Storybook Reading and the Speech Language Pathologist: A Fundamental Partnership for Speech and Language Intervention

Angela Crume
Western Kentucky University

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.wku.edu/stu_hon_theses

Part of the Health Communication Commons

Recommended Citation
http://digitalcommons.wku.edu/stu_hon_theses/15
STORYBOOK READING AND SPEECH-LANGUAGE PATHOLOGISTS:  
A FUNDAMENTAL PARTNERSHIP FOR SPEECH AND LANGUAGE INTERVENTION

A Senior Honors Thesis  
Presented to  
the University Honors Program  
WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY  
Bowling Green, Kentucky

Angela Renea Crume

Spring 1998

APPROVED BY

[Signatures]

[Date]
Because of the relationship between speech and language delays and reading difficulties, speech-language pathologists should be encouraged to include elements of reading in their therapy with preschoolers. By using such activities, speech-language pathologists should observe an increase in the language and speech abilities of their clients, regardless of the children's present abilities. Reading can be included in the context of therapy in various ways, but the most efficient way is to design thematic units with correlated prereading and postreading activities.
# Table of Contents

Introduction 1

Overview of the Language System 3

The Relationship Between Language and Reading 8

The Speech-Language Pathologist's Role in Reading Development 10

Rationales for Using Reading During Speech-Language Therapy 11

- The Role of Emergent Literacy 13
- The Consequences of Preschool Language Delays 17
- The Effect of Reading Upon Future Success 17
- The Effect of Reading Upon Other Speech Interventions 19

Strategies for Reading During Therapy 24

- Scaffolding Techniques 26
- A Dialogic Reading Approach 28
- Text Repetition 30
- Thematic Units 30

Methods for Choosing and Reading a Storybook to Preschoolers 33

Conclusion 35

Bibliography 37

Appendix A--Book-choosing Criteria A-1

Appendix B--50 Book Summaries & Therapy Applications B-1
Congratulations!
Today is your day.
You're off to Great Places!
You're off on your way!

Dr. Seuss, one of the most famous children's authors of all time, introduced his book *Oh, the Places You'll Go!* with the above four lines of exciting thoughts (1990). Many times, this book is read at graduation services for high school and college students, inspiring them to embrace their futures. While reading this book, one may envision another group of individuals: children. From the time they are born, children are constantly learning about their environment and the world surrounding them, assuming they receive ample stimulation. Occasionally, however, various children may experience developmental delays. Such learning inhibitors include physical ailments, environmental deprivation, or intellectual difficulties. When these delays are present, children deserve the opportunity to receive the appropriate intervention, habilitation, or rehabilitation in order that their potential may be achieved.

One type of intervention that children may receive involves speech and language. Though they do not speak, even newborns may benefit from the services of a speech-language pathologist. These specific interventions attempt to correct such things as swallowing difficulties and in turn aid speech production. Among the preschool population, speech and language delays are not uncommon. A speech-language pathologist may conduct therapy with preschoolers in a preschool environment, through Head Start, or perhaps in children's own homes through a home health agency. During this time in their lives, preschool children are developing
Overview of the Language System

When thinking of language, several words probably come to mind: words, grammar, sounds, and conversation. The reason for the numerous language descriptors is that language is a complex system encompassing many components. In addition to having many parts, language subsists as an "...integrated system that is componentially complex, not the sum of fragmented component parts" (Norris & Damico, 1990).

Before discussing the different subsystems of language, one must make a distinction between language, communication, and speech. Simply defined, communication is "any means by which an individual relates experiences, ideas, knowledge, and feelings to another..." (Nicolosi, Harryman, & Krescheck, 1989). Sign language, verbal speech, gestures, communication boards, and orthography can all be utilized when one needs and desires to communicate. Furthermore, language is a socially-shared code of arbitrary symbols that is rule-governed and is used to communicate (Laughton & Hasenstab, 1986). Speech is a narrower term, meaning a "medium of oral communication that employs a linguistic code (language)..." (Nicolosi et al.).

Language can be analyzed in order to understand its use and manifestations. A popular method of categorizing and explaining language was proposed by Bloom and LaHey. In their theory, language is described as being a "...complex system involving three separate but highly interdependent knowledge bases" (Fey, 1986). These knowledge bases are language content, form, and use.

Essentially, the content and meaning of language comprises the area of semantics. According to Laughton and Hasenstab, authors on the topic of language acquisition,
semantics includes "...all levels of meaning from word meaning to the meaning of life" (1986). The development of one's semantic knowledge also involves the generation of a lexicon or vocabulary (Laughton & Hasenstab). Semantics can be divided into two types of knowledge: referential and relational. Referential knowledge is the ability to understand and code objects, places, and events, whereas understanding the relationships between the objects and the events is the concern of relational knowledge (Fey, 1986).

Involving three major areas of language, form is slightly more elaborate. To clarify the content of language, in order to be understood, one must use the appropriate sounds in the correct word order with the correct word beginnings and endings (Owens, 1996). The technical names for the aforementioned processes are phonology, syntax, and morphology, respectively. As mentioned, phonology is the "...aspect of language concerned with the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech sounds and the shape of the syllables" (Owens). Syntax involves the structure and order that governs how language is organized, or essentially, the word order in a sentence (Fey, 1986). The units of language that convey meaning are labelled morphemes; therefore, morphology involves the rules for plurality, verb tending, and possession (Laughton & Hasenstab, 1986).

The final knowledge base of language concerns usage or pragmatics. Pragmatics is concerned with the "...way language is used to communicate rather than with the way language is structured" (Owen, 1986). According to Fey, pragmatics involves the social use of language (1986). Just as content and form may be segmented, use may be broken down into components that are regulated by the act of discourse. The definition "...format for language use in context" describes discourse, which may be divided into conversation and narration (Laughton & Hasenstab, 1986). Conversation involves at least a dyad in which both parties alternate
between the roles of speaker and listener (Owens, 1995). Basically, the act of narrating involves giving a monologue; it is a "...self-initiated, self-controlled form of discourse" (Owens, 1995).

Although not categorized as content, form, or use, some linguists also include metalinguistics as a component of language. Being able to think about and reflect on language as an independent entity affects one's competency for communicating effectively (Laughton & Hasenstab, 1986). Because metalinguistics involves a "...temporary shift in attention from what is being said to the language used to say it," speakers and listeners are able to correct improper language practices (Nicolosi et al., 1989).

From analyzing the content, form, and use of language, it is apparent that language is fully integrated. Alas, "...all of the components of language...are simultaneously present and interacting in any instance of language use" (Norris & Damico, 1990). Taken from another perspective, the interactivity of language can be viewed in light of language development. Adler summarizes it as follows: cognitive and semantic development provide the basis from which sentence structure, grammar, and the sound or phonological system develop (1986). Words and sentences are for the purpose of communicating thoughts and needs to others (1986). Furthermore, when new language skills are acquired, the language system has changed and will be changed further (Hoffman, 1997).

The view of language organization and development as being interactive and integrated is a popular viewpoint. The idea that content, form, and use organize the language constituents has guided language interventionists in the past two or three decades. However, there are other theories of language development that exist, and these will be briefly summarized.

One accepted tenet of language development describes language as being primarily learned "...through the auditory
mode of sensory reception," and the information is transformed by the brain in order to be utilized (Adler, 1986). How the brain transforms this information is at the center of many linguists' debates. Several factors are present during this time of development, and they must be considered when proposing theories.

The oldest language theory is based on the behaviorist learning theory. In this model, language is learned through modeling, imitation, practice, and selective reinforcement (Owens, 1996). In essence, according to this theory, every language response is initiated by a stimulus and then followed by a reinforcer (Fey, 1986). Another proposed theory is the social learning theory, which surmises that "...learning does not depend on performance...[but] is acquired through observation of modeled events" (Fey). Finally, the sociolinguistic theory proposes that one learns language when he or she expresses intentions and these are established further and expanded by caregivers (Owens, 1996).

As with most topics, a combination of theories best describes the complexity of language and its development. Modeling must take place in order for children to see language in action, but children also must have a chance to experiment with language, so that their needs and intentions can be fulfilled. Brown, a prominent linguist, summarizes language development as a "...'process of cognitive socialization'[whereby] the child's own meanings and uses become integrated with those of her environment through interaction" (Owens, 1996). In this paper, an interactionist view is favored: language should be treated as a holistic unit, and intervention should be functional, not contrived.

Before discussing the role of language in the reading process, one must explore the effects of altering the existing language system. Since language is interactive and integrated, "[t]he individual components or processes cannot change without affecting and being affected by other components or processes" (Norris & Damico, 1990). Therefore,
when planning therapy, the speech-language interventionist must consider children's needs as related to the levels of oral language knowledge (Hoffman, 1997). Often, an interventionist only targets one area of language, which is why "...some remedial approaches are missing the mark, because language abilities are too often compartmentalized into simplistic...groupings" (Taylor, 1983).

