived from Forester's classroom research.

II LINGUISTIC AWARENESS/PRINT AWARENESS

It would seem that before children can learn to read, they need to have a notion of what reading is and subsquently need to have developed "a technical vocabulary with which to talk and think about the activity of reading itself" (Reid, 1966). The level of the children's linguistic awareness, their ideas about what reading is, what letters and words are, seems to be significant in terms of enabling children to learn to read.

Edwards (1958) found in his investigation of sixty-six retarded readers that these children had concluded that "good" reading was characteristically a matter of speed and fluency. He suggested that the beginning reader decides that when he reads he should sound like an adult and feels a need to attain adult-like fluency. He felt that beginning readers need to be taught the correct concept of reading. Edwards pointed out that teachers should ensure that children are aware of the true purpose of reading (ie. getting meaning).

In an article, exploring first graders' concepts of reading, Denny and Weintraub (1963) pointed out that almost nothing is known of how the beginning reader sees the reading act, how he feels concerning himself as a future reader and what may occur in his concept of reading as a result of learning or failing to learn to read. They cite research which had (a) found a great variability in

children's ability to define reading, and (b) found no significant correlation between a child's concept of reading and his reading achievement.

From their own research, Denny and Weintraub (1966) reported on the responses beginning first grade readers made to three questions: (1) Do you want to learn how to read? (2) Why? (3) What must you do to learn how to read in first grade? The one hundred eleven subjects were from a rural school, urban middle-class school and a suburban Negro school. Denny and Weintraub found that about thirty children gave no reason or an extremely vague and meaningless reason for wanting to learn to read; thirty-seven wanted to learn to read so they could read for themselves or to someone else; twenty-seven wanted to learn to read as a means to a goal; ten wanted to learn to read because there was some value or feeling connected with such learning; eleven children identified with someone who was a reader; four children did not want to learn to read. In addition, a third of the children could not offer a meaningful explanation of what one must do to learn to read, while only two-fifths of the children saw themselves as taking some action in learning to read. Denny and Weintraub suggest that there is a need for helping children see a reason for learning to read and for explaining to children how they are going to learn to read.

An additional article, Denny and Weintraub (1965) indicated that experiences which would emphasize and create a better understanding of reading could include: (a) reading to children from materials of many different types or (b) recording children's dictated stories, poems and actual experiences.

Reid's classic study (1966) attempted to study five year olds' notions of about reading and how these notions developed during the course of their first year in school. Reid interviewed twelve five-year old children (seven boys and five girls) three times during their first year at school. The interviews took place after two months, five months and nine months. The first session was conducted before much reading instruction had occurred and while all the children except one knew they could not read, none had any specific idea of what reading meant. When questioned on the contents of books, only one child referred to books as containing words; the rest all referred to pictures. The children referred to their parents' reading as "they read it in their head" and that what was read was black. Many knew that buses were identifiable by "the number" but at the same time thought the number was what the bus was called by. Reid then concluded from the results of these interviews that the children had a:

> General lack of any specific expectances of what reading was going to be like, of what the activity consisted in, of the purpose and the use of it . . . and a great proverty of linguistic equipment to deal with the new experiences . . . . (p. 58)

By the second interview the children had developed some terminology and instead of calling letters "numbers" tended to call them "words" instead. They were replacing the term "sounding" with "spelling", "copying" or "saying". They were beginning to look for regularities and rules and were becoming aware of the alphabetic system of writing. However, few had realized that a rule could be arbitrary, a convention.

Nine months later, in the third interview, Reid found that they had become more articulate about what they were doing and had become more sophisticated in their notions. It seemed that "word" was a more clearly defined concept and that an awareness of phonic structure was developing in both reading and writing. According to Reid "a new criterion began to emerge. A word had to mean something - it was not just any group of letters" (p. 60).

Reid points out that at the beginning of the study, the children had little idea of what reading was or that "written words were composed of letters which stood for sounds" (p. 61). They did, however, have an idea that writing was the production of symbols but had little connection to reading. These children had "certain linguistic and conceptual uncertainties about the nature of the material which they had to organize" (p. 61). By the end

of the nine months, however, the children were beginning to learn the difference between pictures and written symbols, between numbers and letters; to know what words were; and that the words consisted of letters which had specific "sounds".

Downing (1966) re-examined the question of reading readiness and supported the view that "readiness can be cultivated by arranging for the child to experience appropriate activities" (p. 10).

Downing pointed out several studies which found that the amount and quality of help received from parents enhances the beginning reader's learning environment. Downing emphasized the importance of the (a) role of learning in developing readiness for reading; (b) the learning environments, and (c) individiual differences in children.

Downing (1970) makes it clear that according to Piaget's theories of development, "the school beginner is at a stage of development when abstract concepts are the least appropriate for his understanding" (p. 8). At this state the child is egocentric which interferes with his realization of the purpose of the written form of language.

In a later article, Downing (1971,a) suggests that the way the child thinks and learns should be the starting point in all teaching and that we need to think "less about fitting the child to read and more about fitting the reading to the child" (p. 12). He stresses that the

development of children's concepts and reasoning abilities which are related to language is a basic factor in learning how to read.

In order to find out to what extent Reid's findings were determined by her method of interviewing, Downing (1970) conducted a study which included the addition of concrete stimuli and an experimental method.

Downing (1970) first interviewed thirteen children (six boys and seven girls) between the ages of four years eleven months and five years three months, two months after they entered infant school. While following Reid's interview procedure as closely as possible, Downing's results were "remarkably similar results to those obtained originally by Reid" (p. 107). Those children interviewed by Downing also "displayed a great deal of confusion in their use of abstract technical linguistic terms such as "letter" and "number"" (p 108). When concrete aids were introduced to examine their effect on the children's understanding of reading it was found that the children were correct most of the time in stating whether or not the act of reading was taking place in a picture. Six of the thirteen children were able to point to the print when given a book, while the other seven used technical terms such as "writing", "words" and "letters". This was not done when the same question had been posed during the interview. When questioned about the buses with the aid

of toy buses, the children were able to point correctly to the number and the destination boards.

In the experiment section of the study, the children were given twenty-five auditory stimuli - five non-human noises, five single vowel phonemes, five single words, five phrases and five sentences - and were asked to make a yes/no response depending on whether they thought the stimulus was a "word". This was repeated with the children being asked to identify sounds. Downing found that ". . . not one single subject's category of "a word" corresponded with the adults concept of a word . . . " and ". . . no child used the category "a sound" as a phoneme in the way that a teacher might do . . . " (p. 110). Downing concluded that beginning readers do not have a fully developed understanding of the purpose of writing, that they have a vague notion of how people read and that they have little understanding of abstract terms.

In his article dealing with how children think about reading, Downing (1969) emphasizes the five conclusions about teaching reading that research in young children's thinking has shown. He points out that a) children's thoughts about reading can be a major problem for teachers of reading; b) a young child's general way of thinking is very different from an adult's; c) children have difficulty understanding the purpose of written language and understanding the abstract technical terms used to describe

reading; d) teaching formal phonetic or grammatical rules may cause long term reading difficulties and e) it is essential that children understand the purposes of reading and writing as well as to understand the technical concepts of languages.

Downing points out research which finds that there should be more concern for children's own ways of thinking in learning to read. Downing cites Piaget's work with language and thought in children below the age of seven or eight years.

Downing also cites Vyotsky's work which shows that (a) the abstract quality of written language is a stumbling block for beginning readers and (b) children have little realization of the usefulness of reading.

Downing advises against teaching verbal rules of reading to children before they have made "generalizations from their own concrete experiences and arrived at an understanding of the nature of the tasks and problems they are required to undertake" (p. 220).

Ylisto (1969) attempted to test the theory that children begin the reading process by discovering for themselves that "printed words are substitutes for audible symbols which are used to identify objects, actions, or situations" (p. 634). She points out the difference in the concept of reading as learned through formal

instruction or as a natural emergence of language development. An inventory of twenty-five printed word symbols, which occur frequently in the child's natural environment, was administered orally to two hundred twenty-nine four, five and six year olds. According to Ylisto, the results of the study showed that reading at an early age is related to maturation. The results of the study point out that reading is an integral part of all learning activities and that oral language is a basis for discovering the reading process.

Forester (1975) found that children learned the terminology and rules of reading while learning to read. She analyzed the interactions of students with each other during reading lessons and analyzed the student's errors during oral reading. Forester noted that "oral practice rather than reliance on explanations or abstract concepts appears to guide the learners in most cases" (p. 60). According to Forester, a beginning reader is unclear about such concepts as sounds, words, sentences and context. So the child internalizes the rules of reading based on his own cue system and this is helped by oral practice in class. Forester concludes by raising the question as to what extent the child in the classroom needs and uses rules presented to him during beginning reading attempts.

Mason (1967) conducted a study to determine preschooler's concepts of reading. One hundred seventy-eight preschoolers

were interviewed individually and asked the following questions:

1) do you like to read?

2) would you like to be able to read?

3) does anyone in your family read?

4) do you like him/her/them to read?

Mason found that ninety per cent of the children questioned believed that they could read before they went to school and that they liked doing whatever it is they defined as reading. The majority of the children wanted to learn to read and reported that someone read "at home" and that they liked their friends and relatives to read. Mason noted, however, that it appeared that one of the first steps "in actually learning to read is learning that one doesn't already know how" (p. 132).

Clay (1967) studied the reading behaviour of 100 five year old children in New Zealand. Her purpose was to look closely at the behaviour of children who were beginning reading and then to record their behaviour. Clay's method of reading instruction "stressed fluency, meaning & learning as one reads, with only slight attention to letter-sound associations and learning a basic sight vocabulary" (p. 12). The study included testing and results for a preparation period and for a book reading stage.

Clay found that a good reader:

> Manipulated a network of language, spatial and visual perception cues and sorts these implicitly but efficiently searching for dissonant relations and best fit solutions. (p. 29)

She reports that readers first depend on their background experiences and spoken language which become supplemented by new learning such as letter knowledge, word knowledge, letter-sound associations and syllabic awareness. With these linguistic tools, Clay feels a beginning reader is able to extend his reading competencies.

Ehri (1975) examined the extent of readers' and prereaders' conscious awareness of the constituents of speech. She examined preschool prereaders with four word tasks to determine if there was evidence for the possibility that learning to read brings about a major change in the child's linguistic knowledge. Ehri found that the errors of prereaders suggested semantic rather than lexical processing of words, confusion between words and syllables and a lack of control over syntactic relations between words and sentences. The readers were found to be more successful at analyzing sentences into words and syllables than either preschoolers or kindergarteners, and the latter two groups did not differ. Ehri concludes that the "lexical constituents of language are known implicitly by the child as a consequence of his linguistic competence and that exposure to printed language brings these units

to awareness and enables the child to analyze and reflect upon the components of his speech" (p. 211).