Often it is difficult to address language deficiencies in the context of holistic intervention. Examining the concept of whole-to-part learning may aid in this area. Whole-to-part learning "...is facilitated by redundancy of the wholes and the parts" (Hoffman, Norris, & Monjure, 1996). When information is presented as a whole, children are supplied with a stable context so they can learn contextualized, conceptual, and related language skills (Hoffman et al.). For example, as this paper asserts, "...language intervention that targets larger units, such as narratives, will positively affect the development of smaller units..." (Hoffman et al.). Again, if intervention focuses on a high level of language form or organization, the language levels to that point should be improved (Hoffman, 1997).
The Relationship Between Language and Reading

Because language is an integrated system, it is clearly connected to literacy, which is composed of language elements. In *Family Literacy: Young Children Learning to Read and Write*, Denny Taylor quotes Southgate's definition of literacy as being "...the mastery of our native language in all its aspects, as a means of communication" (1983). When one learns to read, the skills used are "...built upon those processes that subserve spoken language comprehension and...reading and oral language share a common knowledge base or lexicon" (Masland & Masland, 1988). Not only are reading and speaking correlated, but the ability to write functionally is also connected to these areas (Lancy, 1994).

Because of the connection between the areas, learning to read is simply an expansion of the development of verbal language (Goldsworth, 1996). Oral language development does not cease once one learns to read, though; the skills continue to advance together. "...[C]hildren are gaining information about literacy at the same time that they are adding to their spoken language knowledge base" (Watkins, 1996).

Because of this close relationship between speech and reading, problems in both oral language and reading often coexist (Masland & Masland, 1988). Most reading problems stem from language processing difficulties. According to Ingvar Lundberg, "[e]arly language development is one of the strongest predictors of later reading acquisition" (Masland & Masland). As a result, several preschoolers with language delays often encounter reading, writing, and spelling
hardships once they enter elementary school and the curricular demands increase (Goldsworth, 1996).

When comparing reading and spoken language, one major difference arises. While reading, the thoughts and statements are not connected with the reader's present time or place. In other words, the "...utterances are isolated from their natural contexts" (Waterhouse, Fischer, Ryan, 1988). Reading is a decontextualized event, unlike conversation.
The Speech-Language Pathologist's Role in Reading Development

Because spoken and written language are now considered completely correlated, not as "...separate skills or parallel processes in different modalities" (Goldsworth, 1996), the speech-language pathologist has a fundamental responsibility to address reading development in his or her intervention methods. A study by Koppenhaver, Coleman, and Yoder proposed that a speech-language specialist can enhance the oral communication skills of preschoolers by focusing on emergent literacy and written language (Goldsworth).

A speech-language pathologist has received training in language development, phonetics, and language disorders, placing her in a prominent position to aid in advancing or remediating reading skills. Clinical experience, as well, qualifies the "...speech-language specialist as a member of the educational team treating language-based reading disabilities" (Goldsworth, 1996).
Rationales for Using Reading During Speech-Language Therapy

In 1991, Alexander provided therapy to preschool children who were delayed in language and speech using "...repeated storybook reading with topically related follow-up activities" (Hoffman, 1997). As justification for his ideas on storybook reading during phonological intervention, Hoffman summarizes Alexander's study (1997). The intervention lasted for six weeks, and the children attended therapy for two-hour sessions three times per week. During each therapy session, a review of previously covered narratives was conducted. In addition to reading the stories, the interventionists provided art and drama activities and thematic snacks that were each contextually linked to the stories read. The children underwent testing before and after the program to analyze their performance. The group average for scores on the Test of Early Language Development, Goldman-Fristoe Test of Articulation, and Concepts of Print improved after the completion of the storybook reading intervention. Although these children received intensive intervention, the conclusion can still be made that storybook reading, since it is the use of language in a holistic manner, should aid in improving targeted language and speech forms (Hoffman, 1997).

A more lengthy study was performed in 1975 by Lee et al. (Fey, 1986). As recounted by Mark Fey in Language Intervention with Young Children, Lee and his coworkers utilized a technique similar to that used by Alexander: a storybook was read several times, and afterwards, several activities were completed that were related. All the children involved had been identified as having a specific
language impairment. These preschoolers attended approximately ninety-six sessions that were dispersed over a time period of eight months. At the end of the intervention period, the children exhibited language development equivalent to a longer period of time than what the intervention lasted. For example, even though the therapy period was for eight months, the children showed an increase in language ability equivalent to almost eleven months (Fey, 1986).

Obviously, not every study conducted proclaims such positive results for the effect of storybook reading on language and speech intervention. However, the results of the aforementioned studies do give credibility to the premise of using storybook narratives in therapy.

Although the United States is a literate society, not every citizen values the reading experience. The most logical reason to provide book-reading opportunities to preschoolers enrolled in speech and language therapy is that they may not receive that stimulation and activity anywhere else in their lives. According to Watkins, in his article about using natural literacy in preschool intervention, "...recent reports [reveal] that children with language and/or developmental disabilities may receive less exposure to print and experience fewer opportunities to interact with adults in literacy-related activities" (1996).

Many factors arise that may cause this lack of experience and exposure to books. One circumstance may involve children's physical or emotional state. Perhaps, children are too ill or not coherent enough to listen to a story. This does not mean that stories should not be read, but often that is exactly what occurs.

Although not always the case, low-income children are affected by their socioeconomic status when it comes to this area of interaction. It has been estimated that a middle-class child enters the first grade having been read to an average of 1000 to 1700 hours, whereas a child from a low-
income family only averages twenty-five hours (Whitehurst, Arnold, Epstein, Angell, Smith, & Fischel, 1994a). Besides the amount of interaction, the availability of books also differs between children. Public-aid parents of preschoolers have no alphabet books in their homes at a rate of forty-seven percent, whereas only three percent of professional parents report no books in the home (Whitehurst et al., 1994a). Feitelson and Goldstein found that "[s]ixty percent of the kindergartners in neighborhoods in which children did poorly in school did not own a single book; in neighborhoods characterized by good school performance, kindergartners owned an average of fifty-four books each" (Whitehurst et al., 1994). Lancy extends these statistics in order to not stereotype, saying, "[c]ommunities where literacy is limited and where parents do not introduce children to books do tend to be poor, but are not associated with any particular ethnic group, nor are they exclusively comprised of single-parent households" (1994).

The Role of Emergent Literacy

Since speaking, reading, and writing, share the same knowledge base, reading specialists, speech-language pathologists, and educators must determine how and when each develops, in order to be able to train students effectively. A common topic in recent years has been emergent literacy and its relevance to reading acquisition. The concept of emergent literacy regards literacy and reading acquisition as a gradual process in which children or the learners are completely engaged, somewhat independently (Campbell, 1995). Even though children are active participants in this process, the conditions must be suitable for this emergence of literacy; thus, meaningful print and interactions with adults and books must be present in children's environment (Campbell).
The development of literacy is thought to start prior to formal reading instruction. Based on the concept of emergent literacy, the attainment of literacy knowledge may begin "...shortly after birth--even earlier if babies are read to in the womb" (Lancy, 1994). During the preschool developmental years, children are obtaining a "...wide range of knowledge and skills that correlate with later literacy development and academic success, including language, knowledge about print and its functions, phonemic awareness, and understanding about oral and written language and their distinctions (Arnold, Lonigan, Whitehurst, & Epstein, 1994). In addition to this knowledge, preschoolers also are acquiring literacy-related oral language skills (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). It is imperative that preschoolers and toddlers be introduced to books during these impressionable years so that their literacy skills will emerge in a timely manner (Taylor, 1983).

Two basic skills underlie the overall emergence of literacy: awareness of how to use books and phonemic awareness. The first skill allows children to conceptualize a book. "In the earliest stages very young children may learn what a book is and that it is handled differently than other objects" (Miller, 1996). Next, children use books as a joint reference with adults to label objects and events (Miller). Ideally, children will eventually begin to recognize and point out familiar letters in a book, signaling the emergence of phonemic awareness (Miller).

Phonemic awareness, or phonological awareness, is a fundamental skill one needs in order to learn to read. The smallest unit of sound in a language constitutes a phoneme; and, phonemes are closely related to the symbols of language, otherwise known as graphemes or letters (Campbell, 1995). The ability to discriminate between phonemes on an auditory basis is present during the first four days after birth; and, adult and infant perceptions of different sounds are similar (Owens, 1996). Furthermore, according to Russian psychologist
Chutovsky, children begin to "...respond to the phonological features of words from the time they begin to speak" (Masland & Masland, 1988).

Discriminating between sounds auditorily and then connecting this knowledge to written words is at times difficult for preschoolers (Goldsworth, 1996). This skill is considered a metalinguistic skill, meaning that children must be able to think about and analyze the language they use and hear (Goldsworth). Alphabet and counting books, which are expository in nature, are considered "...excellent vehicles for teaching metalanguage because they facilitate active participation by both child and adult in the reading process" (Lancy, 1994). The ability to distinguish print from non-print and to recognize printed symbols usually emerges between the ages of one and a half to two years (Wallach & Miller, 1988). Between the ages of two to six years, children should be able to ascertain word boundaries in spoken and written sentences, and they can experiment with the sounds of a language (Wallach & Miller, 1988).

Understanding that words in a language can be broken down into individual sounds aids children when they is decoding new and unfamiliar words orally or graphically (Miller, 1996). Understanding that books are composed of sentences, and sentences are made of words, and furthermore, that words are formed from individual sounds can be brought about by adults reading to children. Phonemic awareness and understanding then affect personal reading ability, and therefore are "...principal predictor[s] of subsequent reading achievement" (Masland & Masland, 1988).

Phonemic awareness should not be confused with phonics, which is "...learning spelling-to-sound correspondences and sounding out" (Goldsworth, 1996). Using phonics training is a technique used in several elementary education institutions to teach children how to read. Moreover, phonemic awareness training can be implemented in preschool programs which will
support the development of sentence, word, and sound awareness (Goldsworth).

Besides being able to separate words into sounds, children must be aware of rhyming, which is a functional element of phonemic awareness (Watkins, 1996). Rhyming is considered a natural part of language development since many children enjoy and participate in this sound and word play (Masland & Masland, 1988). Rhyming "...play[s] an important role in developing children's awareness of the sounds which make up words" (Miller, 1996). The rhyme focuses attention on word structure and alliteration, raising phonemic awareness, as well (Goldsworth, 1996). In addition, by reading nursery rhymes to children, adults help them develop an awareness of the cadence of language. The cadence of language constitutes the rhythm, which "...divides words differently than the natural flow of oral language and leads to the physical placement of phoneme strings" (Goldsworth).

Just as phonemic awareness can affect reading acquisition, so can rhyming ability. As children enter school, there is a possible link between learning problems and the children's deficiencies in rhyming skill (Masland & Masland, 1988). There are three reasons for this possible causation that authors Masland and Masland offer in their book Preschool Prevention of Reading Failure (1988). First, for reasons already discussed, "[r]hyme helps children develop phonological awareness (Masland & Masland). Second, knowing how to rhyme helps in categorizing sound combinations, which later surface when learning to spell words (Masland & Masland). Finally, children learn to appreciate "...the rhyme connection between words that sound alike, and then the connection between those sound categories and the alphabetic code" (Masland & Masland).

According to research, the possession of emergent literacy skills, such as the ability to segment words into phonemes, drastically affects reading ability. However, the lack of any of these skills cannot independently alter
children's acquisition of reading skills (Masland & Masland). Unfortunately, though, when children are plagued by language or speech delays, the course of emergent literacy development may be interrupted because of the lack of opportunity or understanding (Watkins, 1996).

The Consequences of Preschool Language Delays

When looking towards the future of children, one must acknowledge their current development. If their development is delayed, there may be additional developmental problems in the future. Several studies, especially one by Catts, have documented that if children are diagnosed with a language delay in preschool, the impairment may be later seen during school as reading, writing, and spelling dilemmas (Watkins, 1996). Another study confirmed that preschool children who received articulation intervention also received services for speech, language, and hearing during elementary school (Hoffman, 1997). Phonological delays also exhibit themselves later as metalinguistic difficulties, because children will likely have problems with phonemic skills (Hoffman). Additionally, "[p]reschool children who were identified as late talkers show both delayed phonological development and delayed narrative structure development" (Hoffman). For all these reasons, preschoolers need to be and deserve to be read to in order to cease or prevent future reading and academic difficulties.

The Effect of Reading Upon Future Success

According to a report by the National Academy of Education in 1985, "[t]he single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to children" (Whitehurst, Epstein, Angell, Payne, Crone, & Fischel, 1994b). Reading aloud serves as a foundation for building knowledge and skills needed for
reading independently (Goldsworth, 1996). These skills include writing, social interactions, and language development.

When an environment is print and literacy rich, children are exposed to all the modes of language: phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, and pragmatics (Owens & Robinson, 1997). Children further develop these language areas because of this quantity of exposure to literature and print. Language, though, is only one of the preliteracy areas that experiences growth (Arnold et al., 1994). In addition, children learn how to hold a book, become familiar with the left-to-right movement, and may realize when to turn the pages (Goldsworth, 1996). Recognizing figure versus ground, or discriminating between words and pictures, is another discovery preschoolers will make when read to a considerable amount (Watkins, 1996). By all means, children should be offered opportunities to explore print before being formally taught to read and write (Taylor, 1983). By doing this, children become familiar with the forms they will later see and the methods they will use when reading texts and stories.

As an adult reads to preschoolers, children can deduce several pieces of information from this meaningful exchange (Watkins, 1996). First, they will encounter a positive reading role model, since the adult will be demonstrating the delight in reading a book (Hoggan & Strong, 1994). Alongside this positive model of reading, children will develop a story schemata, a model for the bookreading process, which is manifested when children "...by the age of three... 'read' to themselves, their pets, and each other during make-believe play" (Lancy, 1986). Second, children will encounter material that they are unable to read at this point in their development, thus broadening their knowledge base (Hoggan & Strong).

In his book *Children's Emergent Literacy: From Research to Practice*, David Lancy submits two outcomes when parents
raise their children in a "storied" environment (1994). First, the children learn "...an elaborated linguistic code, a way of speaking (and thinking) in which the immediate context is transcended" (Lancy). Second, when children are read to, they tend to play symbolically, using fantasy, pretend, and imaginative subjects; and, this later surfaces in their storytelling and comprehension capabilities (Lancy).

The Effect of Reading Upon Other Speech Intervention Measures

The prevalent technique used when providing speech and language therapy is a functional approach, which was derived from the view that language is composed of interrelated and interdependent elements. A functional approach treats language as a process, not a product, and it "...targets language as it is used or as it works for the language user as a vehicle for communication" (Owens, 1995). Instead of focusing on specific language targets, language intervention that is functionally based guides children so that they will "...develop a more elaborate and organized understanding of the environment and the communicative strategies for functioning within it" (Norris & Damico, 1990). Therefore, if "...intervention is conducted in a context of use, numerous instances of high-frequency language will naturally occur" (Norris & Damico).

By using storybook reading as an intervention procedure, the clinician generates a functional language environment for children. Language, when used in this storybook reading setting, is natural and spontaneous. When children speak, they are "...performing a self-selected conversational act in a highly functional communicative context" (Fey, 1986). Additionally, when an event is repeated, such as storybook reading and sharing, language is supported and will develop from "...the general to specific, familiar to unfamiliar continua..." (Norris & Damico, 1990). Besides conversation, storybook use, when executed in an interactive
atmosphere, also helps children learn to use language narratively, a pragmatic function (Hoggan & Strong, 1994). Narrative language uses include "...relating personal experiences, explaining, [and] retelling stories" (Hoggan & Strong).

Shared book-reading experiences support the development of a joint attention reference between children and their parents, caregivers, or interventionists (Dale, Crain-Thoreson, Notari-Syverson, & Cole, 1996). With this reference point established, language can be "...broken down and treated as an object" (Owens & Robinson, 1997). With this occurring, more advanced language forms are displayed for the preschoolers (Lancy, 1994). As complex language forms are modeled for children, their organization of the forms of language (phonology, morphology, and syntax) conclusively advances, as well (Hoffman et al., 1996).

Reading and discussing narratives with rapidly developing preschoolers aids in developing not only language but their cognitive structures, too, since both are closely connected (Lancy, 1994). As previously discussed, the stories presented in books are not connected with the time and place within which they are being read; the language is decontextualized. An article by Sigel & McGillicuddy-Delisi asserts that this type of language places "...greater representational demands on children, because they have 'to use mental representation to transcend the observable present'" (Vankleeck, Gillam, Hamilton, & McGrath, 1997). These representations are associated with a "...'literate mode of thought,' a cognitive orientation believed to support literacy development and general academic success..." (Vankleeck et al.).

Being able to think in a literacy-related manner can be connected to Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development. Preschoolers are classified as being in Piaget's Stage Two, the Preoperational Stage. During this stage, children begin to develop symbolic systems, problem-solving abilities, and
categorization skills (Owens, 1996). Since children are able to use symbols and represent things in their minds, children will, as a result, be able to use and understand decontextualized language. Connected to this, also, is the advancement of abstract thinking abilities. When books are shared and discussed, children's levels of abstract thinking increases (Vankleeck et al., 1997).