Ollila and Quorn (1976) point out that young children do not have clear ideas of the purpose or usefulness of written language and have difficulty learning the abstract terms often used when teaching reading. They suggest a variety of ways to help children develop an understanding of reading which include (a) ensuring that children are familiar with a variety of books; (b) reading to children daily; (c) ensure that children see adults reading; and (d) giving children many opportunities to "try out" terms of reading.

Doake (1979) presented a paper on linguistic awareness and the effect it has on learning to read. He states that the outstanding characteristic of children who learn to read before going to school and those who become fluent readers at school is that they have had experience with books in their homes and have been read to constantly during their preschool years. According to Doake, these children have been able to become familiar with language in its various form so that it has become "functional" for them (p. 8). These children have experienced the different forms of language and have seen that it can provide enjoyment or information.

They have been introduced to extensive ranges of the

patterns of written language; they have learned to follow the structure of a story; they have developed skills and knowledge of the conventions of print. By giving the child experiences with the variances of language, Doake suggests the child will have less difficulty reading on his/her own.

Doake interviewed a five year old girl to show some of the problems that face children in developing an understanding of what is involved on a conscious level, in the process of reading. Doake documents how the experience with language changes the child's concept of reading.

Doake concludes his paper by pointing out that "learning language, whether oral or written, is, and should be a developmental task which children can accomplish in their own way and in their own time" (p. 18). By providing instruction that is "emulative and invitational rather than prescriptive" (p. 18), Doake suggests that children will then be able to learn written language as easily as they learn spoken language.

Mason (1979,b) investigated four year old children's letter and word reading competencies, to see if preschool children begin to read and if so, how they begin. Thirty-eight children were observed for a nine month period while they attended a university operated preschool. In addition, the children's parents filled out two questionnaires in which they described their child's interest in and knowledge

about letters and words and how they helped their child learn to read. During the school year the children were tested to measure their word and letter knowledge, interest in reading, word learning ability, recall of words previously learned and ability to verbalize the distinction between a class (animals) and a sub-class. Mason then carried out five analyses from the questionnaire.

Mason found in general that there are three levels of development of word reading which show reading progress. The first two are primed by letter and sign recognition abilities and the third is prefaced by letter-sound knowledge. In the first level, alphabet knowledge seems to provide a basis for learning to analyze words into letters and to lead the child to print letters and form words. In the second level, spelling letters in words and noticing letter configurations become important. The third level shows an aquisition of sounding out strategies for letter-sound to word-sound patterns, word recognition and spelling.

Mason interprets the results of her study to indicate that there exists a natural hierarchy of development of knowledge about how to read words. Assisted by their parents, Mason points out that children "realize that letters are discriminable patterns, that letters provide clues to reading, and that sounds in words are determined

by letters" (p. 1). Mason concludes that children who are

> Guided by parents to attend to letters, signs, and labels and are given opportunities to read, spell and print words, learn some of the essential rudiments of reading even before going to kindergarten. (p. 1)

III ATTITUDE TOWARD READING

Heathington and Alexander (1978) developed an observation checklist to assess attitudes toward reading. They maintain that the development and maintenance of positive attitudes toward reading will help to make reading a process that children will use throughout their lives.

Heathington and Alexander interviewed sixty children in grades one through six individually. They asked two questions: 1) what do children your age say and do when they dislike reading? 2) what do they say and do when they like reading? From these responses, they then were able to examine the reading behaviours that would most accurately reflect children's attitudes toward reading. The children's comments were categorized according to: (a) reading environment; (b) school; (c) non-school; (d) library; (e) general. The comments were then used to construct a quick assessment checklist for teachers to use in observing children's attitudes toward reading.

Heathington and Alexander found that the following behaviours were repeatedly mentioned and were found to be indicative of reading attitudes:

1) being happy while reading
2) desiring to read aloud
3) reading a lot of books
4) spending free time in reading
5) reading at home
6) choosing reading over other activities
7) desiring to go to the library
8) talking about books which have been read

CHAPTER 3

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

INTRODUCTION

This study was designated to investigate the relationship between the scores obtained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness in Reading Readiness (Ayers, Downing and Schaefer, 1977) and the responses from a parent questionnaire dealing with attitudes toward reading, letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement. The linguistic awareness scores and the questionnaire responses were also investigated according to the sex of the subject. The method of data collection was to test the students of two kindergarten classes of two different schools in the Cowichan School District and interview the parents of these students. The Test of Linguistic Awareness in Reading Readiness was administered to each kindergarten student and the parents were interviewed in their home. The variables were then statistically analyzed to determine the existence of any relationships.

SUBJECTS

The subjects who were involved in this study included kindergarten students and their parents.

1. Students

The students participating in the study were drawn from two schools in the Cowichan School District. All of the subjects were from the morning kindergarten of each school. The total population of kindergarten students used was thirty-five, which included fifteen boys and twenty girls.

The two schools involved in the study, School A and School B, both draw from middle to upper middle class areas and include skilled labour, semi-professional and professional families.

2. Parents

The parents of each student were contacted for interviews in their homes. Of the thirty-five parents contacted, thirty-one agreed to participate. Of the thirty-one parents, twenty-nine mothers were interviewed alone and two interviews included both mother and father.

Of those parents who did not participate, two were unable to be reached and no satisfactory time could be arranged with the remaining parents.

Table 1 gives a breakdown of information of the subjects and schools.

TABLE 1

Breakdown of Information: Schools and Subjects

	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B	TOTAL
Number of students	18	17	35
Number of girls	10	10	20
Number of boys	8	7	15
Number of parents participating	15	16	31
Average age of girls	5.42	5.33	
Average age of boys	5.33	5.42	

PROCEDURES

A letter of explanation was sent to the parents of each kindergarten student explaining the purpose and procedure of the intended research, see Appendix A. In addition, each parent was telephoned for further clarification and a time was arranged for a home interview to administer the questionnaire.

The Test of Linguistic Awareness in Reading Readiness (Ayers, Downing and Schaefer, 1977) was administered to the entire kindergarten class at each school at two separate sittings. The classroom teacher, a classroom aide and a

research assistant were present to ensure that the children understood and followed the instructions of the researcher who administered the test. The assistance of an experienced primary teacher was obtained as a research assistant to help in administering the test.

The tests were scored according to the test instructions, see Appendix B. The obtained scores were grouped into thirds and designated as top third, middle third and bottom third. The groups are as follows:

TABLE 2

Grouping of Student Scores on Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

GROUP	TOP THIRD		MIDDLE THIRD		BOTTOM THIRD	
SCHOOL	A	B	A	B	A	B
Number of Students	7	4	6	7	5	6
Number of girls	6	3	3	2	1	5
Number of boys	1	1	5	3	4	1

During the same time period as the testing was being carried out, the parents were being interviewed. A

questionnaire was designed, see Appendix C, similar to the questionnaire used by Mason (1979,b). The parents were asked to respond to the questions by simply choosing seldom, occasionally or frequently. Their comments were also solicited.

The questionnaires were then coded and grouped according to the student's score on the Test of Linguistic Awareness. A Chi-Square Analysis was done to indicate relationships between the category of linguistic awareness and each questionnaire response, the category of linguistic awareness and the sex of the subject and each questionnaire response and the sex of the subject.

TESTING INSTRUMENTS

The Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (Ayers, Downing and Schaefer, 1977), form 1, has the following reliability: Sub-Test A - .87; Sub-Test B - .84; and Sub-Test C - .88.

The test consists of three subtests A, B and C. Subtest A deals with recognizing literacy behaviours by testing whether or not the child can recognize the kind of activities which were involved in reading and writing. The activities include the identification of items one can read, identification of a person who is reading, identification of things with which one can write and the identification of a person who is writing.

Subtest B deals with the understanding of literacy functions by testing to discover whether or not the child understands the purposes of literacy. These include reading for entertainment, reading for information, reading for communication, writing to entertain, writing to remember and writing to communicate.

Subtest C focuses on the technical language of literacy by testing a child's knowledge of technical terms used in describing language, such as "letter", "word", and "number". The child is asked to identify such things as letters, pieces of printing, pieces of writing, the top line of a story, the bottom line of a story, words, sentences and

punctuation marks. The responses to all questions on the subtests are circled on the test booklets.

The questionnaire is designed to obtain information from the parents about their child's attitude toward reading, about letter knowledge-related behaviours, the reading-related behaviours and the writing-related behaviours he/she engages in and the frequency of parental support and involvement. The questionnaire is similar to the one used by Mason (1979,b), where she found that the parents' responses related significantly with the children's performance on letter and word reading tasks in many cases.

The questionnaire consists of five sections with a total of forty questions. The responses are marked seldom, occasionally or frequently. The occasionally response was subsequently collapsed in the data analysis as no parents had chosen the occasionally response.

Part One of the questionnaire concerns attitude toward reading and consists of seven behaviours which Heathington and Alexander (1978) have suggested are good indicators of the child's attitude toward reading.

Part Two deals with letter knowledge-related behaviours. The eight questions pertain to the identification of letters and letter sounds and printing and copying letters.

Part Three consists of ten questions on reading-related behaviours. These include questions concerning

recognition of printed words, directional rules of reading and word meanings. The last question in this section asks the parents to informally assess their child's reading strategy according to a scheme which closely parallels the three stages of word recognition which Mason (1979,a,b) has postulated.

Part Four is comprised of six questions on writing-related behaviours including copying words, printing words and discourse from memory and attempts with spelling words. As research has pointed out (Durkin, 1966; Mason, 1979) attempts at spelling words are also factors in the child's developing awareness and understanding of written language. At this point in the questionnaire the parents are asked to informally assess their child's spelling strategy according to the five stage hierarchy postulated by Gentry (1978). His scheme is based on numerous investigations of children's early spelling attempts, and includes the following stages in order of increasing sophistication: deviant, prephonetic, phonetic, transitional and standard.

Part Five concerns parental support and involvement. The eleven questions deal with reading to the child at home, discussing what has been read, visiting the public library, television viewing and the teaching of reading skills at home.