Since storybook reading improves children's use of phonology, morphology, and syntax forms, as well as increases their cognitive awareness, ultimately reading will improve comprehension and vocabulary adeptness. According to Hoffman in his article *Phonological Intervention Within Storybook Reading*, storybooks offer children a "...narrative structure in which character actions and intentions are linked through time and space" (1997). With the additional contextual assistance of the included pictures, children and their interventionist "...can repeatedly refer to past, present, and future events more easily than during discussions of ongoing events" (Hoffman). With this helpful structure of predictability and semantic constraints, comprehension is promoted (Owens & Robinson, 1997).

By discussing the books while and after they are read, the speech-language therapist helps children understand and later recall the story (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). As this occurs, children are learning to "...infer meaning from extended decontextualized discourse and to discuss, relate, and interpret narratives" (Owens & Robinson, 1997).

Comprehension levels are directly affected by children's knowledge of vocabulary, of which storybook reading aids the growth. In Dickinson's 1994 study, four-year-old children's vocabulary knowledge definitely related to the percentage of classroom time spent engaging in small-group bookreading activities (Owens & Robinson, 1997). The positive effect may not be significant for all children because "...children learn different things from reading at different points of development" (Dale et al., 1996). Intervention programs
aimed at building preschoolers' vocabulary growth have been completed, though, showing at least minimal results on vocabulary.

Apparently, children learn what words mean and build their semantic knowledge base in two main ways. First, children can learn new meanings through "...direct and explicit reference by adults when they name objects or define words..." (Robbins & Ehri, 1994). Secondly, children learn new words through incidental and limited exposure (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). In an incidental exposure, children are confronted with a new word, but they are not offered the definition in a direct way (Robbins & Ehri). These exposures may occur through hearing and participating in conversations, watching television shows or movies, and of course, listening to the reading of storybooks (Robbins & Ehri). When children hear a new word in this context, they must infer the meaning from the immediate context (Robbins & Ehri).

Although children do hear and perhaps learn from the incidental exposure to new words, vocabulary growth is the strongest when children are supported in ascertaining word meaning. Three main components are present in intervention programs designed to aid vocabulary growth, and these can be applied to therapy methods: high frequency of exposure, the opportunity for deep processing of the meaning, and provision of sufficient information to make the meaning clear (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). One way these can be provided is through child-involved analytical talk about a storybook (Dickinson & Smith). When one reads to children and together they engage in discussion about the book, a stronger conceptual base is provided for the children, and thus, word meaning is learned and applied (Dickinson & Smith).

Indeed, several rationales do exist to support the notion that preschoolers need to engage in bookreading activities with caregivers, and, especially, that speech-language pathologists are responsible for providing these
opportunities during therapy. By reading to language-delayed preschoolers, the interventionist helps familiarize children with literacy, offers an environment for the development of emergent literacy skills, and intercepts potential academic difficulties. Most importantly, storybook reading is related to improvements in the language areas of pragmatics, semantics, syntax, phonology, morphology, and story comprehension.
Strategies for Reading During Therapy

Reading storybooks to language- and/or speech-delayed preschoolers during therapy sessions is a valuable and necessary intervention measure. However, the approach is primarily valuable if steps are taken to insure its success. Owens and Robinson adopt the position that although reading is a favorite activity of preschoolers, "...sharing children's literature means much more than just reading aloud" (1997). Two general approaches can be taken by one who reads a book aloud to children. First, the reader can utilize an interactive reading style in which the text is discussed as the story is being read (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). The other approach is a performance-based approach in which the story is only disrupted by a minimal amount of talking, and the episode is treated artistically (Dickinson & Smith). As long as the children are encouraged to participate in the reading experience, the actual reading technique (i.e., co-constructive, didactic-interactional, or performance-oriented, etc.) is insignificant (Dickinson & Smith).

In a study by Vankleeck et al., the input of parents during interactive episodes was analyzed, showing two main types of interactions (1997). First, parents engaged in nonchallenging talk with their preschooler in order to provide success (Vankleeck et al.). Second, the parents used "...challenging input to promote learning" (Vankleeck et al.). As important as it is to use an interactive reading style, the speech-language pathologist must also use challenging and nonchallenging comments and prompts to insure both success and learning.

If the speech-language pathologist chooses to use an interactive method of reading, he needs to remember to
involve the children with whom he is working, of course, and to interact during the story (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). If the session is going to benefit the preschoolers, the children need "...to become part of a teacher-student dialogue by actively contributing or by attending to the response of others" (Dickinson & Smith, 1994). In 1991, Wertsch contended that when children interact during dialogue, they internalize aspects of social language or pragmatic characteristics (Dickinson & Smith).

When an interactive reading approach is employed, preschoolers will likely exhibit advances in vocabulary and syntax organization (Hoggan & Strong, 1994). By using an interactive strategy in which children are active and not passive, the speech-language pathologist is also providing a setting for the use of appropriate pragmatics (Hoggan & Strong). For improvements to occur, though, the interaction does not have to involve direct discussion about language; it may simply be allowing children to offer their opinion or predict the next action (Dickinson & Smith, 1994).

The best technique for involving children is the clinician's use of evocative utterances, instead of waiting for the children to involve themselves. An evocative utterance consists of a remark that encourages children to participate, such as asking a wh-question, instead of a question requiring a yes/no response (Whitehurst, Falco, Lonigan, Fischel, DeBaryshe, Valdez-Menchaca, & Caulfield, 1988).

Dickinson and Smith go into greater detail about what types of utterances can be used during a bookreading episode (1994). Cognitively challenging talk is the first and most conducive type of input (Dickinson and Smith). This type of talk includes "...analysis of characters of events, prediction of coming events, text-reader links (i.e., connections between the text and real life experiences), talk about vocabulary (e.g., definitions, comments about sounds or functions of words), summarizing extended chunks of text,
efforts to clarify comments made about the story, and evaluative responses to the story" (Dickinson & Smith). Input can be less challenging and may include labeling pictures in a book, retelling the story, and choral reading (Dickinson & Smith). Finally, a teacher, parent, or speech-language pathologist may use utterances simply to manage the reading session, such as instructing students to sit down (Dickinson & Smith).

Scaffolding Techniques

Interactions largely benefit children if they are encouraged to participate and simultaneously are challenged. By providing support to the child, he will be able to use more complex utterances and will have better comprehension (Hoggan & Strong, 1994). When challenging a student to become involved at a higher level, it is necessary to engage in scaffolding.

Scaffolding may be defined as a "...shared process of jointly constructed supportive interactions for language learning" (Owens & Robinson, 1997). The process of scaffolding is based on Russian psychologist Vygotsky's notion that children are able to accomplish a greater amount with the assistance of an adult than they would be able to independently, at least until they reach competency (Miller, 1996). Vygotsky refers to children possessing a zone of proximal development wherein they can learn age-appropriate skills and advanced abilities with the support of an advanced learner (Miller).

The act of scaffolding is flexible, and it can be used in numerous language situations. Within the context of storybook reading, scaffolding aids in addressing the multiple components of language (Hoffman, 1997). As children are exposed to more advanced uses of language, they begin to internalize the structures so as to be able to produce the forms independently (Hoffman). As children begin to produce
these forms, the scaffolding should show progressive change; and, the interventionist should be sensitive to the children's improvements (Whitehurst et al., 1988).

Overall, scaffolding utterances can be divided into two broad categories: contingencies requiring no response and contingencies requiring a response (Owens, 1995). A contingency is the consequence or reaction to a conversational utterance (Owens, 1995).

An expansion or recast is a basic form of a contingency not requiring a response. In an expansion/recast, the adult provides a "...more mature or more correct version of the child's utterance that maintains the child's word order..." (Owens, 1995). For example, while reading the book Little Red Riding Hood, a child may say, "That's bad wolf," and the speech-language pathologist may respond, "Yes, that is a big, bad wolf." An extension is another type of contingency that does not require a response (Owens, 1996). In an extension, the speech-language pathologist provides a "...semantically related comment or reply on a topic established by the child..." (Owens, 1996). In this manner, the speech-language pathologist responds to children's utterances, continues the conversation, and provides a model for the children. For instance, a child may say, in regards to the same book, "That's bad wolf," and the speech-language pathologist may respond, "Yes, and the wolf is on the way to Grandmother's house."