VARIABLES

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

A. Dependent Variable

Questionnaire Items - there were forty questions in total in the parent questionnaire. Thirty of the questions had three response choices of seldom (S), occasionally (O) or frequently (F). Seven of the questions also had three response choices of: less than five, about ten, more than twenty; upper case, lower case, both cases; child, parents, both together; no, one, several. Three of the questions required responses to be chosen from three or more examples of the specified behaviour.

B. Independent Variable

1. Levels of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

These levels were manifested by scoring each Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness and categorizing the scores into the top third level, middle third level or bottom third level. These levels are the categories within which the evaluation of the responses were made.

2. Sex - male or female

DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis used was the same for each hypothesis. Each hypothesis was tested individually using a Chi-Square Analysis which was to show directional tendencies between the dependent variable of questionnaire items and the independent variables of levels of the Test of Linguistic

Awareness for Reading Readiness and the sex of the subject.

The seven hypotheses were written in the null form with the level of significane at the P $<$ .05 level.

Hypothesis #1 - There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with attitude toward reading and the three levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Hypothesis #2 - There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviour and the three levels of scores of Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Hypothesis #3 - There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with reading-related behaviours and three levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Hypothesis #4 - There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with writing-related behaviours and the three levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Hypothesis #5 - There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with parental support and involvement and the three

levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Hypothesis #6 - There is no significant relationship between sex of the subject and the three levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Hypothesis #7 - There is no significant relationship between sex of the subject and the responses from the parent questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The results for this study involve the three levels of scores from the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness, the individual responses to the items of the five sections of the parent questionnaire, and the sex of the subjects. For all of the statistical analysis $P < .05$ was used as the significance level. The data tables for all items which were not significant are presented in Appendix D.

A Chi-square analysis was used to test each hypothesis. The items which showed significance using the Chi-square analyses are reported in Tables 3 to 15. In all the tables under the Response heading, number 1 refers to the "Frequently" response on the parent questionnaire and number 2 refers to the "Seldom" response on the parent questionnaire. Under the heading Linguistic Awareness Level, number 1 refers to the top third scores, number 2 refers to the middle third scores and number 3 refers to the bottom third scores from the Linguistic Awareness Test.

A separate discussion of each hypothesis will be used to explain the results more fully.

Hypothesis #1

There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with attitude toward reading and the three levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Question #1

Does your child seem happy when reading or being read to?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 0.05 with P = .98. Therefore, this item was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #2

Does your child ask to read to others or be read to?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 4.39 with P = .11. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #3

Does your child read rather than engage in other activities when given the choice?

This question obtained a χ^2 value of 2.78 with P = .25. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #4

Does your child talk about the books he/she has read?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 4.50 with P = .10. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #5

Does your child ask to visit the library?

This question obtained a χ^2 value of 5.62 with $P = .06$. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #6

Does your child take out books from the library?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 1.93 with $P = .38$. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #7

Does your child ask to have favorite books reread?

This question obtained a χ^2 value of 5.45 with $P = .07$. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

In this first section of the parent questionnaire dealing with attitude toward reading, it was found that none of the items questioned was significant at the $P < .05$ level. Therefore, the first hypothesis will be accepted. It would appear that attitude toward reading is not a significant factor on the levels of scores of the Linguistic Awareness Test.

Hypothesis #2

There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviours and the three levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Question #8

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child recite the alphabet without error?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 1.43 with P = .49. Therefore it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #9

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child ask to have letters identified?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.66 with P = .27. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #10

When playing with reading and writing material does your child point out and name letters?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 9.52 with P = .01. Therefore, this item was significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #11

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child try to copy letters?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 7.43 with P = .02. Therefore, it was significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #12

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child try to print letters from memory?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 15.38 with P $<$ .01. Therefore, it was significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #13

When playing with reading and writing materials, does your child print in upper case only, lower case only or both cases?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .16 with P = .95. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #14

When playing with reading and writing materials, does your child ask to have letter sounds identified?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .64 with P = .72. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #15

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child identify letter sounds?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.21 with P = .33. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

In the second section of the parent questionnaire dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviours, three items were shown to have significance at the $P < .05$ level. Therefore, this hypothesis will be rejected. It appears that some letter knowledge-related behaviours are significant factors in the level of scores on the Linguistic Awareness Test. These results are reported in Tables 3, 4 and 5.

TABLE 3

Chi-square analysis of Item #10 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with reading and writing materials does your child point out and name letters?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	10	7	3	20
2	0	5	6	11
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 9.52^*$

*The χ^2 value of 9.52 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 4

Chi-square analysis of Item #11 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with reading and writing materials does your child try to copy letters?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	9	3	21
2	1	3	6	10
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 7.43$*

*The χ^2 value of 7.43 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 5

Chi-square analysis of Item #12 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with reading and writing materials does your child try to print letters from memory?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	6	0	15
2	1	6	9	16
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 15.38^*$

*The χ^2 value of 15.38 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Hypothesis #3

There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with reading-related behaviours and the three levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Question #16

When playing with reading materials, does your child start at the front of the book?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.91 with P = .23. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #17

When playing with reading materials, does your child focus on the print rather than the picture for the message?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 1.03 with P = .60. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #18

When playing with reading materials, does your child follow the directional rules of reading?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 3.36 with P = .19. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #19

When playing with reading materials does your child ask to have printed words read to him/her?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 6.77 with P = .03. Therefore, it was significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #20

When playing with reading materials does your child ask about the meanings of words?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 6.43 with P = .04. Therefore, it was significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #21

When playing with reading materials does your child recognize visually-cued words?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 5.99 with P = .05. Therefore, it was significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #22

When playing with reading materials does your child recognize graphically-cued words?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .35 with P = .84. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #23

When playing with reading materials does your child recognize words out of context?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .28 with P = .87. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #24

When playing with reading materials does your child seem to make up a story inspired by the pictures; recite the story from memory, using the pictures as cues; recite the story from memory using graphic cues; actually reads most of the words?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.53 with P = .28. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

In the third section of the Parent Questionnaire dealing with reading related behaviours, it was found that three items were significant at the P $<$ .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis will be rejected. It seems that some reading-related behaviours are significant factors in the levels of scores attained on the Linguistic Awareness

Test. This information is reported in Tables 6, 7 and 8.

TABLE 6

Chi-square analysis of Item #19 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with reading materials does your child ask to have printed words read to him/her?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	6	3	18
2	1	6	6	13
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 6.77$*

*The χ^2 value of 6.77 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 7

Chi-square analysis of Item #20 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with reading materials does your child ask about the meanings of words?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	7	7	1	15
2	3	5	7	15
Total	10	12	8	30

$\chi^2 = 6.43$*

*The χ^2 value of 6.43 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 8

Chi-square analysis of Item #21 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with reading materials does your child recognize visually-cued words?)

Response	Linguistic Awareness Level 1	2	3	Total
1	9	10	14	23
2	1	2	5	8
Total	10	12	19	31

$\chi^2 = 5.99$*

*The χ^2 value of 5.99 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Hypothesis #4

There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with writing-related behaviours and the three levels of scores of the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Question #25

When playing with writing materials, does your child ask how a word should be spelled?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 12.30 with $P < .00$. Therefore, it was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #26

When playing with writing materials, does your child copy words?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.94 with $P = .23$. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #27

When playing with writing materials, does your child print words from memory?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 3.09 with $P = .21$. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #28

When playing with writing materials, does your child copy discourse?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 9.76 with $P < .00$. Therefore, it was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #29

When playing with writing materials does your child print longer discourse from memory?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 4.16 with $P = .13$. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #30

Which of the following descriptions most closely characterize your child's spelling attempts?

a) string of letters or approximations of letters, often interspersed with numerals written from left to right to resemble the arrangement of letters in real words.

eg: 2PM M BPR7M

b) spellings are greatly abbreviated, often with only beginnings and/or final sounds represented.

eg: SB TB

c) all the sounds are represented, but spellings do not look like real words.

eg: CHRP PRD

d) closely resembles standard spellings.

eg: EIGHTEEY DRAGUN

e) correct spellings.

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.81 with P = .25. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

In the fourth section of the parent questionnaire dealing with writing-related behaviours, it appeared that two items are significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Therefore, this hypothesis will be rejected. It would appear that some writing-related behaviours are significant factors in the attainment of scores on the Linguistic Awareness Test. This information is presented in Tables 9 and 10.

TABLE 9

Chi-square analysis of Item #25 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with writing, materials, does your child ask how a word should be spelled?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	10	6	2	18
2	0	6	7	13
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 12.29$*

*The χ^2 value of 12.29 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 10

Chi-square analysis of Item #28 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (When playing with writing materials does your child copy discourse from memory?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	6	2	0	8
2	4	10	9	23
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 9.76$*

*The χ^2 value of 9.76 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Hypothesis #5

There is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with parental support and involvement and the three levels of scores on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Question #31

How often is your child read to at home per week?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .45 with P = .80. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #32

How often do you and your child discuss what he/she has read?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 1.54 with P = .46. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #33

How often does your child visit the public library?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 1.63 with P = .44. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #34

Does your child hear story records at home?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .77 with P = .68. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #35

Do you buy or borrow books for your child?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .77 with P = .68.

Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #36

When a book is bought or borrowed for the child who chooses it? Child, parents or both together?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .53 with P = .77. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #37

How much T.V. does your child watch per day?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .08 with P = .96. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #38

Does your child watch educational T.V. programs?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .03 with P = .98. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #39

Do you and your child discuss them?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 8.76 with P = .01. Therefore, it was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #40

How often does your child go on outings with you per week?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of .54 with P = .76. Therefore, it was not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #41

Does your child own any alphabet books?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 1.96 with P = .38. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Question #42

Is anyone teaching your child some reading skills?

As all the responses to this item on the questionnaires were negative, a chi-square value was not obtained.

It appears that one item in this section dealing with parental support and involvement is significant at the P $<$ .05 level. Therefore, this hypothesis will be rejected. It seems that parents discussing programs that the child is viewing on television is a significant factor in the level of scores attained on the Linguistic Awareness Test. This information is reported in Table 11.

TABLE 11

Chi-square analysis of Item #39 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness (Do you and your child discuss educational T.V. programs?)

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	8	2	2	12
2	2	7	7	16
Total	10	9	9	28

$\chi^2 = 8.76^*$

*The χ^2 value of 8.76 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Hypothesis #6

There is no significant relationship between the sex of the subject and the three levels of scores on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

Table 12 shows that the sex of the child in relation to the score obtained on the Linguistic Awareness Test scored a χ^2 value of 3.02 with P = .22. Therefore, it was not significant at the P $<$ .05 level. Therefore this hypothesis will be accepted. It seems that the child's sex is not a significant factor on the scores of the Linguistic Awareness Test.

TABLE 12

Chi-square analysis of Sex of the Subjects and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

Levels of Linguistic Awareness Test Scores	Sex		
	Male	Female	Total
1	3	7	10
2	8	4	12
3	4	5	9
Total	15	16	31

$\chi^2 = 3.02$*

*The χ^2 value of 3.02 is not significant at the P $<$ .05 level.

Hypothesis #7

There is no significant relationship between the sex of the subject and the responses from the parent questionnaire.

It would appear that three items on the parent questionnaire were significant in terms of the sex of the subject. These results are reported in Tables 13, 14, and 15.

Question #4

Does your child talk about the books he/she reads?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 4.19 with P = .04. Therefore, it was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #5

Does your child ask to visit the library?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 5.24 with P = .02. Therefore, it was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #34

Does your child hear story records at home?

This item obtained a χ^2 value of 2.81 with P = .09. Therefore, it was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

This hypothesis then, will be rejected. It seems that some responses on the parent questionnaire were significant in terms of the sex of the subject.

TABLE 13

Chi-square analysis of Item #4 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Sex of the Subject

Response	Sex of Subject		Total
	Male	Female	
1	7	14	21
2	8	2	10
Total	15	16	31

$\chi^2 = 4.19$*

*The χ^2 value of 4.19 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 14

Chi-square analysis of Item #5 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Sex of the Subject

	Sex of Subject		
Response	Male	Female	Total
1	7	15	22
2	7	1	8
Total	14	16	30

$\chi^2 = 5.24^*$

*The χ^2 value of 5.24 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE 15

Chi-square analysis of Item #34 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Sex of the Subject

	Sex of Subject		
Response	Male	Female	Total
1	6	12	18
2	8	3	11
Total	14	15	29

$\chi^2 = 2.81^*$

*The χ^2 value of 2.81 is significant at the $P < .05$ level.

SUMMARY

Hypotheses one through seven were each analyzed by a Chi-Square. The results caused the acceptance of the hypotheses one and six and the rejections of hypotheses two, three, four, five and seven on the basis of the Chi-square analysis.

In essence, it would appear that some aspects of letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement have some significance on the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. In addition, the child's sex was significant in terms of the response of parents on some items of the parent questionnaire. However, the child's attitude towards reading and the sex of the child were not found to be significant factors on the level of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness.

In conclusion, the level of the child's score on the Linguistic Awareness Test is related significantly to some areas of his/her letter knowledge-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, and parental support and involvement. In addition, the child's sex was related significantly to some items on the parent questionnaire.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Hypothesis number one stated: there is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with attitude toward reading and the three levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. This hypothesis was accepted on the basis of the Chi-square analysis which showed that none of the items were significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Since the section on attitude toward reading on the parent questionnaire did not have a significant effect on the child's scores on the Linguistic Awareness Test, it would seem that the checklist compiled by Heathington and Alexander (1978) did not measure the child's attitude toward reading in this study. Although this checklist had been used successfully with children already in school who were able to read, it did not seem to be as suitable for kindergarten age children in this study who were beginning to develop linguistic awareness.

Hypothesis number two stated: there is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviours and the three levels of scores on the test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. This hypothesis was also tested by

a Chi-square analysis and was rejected on that basis. The items in this section which were significant at the $P < .05$ level included:

Question #10

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child point out and name letters?

Question #11

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child try to copy letters?

Question #12

When playing with reading and writing materials does your child try to print letters from memory?

It would appear that there is a significant relationship between the child's attempts to work with reading and writing materials and their scores on the Linguistic Awareness Test. It would seem, as suggested by Doake (1979), that as the child becomes more aware of the functions of language or as language in its various forms become "functional" for the child, there are more attempts made by the child to reproduce it independently. In this present study, the attempts made by the child to name and print letters were significant factors on their test scores.

Hypothesis number three stated: there was no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with reading related behaviours and the three levels of scores on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for

Reading Readiness. This hypothesis, too, was tested using a Chi-square analysis which resulted in the hypothesis being rejected. The following items in this section were significant at the $P < .05$ level:

Question #19

When playing with reading materials, does your child ask to have the printed words read to him/her?

Question #20

When playing with reading materials, does your child ask about the meanings of words?

Question #21

When playing with reading materials, does your child recognize visually-cued words?

It seems that these items were significant factors on the scores attained on the Linguistic Awareness Test. It would appear that as the child becomes more familiar with words both orally and visually and realizes that words all mean something different, he/she attains a higher level of linguistic awareness. As Durkin (1966) emphasizes, the abundance of words surrounding a child seems to have an effect on their reading skills.

Hypothesis number four stated: there is no significant relationship been each item questioned in the section dealing with writing-related behaviour and the levels of scores on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. A Chi-square analysis was also used to test this hypothesis and it was therefore rejected. The items

which were significant at the $P < .05$ level are as follows:

Question #25

When playing with writing materials, does your child ask how a word should be spelled?

Question #28

When playing with writing materials, does your child copy discourse?

As the child's level of linguistic awareness increases, it would seem that he/she has become aware that letters are placed together in a specific manner to make a word and that these letters and words can be reproduced by the child himself/herself. As the child has more experience with writing materials, it seems that his/her level of linguistic awareness is positively affected.

Hypothesis number five stated: there is no significant relationship between each item questioned in the section dealing with parental support and involvement and the three levels of scores on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. This hypothesis was tested using a Chi-square analysis. On the basis of this analysis, the hypothesis was rejected. Item #39 in this section was significant at the $P < .05$ level.

Question #39

Do you and your child discuss educational television programs?

This question appeared to be a significant factor in this present this study on the of level scores on the Linguistic Awareness Test. It seems that through discussions with parents about what he/she is viewing on educational television programs, the child is able to begin to make assumptions about language. As Torrey (1978) concluded, the television can become a major form of instruction for the child from which they can acquire a basic vocabulary and make inferences about phonics. It was pointed out by Hall, Moretz and Statom (1976) that Sesame Street was cited in their study as contributing to the knowledge of letter names. Therefore, if the child is able to gain information about written language from educational television programs and subsequently discuss this information with parents, it would appear that the level of linguistic awareness is positively affected.

Hypothesis number six stated: there is no significant relationship between the sex of the subject and the three levels of scores on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. This hypothesis was also tested using a Chi-square analysis and consequently it was accepted. It would appear that sex is not a significant factor on the levels of scores on the Linguistic Awareness Test in this study. It is interesting to note that Teale (1978) considers that the characteristics of the child himself or herself are important contributing factors to early reading.

Hypothesis number seven states: there is no significant relationship between the sex of the subject and the responses from the parent questionnaires. This last hypothesis too, was tested using a Chi-Square analysis and was consequently rejected. The three following items in this section seemed to be significant at the $P < .05$ level, according to the sex of the child:

Question #4

Does your child talk about books he/she has read?

Question #5

Does your child ask to visit the library?

Question #34

Does your child hear story records at home?

It appears in each case that girls asked all three of these questions more frequently than boys. Both Durkin (1966) and Clark (1976) point out that early readers seemed to enjoy quieter activities and enjoyed playing independently. In this present study, it seems that girls preferred to pursue these quieter reading and listening activities.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

As was indicated at the beginning of this study, research has identified various aspects of the child's pre-reading experiences with language, particularly in terms of attitude toward reading, linguistic awareness and the orientation toward literacy in the home. However, research needs to be conducted to investigate the inter-relatedness of these various factors and their influence on the child's emerging strategies of reading.

This present study attempted to show a relationship between the child's concept of written language or as defined in this present study as "linguistic awareness", and the parents' perception of the child's attempts at beginning reading. This study found that several factors connected with the child's attempts to deal with written and oral language were of significance in terms of their level of linguistic awareness.

The results of hypotheses number two and four in the present study seem to agree with those found in the studies of Plessas and Oakes (1964); Durkin (1966); Torrey (1969); Clark (1976); Teale (1978) and Hall, Moretz and Statom (1976). The results of this present study indicated that the child pointing out and naming letters, copying letters, printing letters from memory, asking how words should be spelt and copying discourse were significant factors in the child's level of linguistic awareness.

Plessas and Oakes (1964) noted that the children in their study gave attention to signs and asked questions about words, letters and numbers as well as copied words and wrote their own names before first grade.

Durkin (1966) found in her first study that the majority of early readers had begun asking questions about written words and numbers between the ages of two and five years, and that these children had also begun to print words and numbers. Durkin points out that early readers had shown a great interest in learning to print. In her second study, Durkin found that the children showed an interest in writing and spelling their own name as well as words found on signs, television commercials, calendars and food packages. Torrey (1969) also found that her subject seemed to enjoy writing and spent much time printing and writing words and numbers. Clark's (1976) results showed that the early readers in her study were interested in writing and copying words, letters, names or messages. Teale (1978) suggests evidence which shows the importance of opportunities to write in indicating a positive environment for learning to read. Furthermore, the study of Hall, Moretz and Statom (1976) indicates a relationship between letter knowledge-related behaviour and beginning reading.

The factors that were found to be significant related to hypothesis number three of the present study included the child asking to have words read, asking about meanings

of words and recognizing visually cued words. These results seem to agree with the findings of Forester (1977); Huey (1908); Clark (1976) and Teale (1978).

Forester points out that children will learn written language if they have heard it several times and have learned the language patterns they hear. Huey (1908) indicated that children will recognize words particularly on signs, titles and visiting cards and will learn them after hearing them repeated. Clark (1976) found that many of her early readers were attracted to reading through stories, signs, advertisements, letter games, print in their immediate environment or through television. Teale (1978) cited the significance of television commercials, signs, newspapers and cookbooks on the child's recognition of words. Teale also stressed the importance of responding to the child's questions about words and their meanings as he/she attempts to make sense of the printed word.

The item of significance found in this present study related to hypothesis number five deals with parents discussing educational television programs with their children. This finding is in agreement with the results of the studies conducted by Torrey (1969); Clark (1976); Hall, Moretz and Statom (1976); Durkin (1972) and Teale (1978).