Two major types of contingencies requiring a response are commonly used: contingent queries and turnabouts. In a contingent query, children are asked to review their utterances in order to correct them (Owens, 1995). Used sparingly, a contingent query can help children learn to self-monitor, and the queries are extremely conversational (Owens, 1995). If the adult implies he misunderstood, the children will not feel as if they have made a terrible mistake and will be more apt to correct their utterances (Owens, 1995). As an example, a child may say, "The wolf was
the worstest wolf ever!" The speech-language pathologist could respond, "Tell me about the wolf again," hoping that the child would independently correct his error.

By using an utterance that responds to children's previous utterances and also requires a response, the speech-language pathologist is implementing a turnabout, thus, prolonging the exchange (Owens, 1995). In this contingency, the speech-language pathologist may request information, clarification, or confirmation (Owens, 1995). If a child says, "I've seen a wolf," then the speech-language pathologist might reply, "You have seen a wolf. Where did you see a wolf?"

A Dialogic Reading Approach

To test his hypothesis that storybook reading offers linguistic benefits, Grover Whitehurst designed a dialogic method of reading picture books with preschoolers (Whitehurst et al., 1994a). The method requires that children eventually be given the responsibility of telling the story, and the adult "...assumes the role of an active listener, asking questions, adding information, and prompting the child[ren] to increase the sophistication of [their] descriptions of the material in the picture book" (Whitehurst et al., 1994a). As discussed earlier, scaffolding during storybook reading interactions is of utmost importance, and this program is devised to teach parents how to use storybooks interactively, although speech-language pathologists could also benefit from the training. By using this method, speech-language pathologists could read to a large group, targeting specific language constructions for specific students, such as describing or sequencing (Owens & Robinson, 1997).

The first study using this program was completed in 1988. Parents learned to use scaffolding techniques while reading, and the reading sessions were all audiotaped and analyzed. As in most studies, a control group was also used in which
the parents were only instructed to read to their children as they normally would. The results showed significant differences between the two groups after the program's completion, with the experimental group scoring substantially higher on standardized tests of expressive language ability. Also, the children whose parents used the dialogic approach "...had a higher mean length of utterance (MLU), a higher frequency of phrases, and a lower frequency of single words." Also promising for this method is that, although not as great, the differences between the groups remained statistically dissimilar after a nine-month post-test (Whitehurst et al., 1988).

During 1994, more studies were conducted by Whitehurst to further examine the effects of using dialogic reading. In one study, children from low-income homes were involved. The parents of the children, as well as the daycare caregivers, were trained to read to children using the dialogic method. To compare the effects on language, three groups were used in this particular study. A group of children was read to at daycare and at home, while another group was only read to at school, and the final group was not read to at any time. The experiment lasted six weeks, and the children who were read to scored higher on tests of expressive one-word vocabulary, including the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised. In addition, the group of children who were read to at school and at home scored higher than the children only read to at school, showing strong implications for the importance of parent-child reading interludes. Again, post-tests conducted six months after the experiment continued to show differences between the three groups of children (Whitehurst et al., 1988).

Because emergent literacy is an important skill domain that is transpiring in the preschool population, Whitehurst et al. also conducted a study using dialogic reading, plus an emergent literacy component. This study was conducted using Head Start children, with one group being read to at home and
at school, and the other group being read to only at Head Start. Both groups experienced the emergent literacy instruction. Remaining consistent with the other studies, the children who were read to at both home and at Head Start showed greater increases in their language abilities, but both groups demonstrated knowledge gains in the areas of writing and print concepts. Once again, this study suggests the importance of parental reading, scaffolding, and emergent literacy education (Whitehurst et al., 1994b).

Text Repetition

In addition to reading storybooks to children, there are advantages to repeating the same story. By reading the identical story again, the adult provides children with consistency and aids in the development of a reading schema; plus, story grammar development is accelerated (Goldsworth, 1996). Goldsworth, in her book about reading disabilities, asserts that this is "...reading without really reading" (1996). After repeating the story several times, the adult reader will be able to relinquish some control of the story to the children, allowing them to participate and be more successful (Goldsworth). For example, the reader may allow the children to repeat a reoccurring word or phrase, helping them to partake in the story. Also popular are books with corresponding sounds and pictures on the side of the pages. By using these, children are encouraged to "read" when certain words appear, thus aiding the development of emergent literacy skills and building the connection between verbal language and print (Goldsworth).

Thematic Units

Sharing literature with preschoolers in speech and language therapy is extremely important, but more advances in language and speech will be observed if these books are set
in a context. To enhance the activity of reading a
storybook, prereading and postreading activities should be
included (Owens, 1995). When the stories are included within
a curricular theme, a framework for the story evolves (Owens
& Robinson, 1997). By providing a framework, the clinician
assists children in understanding the story and applying it
to everyday events, thus adding meaning and value to the
experience for the children (Owens & Robinson).

Several activities can be employed to increase the
context of the storytelling event. Children could be
encouraged to act out the story or a nursery rhyme using
simple props, which would aid them in developing a story
grammar (Watkins, 1996). After the story, activities
focusing on the theme, characters, vocabulary, concepts, or
grammatical forms could be used that involve art, drama,
cooking, or even field trips (Fey, 1986). In this
presentation manner, children take part in semantically­
related events which create a coherent learning environment
(Fey). According to Norris and Damico, the success of such
an approach has been statistically measured showing
improvements in the following areas:

...an increase in vocabulary, greater abstractness of
ideas expressed, a greater variety and number of complex
grammatical structures and morphological forms, more
ability to linguistically mark concepts of time and
space, an increase in cohesive ties across utterances,
better topic maintenance, higher stage of story
structure, and higher levels of literacy development

Curricula have been designed that follow the concept of
theme-building, such as the Interactive Language Development
Teaching curriculum, which was copyrighted in 1978 (Fey,
1986). A more recently released curriculum is named SPARK,
meaning Skills Promoted through Arts, Reading, and Knowledge
(University of Illinois, 1997). The SPARK curriculum is
designed to be used in a preschool atmosphere, but a speech-
language pathologist could modify the curriculum to use in speech and language therapy. SPARK includes twenty-five storybooks with corresponding lesson plans containing music, art, make-believe, and group activities. One story is read each week with the story being repeated each of the five school days. The activities for the day are centered around the theme of the story, thus using the prereading and postreading activities that are so important to children's success. The curriculum also includes goal sheets for the children which the teacher can use to monitor each student's progress in each targeted area, as well as sheets to send home to the parents in order to involve them. The University of Illinois designed this curriculum and is using it to study the effects. As deduced from the research reviewed in this paper, the thematic approach using reading as the core will prove to be beneficial for preschoolers, regardless of whether they possess speech and language delays.
Methods for Choosing and Reading a Storybook to Preschoolers

Numerous children's storybooks are available in the retail market and at libraries; therefore, the task of choosing an interesting book with literary quality can be overwhelming for the largely occupied speech and language pathologist. Catts offers some general guidelines for choosing a book, such as "...choose books about children's environments, situations, kids, or animals that act like kids, and are conceptually appropriate for the child..." (Goldsworth, 1996). In Appendix 1, more criteria is included for selecting a quality children's book.

When preschoolers first become introduced to books, pictures are imperative because they provide a reference for naming objects and characters, and they are often the subject of children's questions (Miller, 1996). Clearly, the pictures need not be overwhelming or overstimulating, but balance and an obvious connection between the text and the pictures needs to be present so that children will receive verbal and nonverbal representations of the story (Miller).

Several book types are available that are beneficial to preschoolers. Sequencing stories or repetitive story formats aid children by offering a verbal model of ordering events. Also, these types of books encourage children participation (Goldsworth, 1996). Wordless books are also valuable, because they allow the children and the speech-language pathologist to compose the story together (Goldsworth). Especially when reading to groups, big books, which are books with pictures and print that are visible within fifteen to twenty feet, prove to be advantageous (Campbell, 1995). Providing large
print and pictures, big books are especially useful for advancing students' print awareness (Goldsworth).

To involve children while reading a book, eye contact is imperative (Freeman, 1984). If children are sitting close, which they should be, they can easily help turn the pages or even hold the book (Goldsworth, 1996). For most speech-language pathologists, practicing the book before reading it to and with children will result in a more effective and energetic delivery (Goldsworth). One librarian, in her book *Books Kids Will Sit Still For*, suggests that an oral reading style should fit the reader's personality (Freeman). The reader should not feel pressured to provide a voice for each character or to offer a hugely dramatic rendition of the story (Freeman). Maintaining a good pitch, volume, and expression are the most important factors while reading aloud to children (Freeman).
A popular theory concerning child development asserts that children are blank slates waiting for knowledge and experience to be imprinted upon them. After years of research, this notion is still accepted as somewhat true, yet children are now also accepted as active participants in their learning experiences. Moreover, as Dr. Seuss implied, for children to be able to travel to wonderful places and reach great heights, they must be offered wholesome opportunities.