Torrey suggests that the repetitive nature of television commercials and the short and easily pronounceable words

enable the child to build up a vocabulary and make inferences about phonics. It is also through the discussion of what the child sees on educational television and the questions he/she asks that assumptions can be made about language. This is supported by the findings of Hall, Moretz and Statom (1976). Plessas and Oakes (1964) and Miller (1964) also found that the children recognized words on television and television commericals. Clark noted that the mothers of early readers welcomed attempts at verbal interaction with children and that television seemed to attract children to reading. Durkin (1972) emphasizes the importance of parents talking with their children, answering questions and providing them with experiences which will result in new vocabulary. Teale (1978) also stresses the importance of answering the child's questions about words, letters, reading and writing.

The findings of the present study indicated that some letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and some aspects of parental support and involvement reflect the child's growing linguistic awareness.

These findings seem to agree with those reported by Doake (1979); Clay (1967) and Reid (1966). According to Doake (1979), early readers have been able to become familiar with language in its various forms and it has become "functional" for them. This relates to the present

study where the child is evidencing some linguistic awareness through letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement. Clay (1967) points out that readers first depend on their background experiences and spoken language which become supplemented by new learning such as letter knowledge, word knowledge and letter-sound associations. As this present study reflects, as the children are able to synthesize their language experiences, their linguistic awareness increases. However, if the child has a low level of linguistic awareness, he/she does not seem to have begun to associate written symbols to reading or speaking. As Reid (1966) states:

> They have certain linguistic and conceptual uncertainties about the nature of the material which they have begun to organize. (p. 61)

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study raise several interesting points of concern to both parents and educators.

One point is that the sex of the child in this study did not seem to be a factor on the levels of linguistic awareness. It seems that children are able to develop an awareness for written language due to factors apart from their sex. It would appear then, that some children might benefit from opportunities to develop their linguistic awareness. These might include the availability of books or being able to print and copy words.

Indications are that children need to be answered when they ask questions about letters and words so that they are able to make correct assumptions and conclusions. By answering children's questions about written language with letter and words, parents and educators seem to be helping to increase the child's linguistic awareness.

Another point that follows both from this study and from the review of literature is that the child seems to need to be given many experiences using words, seeing words, hearing words and should be encouraged to write and copy letters and words. It seems that through these various experiences with written language strategies for dealing with language are developed.

Most important of all, it would seem, is to surround the child with language experiences so that written and

oral language become familiar and subsequently reading becomes a natural step in the child's quest to understand and deal with the language around him/her. Perhaps then, also, positive attitudes towards reading will emerge as significant factors in the child's growing linguistic awareness.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations based on this study must be made with the realization of the need for further research. Parents should be aware of the need to talk with their children more regularly about letters, words, word meanings and educational television programs. Parents should encourage their children to write and copy letters, words and stories. Parents should also be encouraged to read more to their children so that words become more meaningful to them.

Educators need to be aware that children arrive at school at various stages of linguistic awareness. The child's ability or inability to deal with written language may be a reflection of their level of understanding of written language. It would seem appropriate to give the child many opportunities to deal with written language in a variety of ways.

It would seem apparent from this study that the child's level of linguistic awareness is not related to the sex of the child. Therefore, it seems that educators and parents should provide all children with a variety of

experiences with written language.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1) The Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness and the Parent Questionnaire could be administered at the end of the kindergarten year to see if there was a change of levels of scores on the test or a change in the parents' perceptions of their child's beginning reading attempts.

2) The Parent Questionnaire could be administered to the child's teacher as well as the parents to investigate any relationship between the child's behaviours at home and at school.

3) The questions on the Parent Questionnaire could be asked of the child individually to investigate whether the parents' perception of the child's behaviours are accurate in terms of the child's own perception.

4) A longitudinal study could be undertaken to chart the changes in the levels of the child's linguistic awareness and what factors seem to contribute to these changes.

SUMMARY

This study attempted to determine if there was a significant relationship between the levels of scores obtained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness in Reading Readiness and each item of the sections from the specially designed Parent Questionnaire which dealt with the child's attitude toward reading, letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement. In addition, the scores from the Linguistic Awareness Test and the questionnaire responses were investigated according to the sex of the subject.

Thirty-five kindergarten students were given the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness and the test scores were grouped into three levels. Thirty-one parents were interviewed in their homes by using a specially designed parent questionnaire. The levels of scores attained on the Linguistic Awareness Test were then related to the parent responses.

It was found in this study that certain items on the questionnaire in the sections dealing with letter knowledge-related behaviours, reading-related behaviours, writing-related behaviours and parental support and involvement were significant factors on the levels of scores attained on the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness. These included pointing out and naming letters, copying letters, printing letters from memory, having words read,

asking about meanings of words, recognizing visually-cued words, asking how words should be spelled, copying discourse and discussing educational television programs. It was also found that the sex of the child was a significant factor on the parents responses to the items on the questionnaire dealing with visiting the library, talking about books and hearing story records at home.

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APPENDIX A

COVERING LETTER SENT TO PARENTS OF PROSPECTIVE SUBJECTS

Douglas Hill,
R.R. #3
COBBLE HILL, B.C.
V0R 1L0

Dear Parents:

As a primary teacher in the Cowichan School District and a graduate student at the University of Victoria, we are investigating kindergarten children's concepts of reading, to complete our Master of Arts degree. The Cowichan District School Board, the Superintendent of Schools, the school principals and classroom teachers involved have approved our proposed research.

We will be interviewing the kindergarten children at Bench and Alex Aitken Elementary Schools during the months of October, November and December as well as observing in the kindergarten classroom. We would also appreciate meeting with you.

As the young child's concept of reading is often very different from an adult's, it is valuable to understand children's ideas about reading and about how they learn to read. This awareness will then enable people working with young children to provide optimum pre-reading experiences.

We will be contacting you to arrange an interview and would encourage you to ask any questions about this project at that time.

If you do not wish your child to participate in this study, please return the bottom portion of this letter to the school.

Thank you for your assistance and we look forward to meeting you in the near future.

Sincerely,

(Mrs.) Virginia MacCarthy

(Ms.) Linda LaRoque

I do not wish my child to participate in this study.

_____
SIGNATURE

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE PAGES OF THE TEST OF LINGUISTIC AWARENESS IN READING READINESS AND TEST INSTRUCTIONS

AFTER THE TEST BOOKLETS HAVE BEEN DISTRIBUTED, FOR SAMPLE EXERCISE (a) SAY:

We are going to play a game. Please turn the page and put your finger on the pail.

POINT TO THE PAIL IN THE TEST BOOKLET. CHECK TO SEE THAT EACH CHILD HAS FINGER ON THE CORRECT PLACE.

Now listen carefully while I tell you how to play the game. Look at the big box with the picture in it. Which things can you ride in?

PAUSE.

Yes, you can ride in the two cars. Now to play the game you must draw a circle around each car.

DRAW CIRCLES ON THE TEST BOOKLET CLEARLY SHOWING THE CIRCLING OF ONE CAR AND THEN THE OTHER.

Now, in the same picture, circle the part that people can read. Circle the part that people can read.

PAUSE.

Yes, you should have circled the sign on the store.

DEMONSTRATE THAT YOU ARE CIRCLING THE BOX WHICH SAYS VICTOR'S HARDWARE. ENSURE THAT EACH CHILD HAS CIRCLED THE SIGN BOX.

FOR SAMPLE (b) SAY:

Now, put your finger on the ring.

MAKE SURE THAT ALL OF THE CHILDREN HAVE MOVED THEIR FINGER TO THE RING.

In the row of boxes, circle each thing that you can write with. Circle each thing that you can write with.

PAUSE.

Yes, you should have circled the pen in the first box because you can write with it, and you should have circled the pencil in the last box because you can write with it too. You should not have circled the baseball or the leaf because you do not write with them.

Now that you know how to play the game, let's look at some more pictures and stories. After this I will not help you play the game. You must do it all by yourself. Remember to look carefully at the pictures and listen to the story to find out which pictures to draw a circle around. Just try to do the best you can by yourself.

Now turn the page.

1. Put your finger on the balloon. Circle the part of the T.V. screen that people read. Circle only the part that people read.

2. Put your finger on the dog. Circle the part of the cereal box that people read. Circle the part that people read.

Now turn the page.

CHECK THAT EACH CHILD HAS TURNED THE PAGE.

3. Put your finger on the banana. Circle the part of the book that people read. Circle the part that people read.

4. Put your finger on the pail. Circle each thing in the large picture that tells you the address of someone's home. Circle each thing that tells you the address.

Now turn the page.

5. Put your finger on the duck. Circle each thing on the bus which someone can read. Circle each thing that someone can read.

6. Put your finger on the snake. Circle each thing in the kitchen that someone can read.

Now turn the page.

7. Put your finger on the fork. In the row of boxes circle each thing that someone can read. Circle each thing that someone can read.

ENSURE THAT THE STUDENTS ARE MARKING THE BOXES ACROSS THE PAGE.

8. Put your finger on the chair. In the row of boxes circle each thing that someone can read.

9. Put your finger on the clock. Circle each thing that someone can read.

10. Put your finger on the girl's face. Circle each person who is reading. Circle each person who is reading.

Now turn the page.

11. Put your finger on the bird. Circle each person who is reading.

12. Put your finger on the mouse. Circle each person who is reading.

13. Put your finger on the sock. Circle each person who is reading.

14. Now put your finger on the shoe. Circle each thing that someone can write with. Circle each thing that someone can write with.

Now turn the page.

15. Put your finger on the cup. Circle each thing that someone can write with.

16. Put your finger on the ring. Circle each thing that someone can write with.

17. Put your finger on the fish. Circle each person who is writing. Circle each person who is writing.

18. Put your finger on the candle. Circle each person who is writing.

Now turn the page.

19. Put your finger on the brush. Circle each person who is writing.

20. Now put your finger on the hand. Circle each person who is writing.

21. Put your finger on the broom. Circle each person who is writing.

22. Put your finger on the flag. Circle each person who is writing.

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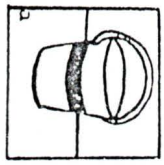

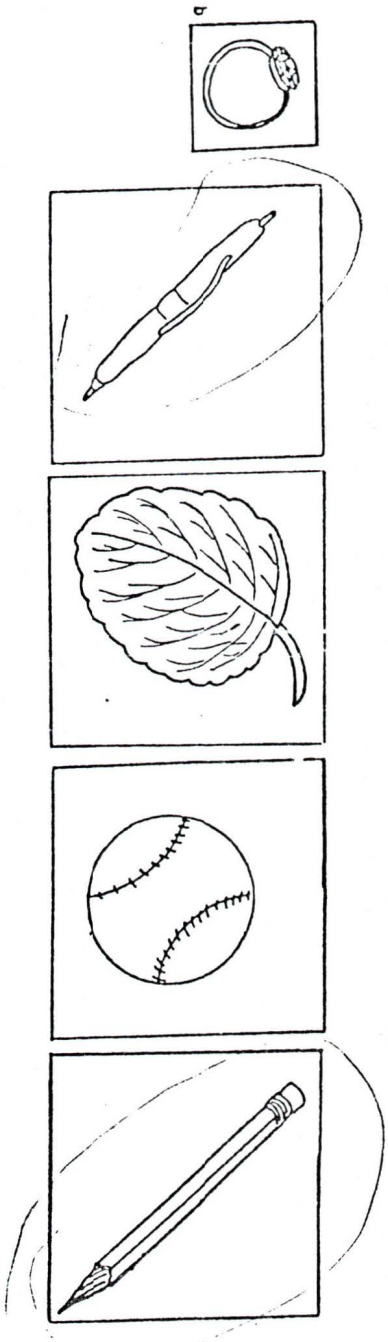

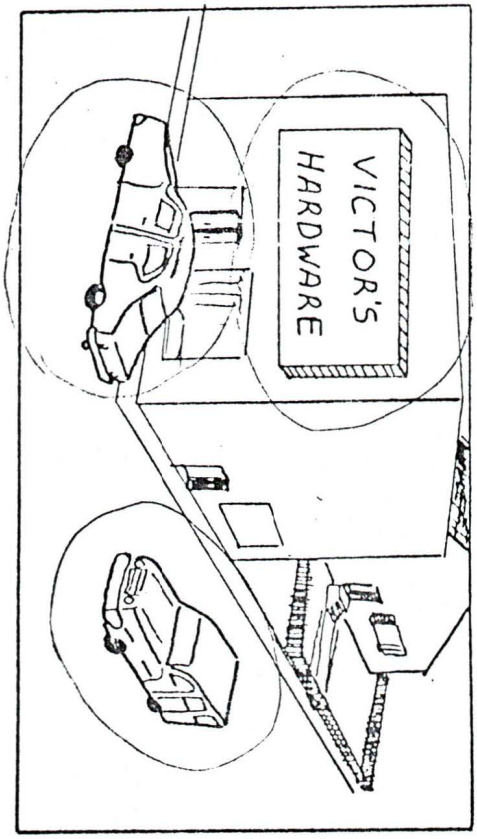

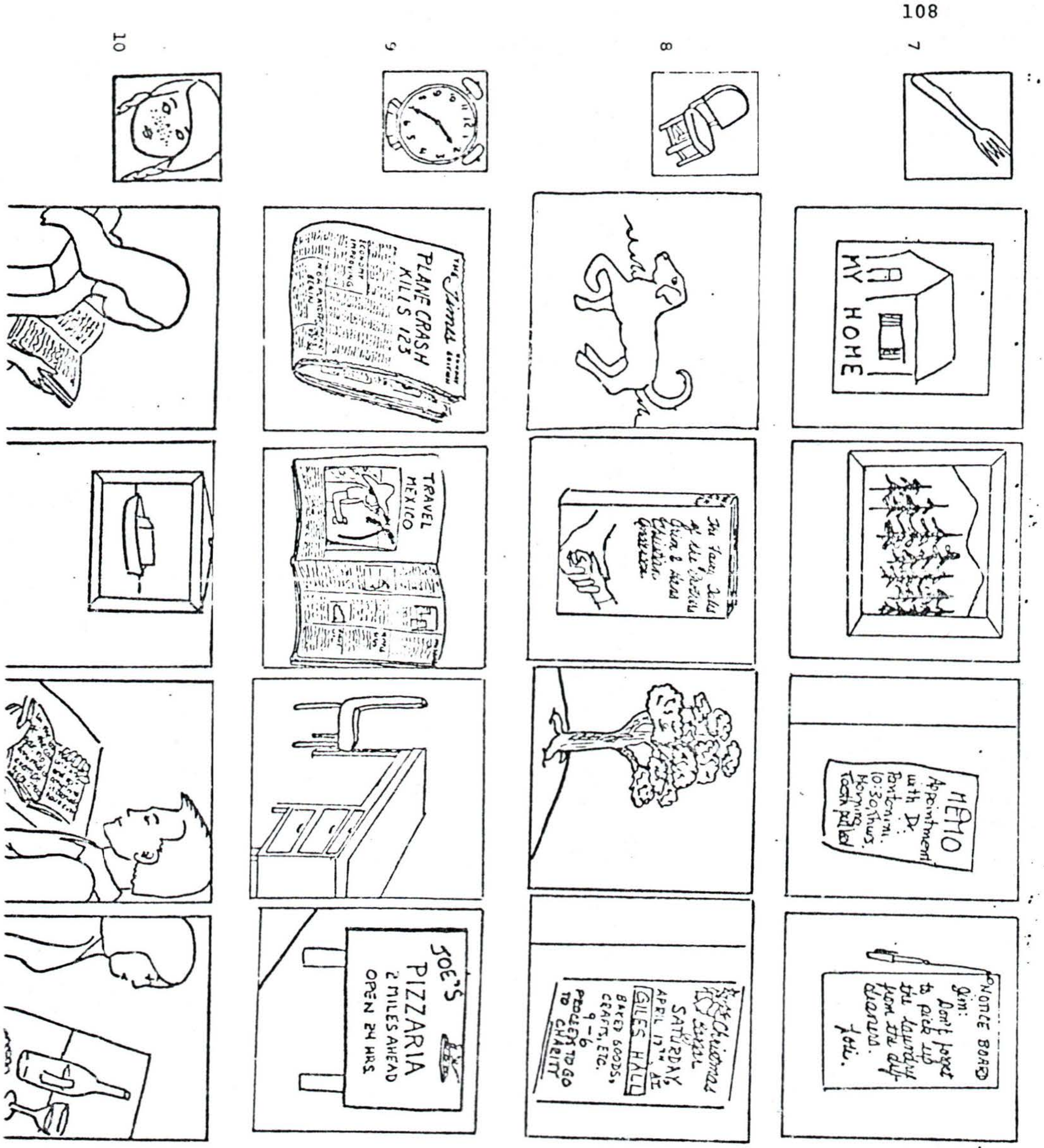
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MY HOME
MEMO
NOTICE BOARD
PLANE CRASH
KILLS 123
TRAVEL
MEXICO
JOE'S
PIZZARIA
2 MILES AHEAD
OPEN 24 HRS
SATURDAY
GILES HALL
BAKED GOODS,
CRAFTS, ETC.
9-6
PROCEEDS TO GO
TO CHARITY

SUBTEST B1

THERE ARE NO SAMPLE EXERCISES FOR THIS SUBTEST BECAUSE THE CHILDREN'S TASK IS VERY SIMILAR TO THAT OF SUBTEST A.

Now we are going to play another game like the one you played before. (IN SUBTEST A).

In this game there are rows of boxes too. To play the game listen carefully and circle the things you are told to.

Now turn the page.

CHECK THAT EACH CHILD HAS TURNED THE PAGE.

1. Put your finger on the banana. Some of the people in the row of boxes wanted to enjoy a story about spaceships. Circle each person who is enjoying a story about spaceships.

2. Put your finger on the table. Some of the people in the row of boxes wanted to enjoy a story. Circle each person who is enjoying a story.

3. Put your finger on the candle. Some of the people in the row of boxes found how to make a model ship. Circle each person who found how to make a model ship.

4. Put your finger on the comb. Circle each person who is learning how to build a birdhouse.

Now turn the page.

5. Put your finger on the pail. Circle each person who is finding what shows are on television.

6. Put your finger on the watch. Circle each person who is finding what time the bus goes.

7. Put your finger on the saw. Circle each person who is learning that there is a sale on.

8. Put your finger on the balloon. Circle each person who is finding what music to listen to.

Now turn the page.

9. Put your finger on the plane. Circle the children who asked people to pay money for the drinks.

10. Put your finger on the rabbit. Circle each person who got a message.

11. Put your finger on the lamp. Circle each person who is telling someone a story.

12. Put your finger on the tree. Circle each person who is telling their friend what they made for dinner.

Now turn the page.

13. Put your finger on the broom. Circle each person who is telling someone a story.

14. Put your finger on the elephant. Circle each person who is helping their brother remember what groceries to buy.

15. Put your finger on the duck. Circle each person who knew how to remember a recipe.

16. Put your finger on the flower. Circle each person who knew how to remember their favourite story.

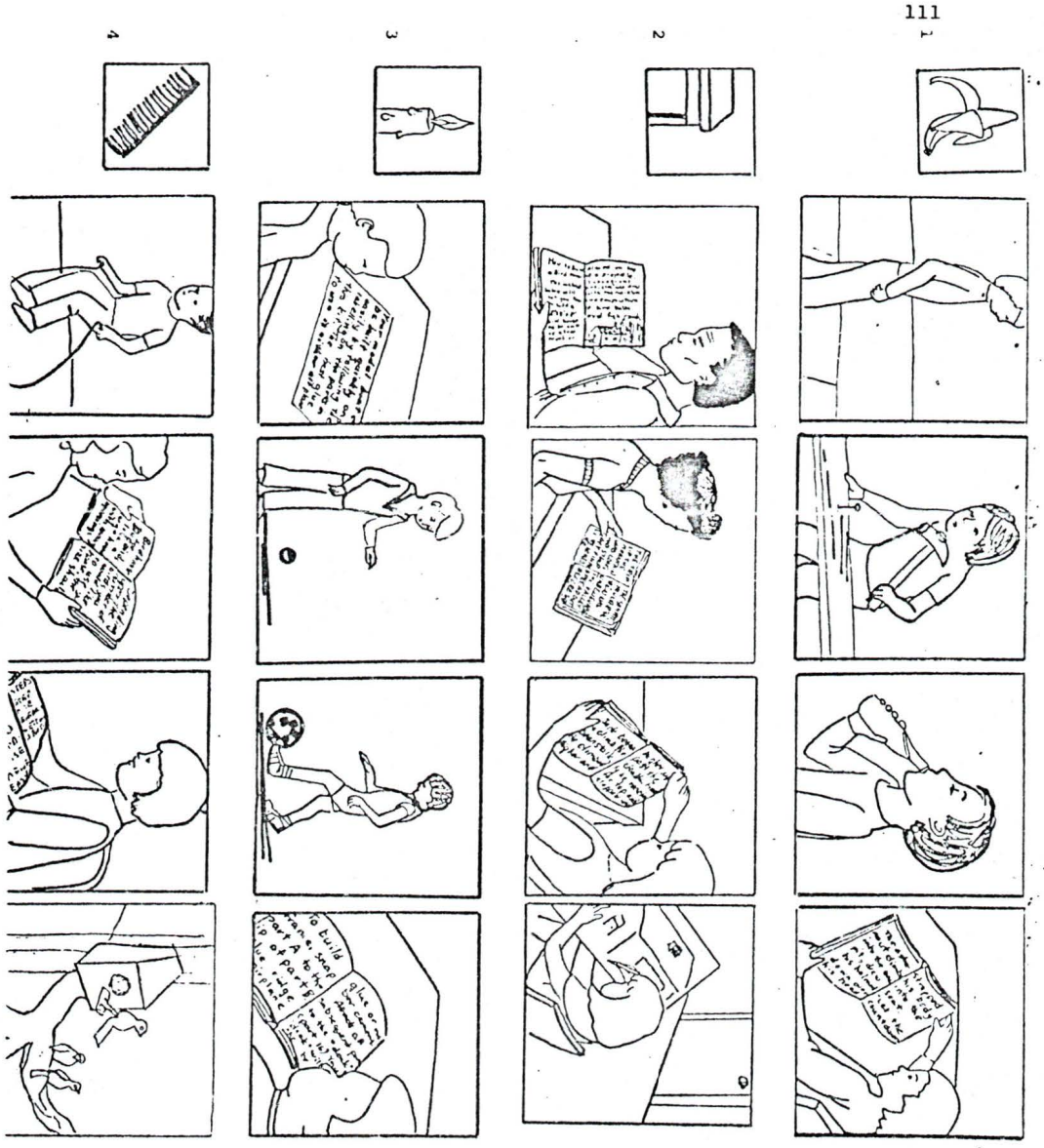
Now turn the page.