When children are labeled as being speech and language delayed during the preschool years, their futures may be heavily affected. As a speech-language pathologist, one must offer a myriad of educational activities in order that children may receive the superior stimulation and intervention they deserve.

Since many children diagnosed as being speech and language delayed in preschool encounter further academic problems in elementary school, the speech-language pathologist must offer therapy with reading and emergent literacy components, thus providing children with stimulation they may not receive elsewhere. When the speech-language pathologist reads to children during therapy, children should experience overall speech and language improvements, especially when done in the context of thematic units. While reading the storybook, the speech-language pathologist needs to support and scaffold children's utterances, providing them with more advanced examples of language.

Studies by Whitehurst et al. and Alexander statistically argue that reading storybooks to preschoolers does have a positive effect on their language advancement. Because of this, reading curriculums, such as SPARK, have been designed to assist teachers, speech-language pathologists, and parents in choosing books and reading effectively to their students and children.
In light of the data collected concerning the effects of reading on preschoolers, speech-language pathologists need to incorporate children's literature into the core of their therapy models. Only by doing so will these professionals competently and successfully serve their clients and, perhaps, through the intervention process be able to insure success with these words:

And will you succeed?
Yes! You will indeed!
(98 and ¾ percent guaranteed.)
KID, YOU'LL MOVE MOUNTAINS!
So...
be your name Buxbaum or Bixby or Bray
or Mordecai Ali Van Allen O'Shea,
you're off to Great Places!
Today is your day!
Your mountain is waiting.
So...get on your way!

(Seuss, 1990)
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Seuss, Dr. (1990). Oh, the places you'll go! New York: Random House.


APPENDIX 1

Book Selection Criteria

The following selection criteria were derived from the work of Madeleine Lindley and Nutbrown.

**Appeal**
° Does the book look inviting?
° Consider size, colour, illustration, title.

**Readability**
° Does the book's form/structure make reading easy?
° Do illustrations complement the text?
° Is the story line predictable, making sense to children and thus encouraging reading for meaning?
° Does the language flow naturally, not sounding stilted or contrived? How close is it to children's own speech patterns (important at early stages)?
° Is the print helpful and appropriate for reading level? Look at size of type, position on page, amount on page, line endings.
° Consider the length of the book.

**Content**
° Is the content worth reading?
° Does it extend the child's imagination and emotional range or relate to the children's own lives, experiences and feelings?
° Do you enjoy it yourself? (But remember that tastes vary.)
° Does non-fiction present information in an interesting and accessible manner, appropriate to the age of the reader but without trivializing the subject?

**Development**
° Will this book help the child to develop into a more skill reader?
° Does it enrich the child's vocabulary and an understanding of different language uses (e.g. literary language)?
° Does it enable use of a variety of reading strategies depending on purpose?
° Does it raise questions and encourage development?
° Does it stimulate a creative or imaginative response?
**Equal Opportunities**

- Is the writer conscious of equal opportunities and attempting to avoid bias?
- Consider the implicit message of the book as well as the detail.
- Are there positive views of minority-group people and reference to their cultural traditions, where appropriate?
- Are female characters given equal importance and status as males?
- Are stereotypes avoided and are images of ethnic origin, religion, class or disability fairly and positively shown?

CHILDREN'S
BOOK REVIEWS
&
THERAPY
APPLICATIONS
NOTE: Fifty children's books have been summarized, and therapy applications are offered for each. Two to three language targets were chosen for each book, plus target phonemes to use in articulation therapy. All of these books should be readily accessible in a public or university library.


The Stupid's family (Dad, Mom, Son, & Daughter) enjoy a day off from school and work to do silly things. They take baths without water and with their clothes on, and they wear socks on their ears. When they go to town, the Stupids allow the dog to drive the car while they ride on top, and they stop at a restaurant for mashed potato-butterscotch sundaes. When they return home, they are exhausted and go to bed only to sleep with their feet on the pillows and their heads under the covers! The Stupids are truly a fun-loving family. Although some people view stupid as an unpleasant word, they should not have any misgivings toward this book. Perhaps the word stupid and its implications could be addressed after reading this book.

APPLICATIONS:

*Analytical Skills--The child should be encouraged to talk about what is wrong with the pictures and actions.

*Phonemes /st,w/- Stupids, stockings, stepping, wonderful, wear, where, we, whoever, went
APPLICATIONS:

°Colors

I will not go to market today. New York: The Dial Press.

A rooster, Fenimore B. Buttercrunch, attempts to go to the market, but he continuously runs into obstacles (i.e., a blizzard, a flood, hot weather, and a traffic jam). He finally makes it to the store six months later to buy strawberry jam to go with his toast and tea.

APPLICATIONS:

°Categorization--Weather terms

°Why Questions--The child should be encouraged to use his reasoning and analytical skills to explain the question "Why didn't the rooster go to market today?"

°Verb Tenses--The verb tense alternates between past and present tense verbs.

°Phonemes /f, m, b, dʒ/--Fenimore, fog, forced, front, foot, fibbed; market, morning; Buttercrunch, broke, bubble, bath; jam, jar, just


Bonnie and her blue cat, Bluebonnet, live in a blue house. As the book progresses, Bonnie describes what she does in the rooms of her house. Everything is blue!

APPLICATIONS:

°Adjectives--Describe the rooms of the house and the activities which occur in each.

°Categorization--Rooms of a house & function of each

°Colors

°Present tense verbs

°Phoneme /b/
APPLICATIONS:
°Colors

°Past Tense Verbs

°Phonemes /r,s,k/-- Rusty, red, Ruby; summer, swan, sundown; came, dark, cook, camp, caught


Rusty and his family go on vacation in the forest. They hike, swim, and fish. They cook over a camp fire and sleep in tents. Rusty hears something during the night, and he sees footprints outside the tent the next morning. What were the footprints? The book does not tell, so an inference must be made from the pictures.

APPLICATIONS:
°Wh- Questions-- Ask questions about the story and pictures (What is he dressed up as?).

°Adjectives-- Describe Halloween and its events.

°Predicting-- What will happen when the characters pop all the popcorn?

°Phonemes / p, h/-- popcorn, party; Halloween, home


On Halloween, Sam's parents leave him home alone. Sam decides to have a Halloween party and invites all his friends. Everyone brings popcorn to have for a snack. When they pop the popcorn, it fills the entire house. Sam makes everyone stay and help eat the popcorn until it is all gone. Finally, they eat all the popcorn and go home. Sam cleans the house and then goes to bed. His parents return home and wake up Sam. They have a surprise for him because he kept the house clean: popcorn!
APPLICATIONS:

°Phonemes / b, m, h/ -- Boy, birthday; moon; hat, hurray

Bear loves the moon and desires to give him a birthday present. So, he climbs a mountain to talk to the moon. The moon talks back, but really it is Bear's own echo. Bear does get the moon a hat for his birthday, and the moon gives Bear a hat, also. How?

APPLICATIONS:

°Prepositions -- Across, through, into

°Repetition of Words -- The moon echoes Bear, and the repetition can be used to include the child while reading.

°Phonemes / p, b, s, dʒ / -- Papa; Brother, better, best; Sister, set, swing, spring; jump


Papa, Sister, and Brother Bear have several races and contests. Mama Bear judges in order to determine who is good, better, and best.

APPLICATIONS:

°Adjectives -- Superlative adjectives are used, such as good, better, best and fast, faster, and fastest.

°Phonemes / p, b, s, dʒ / -- Papa; Brother, better, best; Sister, set, swing, spring; jump
APPLICATIONS:

° Descriptions -- Describe activities that one does with pets or with family.

° Adjectives -- Bad versus good; Clifford does some good things (he's a good watch dog), but he does bad things, too (he digs up the flower garden).

° Present Tense Verbs

° Phonemes /k, d, r/ -- Clifford; dog; red


Emily Elizabeth has a birthday party for her big, red dog, Clifford. While she plans and has the party, she counts different items. On the side of each page, there is a command to count a certain item on the page with Emily.

APPLICATIONS:

° Following Directions -- The child is to count what Emily asks.

° Counting

° Phonemes /k, d/ -- Clifford; dog
Mike Mulligan and his fast steam shovel, Mary Anne, are a great pair. They work well together when digging holes for buildings and roads. Some of the newer machines are taking away Mary Anne's job, so Mike promises that she can dig a cellar in one day. They work so hard and fast that they forget to leave themselves an exit. The townspeople decide to leave the steam shovel in the cellar so that she can be the Town Hall's furnace.