17. Put your finger on the leaf. Circle each person who is sending a message.

18. Put your finger on the banana. Circle each person who is giving directions.

19. Put your finger on the dog. Circle each person who is telling the class about going to the fair.

20. Put your finger on the snake. Circle each person who is leaving a message.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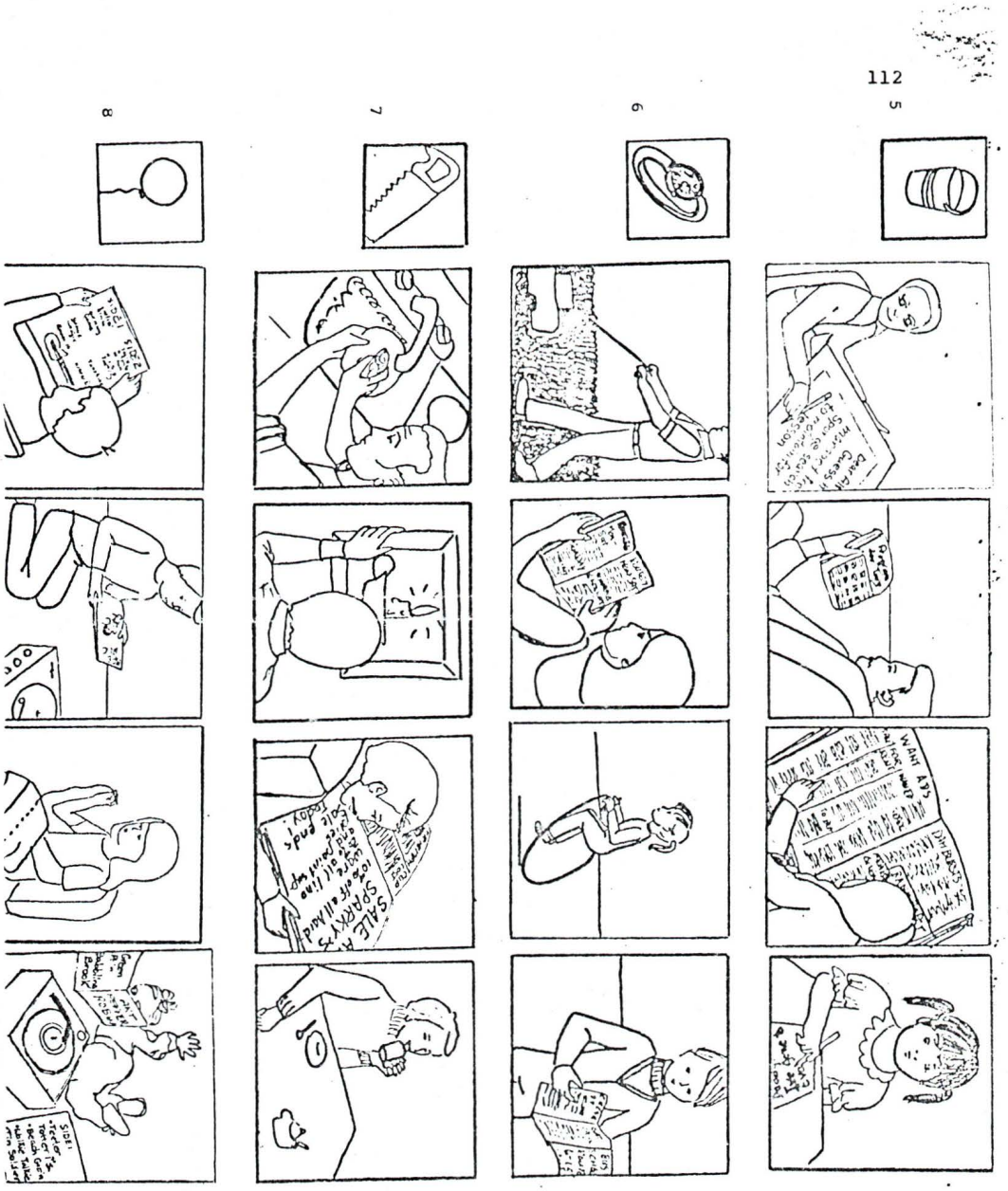
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AFTER THE TEST BOOKLETS HAVE BEEN DISTRIBUTED, FOR SAMPLE EXERCISE (a) SAY:

Now, we are going to play another game. Remember, you must look and listen carefully so that you will know how to play the game.

Open the booklet. Find the apple in the first box. Put your finger on the apple.

POINT TO THE APPLE IN THE TEST BOOKLET, THEN CHECK THAT EACH CHILD HAS THE CORRECT PLACE.

Now look at the things in the long box.

POINT TO THEM.

Here, here, here and here. I want you to find each thing that is an animal. Which is the animal?

PAUSE.

Yes, this one,

the rabbit.

To play the game you draw a circle around your choice of the things I tell you to look for. I told you to look for each thing that is an animal. So draw a circle around the rabbit because it is an animal.

DRAW CIRCLE AROUND THE RABBIT IN YOUR TEST BOOKLET. CHECK THAT EACH CHILD MADE ONLY THE ONE CIRCLE.

FOR SAMPLE (b) SAY:

Now, put your finger on the flag in the next small box.

POINT TO THE FLAG IN THE TEST BOOKLET. CHECK TO SEE THAT EVERY CHILD HAS FINGER ON THE RIGHT PLACE.

In the long box beside the flag find each thing that someone can eat. Then circle each thing that someone can eat.

PAUSE.

Did you find the things that someone could eat?

PAUSE.

Yes, someone could eat the banana, the apple and the strawberry. So you should have made a circle around the banana.

DRAW A CIRCLE AROUND THE BANANA IN THE TEST BOOKLET.

and around the apple.

DRAW A SECOND CIRCLE AROUND THE APPLE IN THE TEST BOOKLET.

and another circle around the strawberry.

DRAW A THIRD CIRCLE AROUND THE STRAWBERRY. CHECK THAT EACH CHILD HAS MADE THREE CIRCLES.

Now that you know how to play the game let's play it with some other things.

1. Put your finger on the tree. Look at the other things in the long box. Circle each thing that you think is a number. Circle each number.

2. Put your finger on the ring. Look at the things in the long box. Circle each thing that you think is a number.

3. Put your finger on the fork. Circle each number.

4. Put your finger on the shoe. In the long box circle each thing that is a letter. Circle each letter.

5. Put your finger on the bird. Circle each letter.

Now turn the page.

CHECK THAT EACH CHILD HAS TURNED THE PAGE.

6. Put your finger on the goat. Circle each letter.

7. Put your finger on the house. Circle each thing that is printing. Circle each piece of printing.

8. Put your finger on the saw. Circle each piece of printing.

9. Put your finger on the leaf. Circle each piece of printing.

10. Put your finger on the sock. Circle each thing that is writing. Circle each piece of writing.

11. Put your finger on the pencil. Circle each piece of writing.

12. Put your finger on the watch. Circle the top line of the story. Circle the top line of the story.

13. Put your finger on the mouse. Circle the bottom line of the story. Circle the bottom line of the story.

Now turn the page.

14. Put your finger on the pail. Circle each thing that is a word. Circle each word.

15. Put your finger on the brush. Circle each word.

16. Put your finger on the fish. Circle the first word in the box. Circle the first word.

17. Put your finger on the broom. Circle the first word in the box.

18. Put your finger on the rabbit. Circle the first two words in the box. Circle the first two words.

19. Put your finger on the flower. Circle the last word in the box. Circle the last word.

20. Put your finger on the snowman. Circle the last two words in the box. Circle the last two words.

21. Put your finger on the chair. Circle each thing that is a capital letter. Circle each capital letter.

Now turn the page.