APPLICATIONS:

° Problem-Solving
° Negatives-- not, never
° Past Tense Verbs
° Phonemes / m, s, j, d/-- Mike, Mulligan, Mary; steam; shovel; dug, day


An acorn drops on Henny Penny's head, and she thinks the sky is falling. She gathers her friends to go tell the king. Henny Penny and her friends meet a fox, and he tricks them into going to his house. The fox is about to eat them when Henny Penny wakes up and realizes she was dreaming. This story has several versions by different authors.

APPLICATIONS:

° Rhyme-- The animal names rhyme (Henny Penny, Ducky Lucky).
° Repetition-- A few lines are repeated throughout the book so that children can participate ("The sky is falling, and we are going to tell the king.").
° Where Questions
° Phonemes /h, p, s, f, k/-- Henny; Penny; sky; falling; king
By using humans and animals, the authors introduce the concept of opposites to readers. This book has simple language and bright pictures, a technique which is good when introducing this sometimes-difficult concept.

APPLICATIONS:

° Opposites
° Colors
° Phonemes /l, f, h, n/ -- last, little, loud; first, fast, fat; hot, hard, hello; night, nice, nasty, new


This story is of a spider weaving her web. All the farm animals ask her to play, but she is too busy. Finally, her web is finished, and the spider catches a fly. She is so tired that she falls asleep. Children will enjoy the bright pictures and farm animal characters in this book.

APPLICATIONS:

° Animal Sounds
° Categorization--Farm Animals
° Repetition--The children can participate by repeating a line in the story.
° Phonemes /s, v, b, w, f/ -- spider, spin; very; busy; web; farm

A young boy finds a secret message that tells him where to find his birthday present. He has to follow the instructions to find his present. The pictures in this book are bright, and the children will enjoy trying to help find the present.

APPLICATIONS:
- Shapes
- Following Directions
- Predicting
- Phonemes / b, s, g/- birthday, biggest, below, behind; star, see, secret, circle; gift


A boy falls in love with a wave during summer vacation. He brings the wave home, and they have fun together. But, the wave is angry and mean when it storms. Finally, the boy's parents say it is time to return the wave. The boy and his father return the wave to the ocean. This book has more text than most books for preschoolers, but children should be able to hold their attention because of the subject matter.

APPLICATIONS:
- Emotions-- The child and clinician can discuss emotions as related to the wave (i.e., happy, angry).
- Adjectives
- Prepositions-- Until, if, before, then, since
- Phonemes / w, s, f/- wave, we; Sea, sand, send; fish, foam, fingers, father, friend

The baby's mother leaves the baby and Carl (their pet dog) in the mall. Carl is supposed to take care of the baby. After the mother leaves, Carl and the baby take the elevator to the toy department and play. Then, they go to the bookstore and read books. They try on clothes, watch themselves on television in the electronics store, play on rugs in housewares, and sample free food. When they visit the pet store, they let the animals out of their cages. Finally, they return to the store to meet the baby's mother. She is proud of how well Carl took care of the baby.

APPLICATIONS:

° Sentence Constructions -- This is a picture book, so the clinician and child can use target sentence structures.

° Categorization -- Clothes, Toys, Foods, Pets

° Wh- Questions

° Phonemes / m, k, b, t/ -- mall, mother; Carl; baby, books; toys, television


The baby's mother leaves her in the park, and Carl is to take care of her and his puppy. Carl, the puppy, and the baby ride the merry-go-round, jump in the flowers, play in the waterhose, get balloon animals from a clown, eat ice cream, and take a trolley ride through the zoo. They also swing, slide, and get their portraits painted. When they look through telescopes, they see the baby's mother returning, so they run to meet her. The baby's mother is proud of how Carl took care of the baby and the puppy.

APPLICATIONS:

° Sentence Constructions -- This is also a picture book, so target sentence structures can be used.

° Verb Tenses

° Pronouns -- Carl = he; Baby = she; puppy = it

° Phonemes / k, b, p/ -- Carl; baby; puppy, park

A child describes growing a garden (planting seeds, watering the plants, weeding, picking or digging the vegetables). Then, he describes how to make vegetable soup (chop and peel the vegetables, then cook them). The book includes text, but it also has some pictures labelled.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Categorization-- Fruits and Vegetables

°Sequencing-- The child can tell the process of planting a garden and making soup.

°Phonemes /v, s, w/-- vegetable; soup, seeds; wash, watch, warm, wait, weed


A child tells the story of how a tree grows. It is planted and grows from seed to sprout. Once it sprouts, it is taken to the garden center where the boy and his dad buy it. The boy and his dad plant the tree in their yard. The boy waves at his tree and loves it. He feeds the birds that live in the tree during the winter. He watches the leaves bloom in the summer. His favorite time of the year is fall. Why? This book includes an encyclopedia-like reference in the back.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Adjectives-- colors, big, little

°Sequencing-- The child can tell the process of a tree's growth.

°Prepositions-- after, before, next, then

°Phonemes /s, l, t/-- seed; leaves; tree

Corduroy is a teddy bear who lives in a department store, but no one will buy him because he is missing a button. One day a little girl wants him, but her mother will not buy him because she says he looks old. Corduroy is sad, so he explores the store at night to try to find a new button. He does not find a button, but he does cause some messes. The night watchman finds him and returns him to the toy department. The next day the little girl returns with her allowance, and she buys Corduroy.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°**Problem-Solving**

°**Why Questions**

°**Phonemes /k, b, t/** -- Corduroy, climb; button, bed, both; toys, tonight


This is a wordless book about a mother bunny who takes her children on a picnic. She falls asleep, and her bunnies play catch with her spring hat. It falls into the river and floats downstream. Momma Bunny is mad, but the bunnies surprise her with a new hat made of flowers.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°**Narration:** The child can tell the story by using target sentence constructions.

°**Problem-solving** -- What can the bunnies do about losing their mother's hat?

°**Phonemes /b, h/** -- bunny; hat

Frances does not want to go to bed. She keeps making excuses to not go to sleep, so she requests things from her father and mother (cake, water, etc). They are not amused, but they try to erase Frances' fears and persuade her to go to sleep. Finally, she falls asleep without even trying not to fall asleep.

**APPLICATIONS:**

° *Requests*-- Since Frances makes requests throughout the book, so making requests could be a target pragmatic structure.

° *Letters of the Alphabet*

° *Time Concepts*

° *Phonemes / f, b, m/-- Frances, Father; bed, big; Mother, may*


Rosie the Hen takes a walk, but she does not know the fox is following her. As she goes through the maze-like farm, the fox keeps running into disasters. Finally, the bees chase the fox away, and Rosie eats dinner in peace.

**APPLICATIONS:**

° *Spatial Concepts*-- under, through, over, around, & across

° *Drawing Conclusions*-- It does not say what happens to the fox, so the child must gather information from the pictures. There are words on every other page.

° *Phonemes /f, r, h, w/-- fence, fox, farm; Rosie; hen, hay; walk*

Harold draws different scenes with his purple crayon. He travels from one scene to the next as one thing makes him think of another.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Modal Verbs-- Could, Should
°Adverbs
°Adjectives
°Problem-Solving
°Phonemes /p, k, h/-- purple, picnic, pie; crayon, could, covers; Harold


Peter wakes up to find snow on the ground outside. He plays in the snow all day. When he returns home, he is sad because the snowball in his pocket melted. When he sleeps, he dreams about snow, and when he wakes up, there is more snow on the ground. He and his friends go out to play in it again. This is a Caldecott Award winner.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Following Directions: This is a useful story to act out (make snow angels, walk with dragging feet, make a snowman).
°Phonemes /sn, p/-- snow, snowman; Peter
Two different friends introduce each letter of the alphabet. They tell where they live and what they sell, with the words corresponding with the specific letter. For example, "My name is Ursula. My best friend's name is Uli. We live in Uruguay, and we sell umbrellas." The last page in the book includes each letter of the alphabet with items to find on the corresponding letter's page.

APPLICATIONS:

°Who, What, Where Questions-- Who are the friends? What do they sell? Where do they live?

°Phonemic Awareness

°Phonemes /m, n, f, w, l, s/-- my; name; friend; we; live; sell

-----------------------------------------------


Each animal is asked whom he sees. When the animal answers, he replies that he sees a different colored animal with his mother. This has been a popular children's book since it was first published in 1967. Children love the bright pictures of various animals.

APPLICATIONS:

°Repetition--Children can follow along verbally as the clinician reads aloud.

°Colors

°Categorization-- Animals

°Phonemes / w, s, d, b/-- what; see; do, duck, dog; brown, bear, bird, blue, black, beautiful
APPLICATIONS:

*Following Directions-- Have the child make the different animal noises.

*Repetition-- The child can participate in the story aloud.