22. Put your finger on the hand. Circle each capital letter.

23. Put your finger on the banana. Circle each thing that is a period. Circle each period.

24. Put your finger on the cup. Circle each period.

25. Put your finger on the candle. Circle each thing that is a question mark. Circle each question mark.

26. Put your finger on the cat. Circle the first letter in each word. Circle the first letter in each word.

27. Put your finger on the tricycle. Circle the last letter in each word. Circle the last letter in each word.

28. Put your finger on the radio. Circle each thing that is a sentence. Circle each sentence.

29. Put your finger on the bear. Circle each thing that is someone's name. Circle each name of someone.

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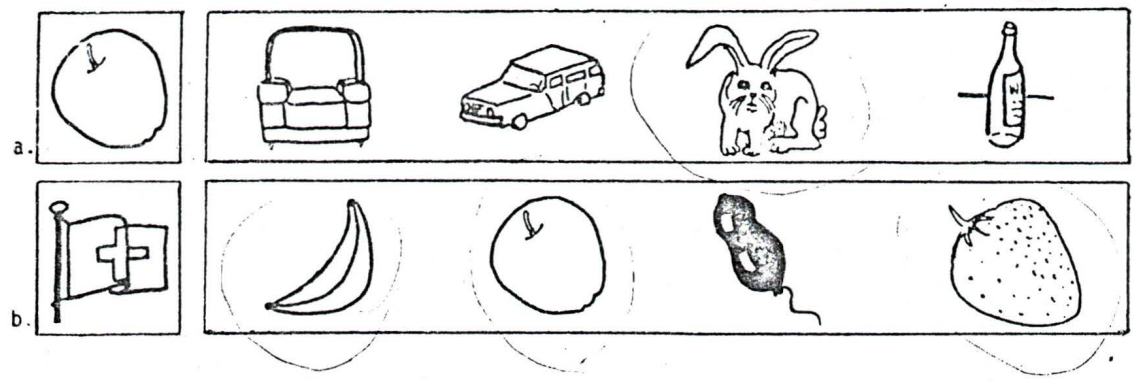
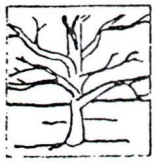


1		△	5	□	⬡
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14		m ○○○○○ this 33
15		F ELEPHANT man b
16		Can you read?
17		She went to town.
18		My watch is broken.
19		Take a seat.
20		Look at all the houses.
21		Victoria, Canada.

APPENDIX C

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Child's Name _____ Sex ____
Birthdate _____ Number of Older Siblings _____
Number of Younger Siblings _____ Date _____

Unless otherwise specified, the alternatives for each question are seldom (S), occasionally (O), or frequently (F).

Part 1 - Attitude toward reading	S	O	F
Does your child			
1. seem happy when reading or being read to?	_	_	_
2. ask to read to others or be read to?	_	_	_
3. read rather than engage in other activities when given the choice?	_	_	_
4. talk about the book he/she has read?	_	_	_
5. ask to visit the library?	_	_	_
6. take out books from the library?	_	_	_
7. ask to have favorite books reread?	_	_	_

comments:

Part 2 - Letter knowledge-related behaviors

When playing with reading and writing materials, does your child

8. recite the alphabet without error?	_	_	_
9. ask to have letters identified?	_	_	_
10. point out and name letters?	_	_	_
- if so, how many can he/she correctly recognize?			
Less than 5 ____ about 10 ____ more than 20 ____			

11. try to copy letters? _ _ _
12. try to print letters from memory? _ _ _
    - if so, how many can he/she correctly print?
    Less than 5 ____ about 10 ____ more than 20 ____
13. print in
    upper case only __ lower only __ both cases __
14. ask to have letter sounds identified? _ _ _
15. identify letter sounds? _ _ _
    - if so, how many can he/she correctly identify?
    Less than 5 ____ about 10 ____ more than 20 ____

comments:

Part 3 - Reading-related behaviours

When playing with reading materials, does your child

16. start at the front of the book? _ _ _
17. focus on the print rather than the picture for the message? _ _ _
18. follow the directional rules of reading? _ _ _
    (start on the left page; start at the top left of the page; follow the print from left to right; return sweep to the left)
19. ask to have printed words read to him/her? _ _ _
20. ask about the meanings of words: _ _ _
21. recognize visually-cued words? _ _ _
22. recognize graphically-cued words (eg, knows where word is on the page; recognizes initial letter) _ _ _
23. recognizes words out of context (eg, attempts letter-sound correspondences) _ _ _
24. seem to:

    -- make up a story inspired by the pictures?

-- recite the story from memory, using the pictures as cues?

-- recite the story from memory, using graphic cues (eg, points to the word while saying it; identifies some words in context)

-- actually reads most of the words (eg. tries to make letter-sound correspondences)

comments:

Part 4 - Writing-relating behaviours

When playing with writing materials, does your child

25. ask how a word should be spelled? _ _ _
26. copy words (eg, name; picture captions)? _ _ _
27. print words (eg, name; picture captions) from memory? _ _ _
28. copy discourse (eg, stories, calendars, cards)? _ _ _
29. print longer discourse from memory? _ _ _
30. Which of the following descriptions most closely characterizes your child's spelling attempts?

-- string of letters or approximations of letters, often interspersed with numerals, written from left to right to resemble the arrangement of letters in real words

eg: 2PM M BPR7M

-- spellings are greatly abbreviated, often with only beginning and/or final sounds represented

eg: SB TP

-- all the sounds are represented, but spellings do not look like real words

eg: CHRP PRD

-- closely resembles standard spellings

eg: EIGHTEEY DRAGUN

-- correct spellings

comments:

Part 5 - Parental support and involvement

31. How often is your child read to at home per week? _ _ _

(eg, less than 1/2 hour, about 1 hour, more than 2 hours)

32. How often do you and your child discuss what he/she has read? _ _ _

33. How often does your child visit the public library? _ _ _

(eg, irregularly, once or twice a month, weekly)

34. Does your child hear story records at home? _ _ _

35. When a book is bought or borrowed for the child, who chooses it?

child ____ parents ____ both together ____

36. How much T.V. does your child watch per day? (eg, less than 1/2 hour, about 1 hour, more 2 hours) _ _ _

37. Does your child watch educational television programs? _ _ _

38. Do you and your child discuss them? _ _ _

39. How often does your child go on outings with you per week? _ _ _

(eg, trips to special places, shopping, visiting)?
(eg, once or twice, about 4, more than 6)

40. Does your child own any alphabet books?

no ____ one ____ several ____

41. Is anyone teaching your child some reading skills?

no ____ older sibling ____ you/other adult ____

APPENDIX D

DATA TABLES FOR CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS WHICH WERE NOT SIGNIFICANT AT THE $P < .05$ LEVEL

APPENDIX D

The following data tables show the Chi-square analysis for all items which did not have significance at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE A

Chi-square analysis of Item #1 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	11	8	28
2	1	1	1	3
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .05$*

*The χ^2 value of .05 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE B

Chi-square analysis of Item #2 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	8	12	6	26
2	2	0	3	5
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 4.39$*

*The χ^2 value of 4.39 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE C

Chi-square analysis of Item #3 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	6	3	4	13
2	4	9	5	18
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 2.78$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.78 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE D

Chi-square analysis of Item #4 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	8	4	21
2	1	4	5	10
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 4.51^*$

*The χ^2 value of 4.51 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE E

Chi-square analysis of Item #6 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	8	6	23
2	1	4	3	8
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 1.93^*$

*The χ^2 value of 1.93 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE F

Chi-square analysis of Item #7 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	8	9	3	20
2	2	3	6	11
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 5.45^*$

*The χ^2 value of 5.45 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE G

Chi-square analysis of Item #8 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	7	6	4	17
2	3	6	5	14
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 1.43^*$

*The χ^2 value of 1.43 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE H

Chi-square analysis of Item #9 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	8	8	4	20
2	2	4	5	11
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 2.66$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.66 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE I

Chi-square analysis of Item #13 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	5	7	5	17
2	5	5	4	14
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .16$*

*The χ^2 value of .16 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE J

Chi-square analysis of Item #14 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	5	4	3	12
2	5	7	6	18
Total	10	11	9	30

$\chi^2 = .64$*

*The χ^2 value of .64 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE K

Chi-square analysis of Item #15 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	2	1	0	3
2	8	11	9	28
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 2.21$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.21 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE L

Chi-square analysis of Item #16 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	12	7	28
2	1	0	2	3
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 2.91$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.91 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE M

Chi-square analysis of Item #17 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	3	3	1	7
2	7	9	8	24
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 1.03$*

*The χ^2 value of 1.03 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE N

Chi-square analysis of Item #18 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	7	5	21
2	1	5	4	10
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 3.36$*

*The χ^2 value of 3.36 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE O

Chi-square analysis of Item #22 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	3	5	3	11
2	7	7	6	20
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .35$*

*The χ^2 value of .35 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE P

Chi-square analysis of Item #23 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	2	2	1	5
2	8	10	8	26
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .28$*

*The χ^2 value of .28 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE Q

Chi-square analysis of Item #24 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	2	0	1	3
2	8	12	8	28
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 2.53$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.53 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE R

Chi-square analysis of Item #26 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	9	5	23
2	1	3	4	8
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 2.94$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.94 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE S

Chi-square analysis of Item #27 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	6	4	2	12
2	4	8	7	19
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 3.09$*

*The χ^2 value of 3.09 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE T

Chi-square analysis of Item #29 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	3	1	0	4
2	7	11	9	27
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 4.16$*

*The χ^2 value of 4.16 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE U

Chi-square analysis of Item #30 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	3	3	0	6
2	7	9	8	24
Total	10	12	8	30

$\chi^2 = 2.81$*

*The χ^2 value of 2.81 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE V

Chi-square analysis of Item #31 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	8	9	6	23
2	2	3	3	8
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .45$*

*The χ^2 value of .45 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE W

Chi-square analysis of Item #32 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	7	8	4	19
2	3	4	5	12
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 1.54$*

*The χ^2 value of 1.54 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE X

Chi-square analysis of Item #33 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	4	2	2	8
2	6	10	7	23
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = 1.64$*

*The χ^2 value of 1.64 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE Y

Chi-square analysis of Item #34 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	7	7	4	18
2	3	4	4	11
Total	10	11	8	29

$\chi^2 = .77$*

*The χ^2 value of .77 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE Z

Chi-square analysis of Item #35 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	3	4	4	11
2	7	7	4	18
Total	10	11	8	29

$\chi^2 = .77$*

*The χ^2 value of .77 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE AA

Chi-square analysis of Item #36 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	9	10	7	26
2	1	2	2	5
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .53$*

*The χ^2 value of .53 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE BB

Chi-square analysis of Item #37 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	2	3	2	7
2	8	9	7	24
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .08$*

*The χ^2 value of .08 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE CC

Chi-square analysis of Item #38 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	7	8	6	21
2	3	4	3	10
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .03$*

*The χ^2 value of .03 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE DD

Chi-square analysis of Item #40 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	5	5	3	13
2	5	7	6	18
Total	10	12	9	31

$\chi^2 = .54$*

*The χ^2 value of .54 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

TABLE EE

Chi-square analysis of Item #41 on the Parent Questionnaire and the Levels of Scores for the Test of Linguistic Awareness for Reading Readiness

	Linguistic Awareness Level			
Response	1	2	3	Total
1	6	10	5	21
2	3	2	4	9
Total	9	12	9	30

$\chi^2 = 1.96$*

*The χ^2 value of 1.96 is not significant at the $P < .05$ level.

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