*Rhyming

*Phonemes / p, b, h, l, w, z/--polar, peacock; bear; hear, hippo; lion, leopard; walrus, what, whistle; zoo, zebra


This book won a Caldecott Award, and it is a true children's classic. Although the pictures are not colorful, the story is. Mr. and Mrs. Mallard search for somewhere to raise their family of ducklings. They like the Public Garden, but it is too dangerous. So, Mrs. Mallard has her babies at another island. Then, the ducklings walk to the Public Garden following their mother. They stop traffic, and the policeman helps them get home to their father.

APPLICATIONS:

*Rhyme-- The ducklings names rhyme.

*Where Questions

*Phonemes / m, p, w/--mallard, make, mud; police, pond, public; water, walk, wheels
Children will enjoy this funny book. A lady goes to market and buys one animal at a time. Each time she returns home, an animal is loose, and her house is a mess. Finally, she buys vegetables and makes soup. Illustrated pictures are combined with photographs for an interesting combination.

APPLICATIONS:

°Rhyme

°Categorization--Animals, food

°Phonemes / m, t, h, k/-- market; to, tomatoes; home, hen, hot; market, milk, cow, duck, luck, coop, coat, carrot, cabbage


A man travels through Boston in May. He describes the scenery and his actions, but he mixes up all his words. His talk is tangled. For example, "The flowers were singing sweetly. The birds were in full bloom."

APPLICATIONS:

°Analytical Skills-- What's wrong with the words and the pictures?

°Adjectives

°Rhyme

°Phonemes / k, h, s/-- corner, cucumbers, cat, canary, sack; home, hands, his, her, hid; city, snow, sailed, saw, cigar, soothe
A boy gives a mouse a cookie, and he gives him milk. Then, the mouse asks for a straw, which in turn makes him think of something else to ask for from the boy. The mouse continues to ask for things until he finally asks for milk again when he is thirsty. Then the story could begin again with the mouse asking for a cookie, but it ends there.

APPLICATIONS:

* Predictions--What will the mouse ask for next?
* Problem-solving
* Causation--If-then clauses
* Future Verb Tense
* Phonemes / m, h, p/-- mouse, milk, mustache; he, help; paper, picture, pen

A moose asks for a muffin. He then continues to ask for things as each thing reminds him of another.

APPLICATIONS:

* Causation--If-then clauses
* Wh- Questions-- What does the moose want now?
* Phonemes / m, b, dʒ, p/--moose, muffin, mix, mother, more; blackberry, bush, boo, borrow; jam; puppets, paint, put

Amelia Bedelia goes to work for the Rogers family. The family leaves for town on Amelia's first day, so they leave her a list of things to do. She takes each item on the list literally (i.e., draw the drapes). Children may not understand why this book is funny, but it will provide a great context for discussing literal versus figurative language.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Pronouns--Subjective pronouns and me

°Literal versus Figurative Language

°Phonemes / l, p, d/--lemon, look, list, like; pie, pinch, powder; draw, dust, down


A train is aided by friendly toys in getting over a mountain. They ask other engines to help, but no one will. Finally, a little, blue engine decides to help. Although he is not large, he has a positive attitude and gets over the mountain.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Modal Verbs--Could, Can

°Phonemes / t, dʒ, k/--train, toys; engine; can, think

This book tells the story of the months of the year as experienced on a farm. Included in the text are several examples of farm animals, as well as the months of the year. The book includes two sets of text: the one at the top of the page is simpler, and the one at the bottom goes into more detail.

APPLICATIONS:

°Adjectives
°Adverbs
°Months of the Year
°Phonemes / m, j, f, w/ -- month, moult, May; year; falls, follows, February, forest, frozen; winter, windy, wild


Curious George, a monkey, has a birthday. His friend and owner gives him a bicycle for his birthday. Curious George has rules to follow, but he breaks them because he is curious. He causes trouble, but he also solves problems. His curiosity eventually brings him success.

APPLICATIONS:

°Following Directions -- Make a newspaper boat with Curious George.
°Categorization -- Vehicles
°Negative Sentence Constructions
°Phonemes / dʒ, b, k/ -- George; big, box, bicycle; curious, corner, cab

As the reader travels through the town, different sounds are associated with different scenes and activities. Richard Scarry's work is characterized by busy pictures, and this book is no exception.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Categorization--Things associated with a farm, beach, park, home, etc.

°Sounds-- Clock= tick-tock; Saw= zeee-za; Painting= Slish, etc.

°Phonemes / h, k, p/-- helper, house; cat, park, play, pig; Any sound could be addressed

---


A child is asked to a king and queen's castle each day, and he asks to bring a friend. He brings a different zoo animal each day. On Saturday, he asks the Queen and King to go visit his friends at the zoo, and they all go to the zoo together. This is a Caldecott Award winner.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Rhyme

°Days of the Week

°Categorization--Zoo animals

°Phonemes / k, kw, f, t/-- king; queen; friend; tea

A young boy explains what he does each month of the year. He loves chicken soup with rice, so every activity is associated with the soup.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Months of the Year  
°Rhyme  
°Repetition  
°Phonemes / tʃ, s, w, r/-- chicken; soup; with; rice


*Hop on Pop* is a classic children's book by Dr. Seuss. This book is essentially a set of several stories of a few pages each. Dr. Seuss chooses two rhyming words on each page and connects them by a contextual sentence. For example, "Pat. Cat. Pat sat on a cat. Pat. Bat. Pat sat on a bat."

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Spatial Concepts-- up, in, on, off, down, into  
°Phonemic Awareness & Rhyming  
°Phonemes / p, k, m, h, t, b, w, f/-- pop; cup; mouse; house; tall, ted; ball; wall; fall

Again, this is classic Dr. Seuss. The character in this book tells how he likes to read--anytime, anywhere! All the lines rhyme, so the child can participate in reading this book.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Colors

°Phonemic Awareness & Rhyming

°Phonemes--Any phoneme can be targeted.


Mr. Brown can make various sounds from a cow mooing to goldfish kissing. He encourages the readers to imitate the sounds, too.

**APPLICATIONS:**

°Rhyme

°Phonemic Awareness

°Following Directions-- Have the children make the different animal noises.

°Phonemes /m, b, d, t/ --mister, moo; brown, bee, buzz; Any stops, fricatives, or blends could be addressed.

With bright pictures, Dr. Seuss describes how he feels on days of a certain color. For example, "Then comes a Yellow Day. And, wheeeeeeeeee, I am a busy, buzzy bee." This book is written in the classical Dr. Seuss style with rhyming words, but the illustrations were not done by him.

**APPLICATIONS:**

- Emotions--The children can be encouraged to talk about how they feel.
- Colors
- Phonemic Awareness & Rhyming
- Phoneme /d/--Day


A group of sheep take a sailing trip. During the sailing trip, a storm forms. What do the sheep do when they cannot sail their ship? They make a raft and are very happy when they come into port.

**APPLICATIONS:**

- Present Verb Tense
- Rhyme
- Phonemic Awareness
- Problem-Solving
- Phonemes /ʃ, s, w/--sheep, ship, shakes; sail, sea, sudden; waves, wash, wake

A cap peddler tries to sell his caps, but no one wants one. He carries all his caps on his head, so he walks very carefully to the country to take a nap. When he wakes up, his caps are gone. He looks in the tree and sees several monkeys, each with one of his caps. The monkeys repeat everything he does, so when he throws his cap on the ground in anger, the monkeys return his caps.

**APPLICATIONS:**

*Adverbs*

*Repetition*—The children can follow the story by repeating the man's lines or by performing the actions along with the monkeys.

*Sequencing*—The man wears his caps in a certain pattern, so the children can learn this and repeat it.

*Phonemes* /k, m, p/—caps, checked; monkey, morning, monkey; peddler, pull, picked


A peach on the ground is eaten by a ladybug, bird, worm, and squirrel. When the seed is planted, it turns into a big peach tree. The last page includes a pop-up picture.

**APPLICATIONS:**

*Past Tense Verbs*

*Predicting*—What will happen to the seed?

*Phonemes* /p, f, l, b, w/—peach; fuzzy; ladybug, little; bird; worm, wiggly

This is the story of a dandelion growing in the field. As the wind blows, the stem sways, knocking the seeds off. The seeds land in a field, causing a field of dandelions to grow. This book also has a pop-up picture ending.

**APPLICATIONS:**
- Past Tense Verbs
- Predicting—What will happen to the seeds?
- Sequencing—Tell the process of what happens to the flower.
- Phonemes / d, f, b/—dandelion; field; bees, by, buzz, blew


Harry the Dog receives a sweater from Grandma for his birthday. He hates it because it has roses on it. He tries to lose it, but everyone keeps bringing it back to him. When he finds a loose string, he begins to pull it. Then, a bird sees the string and unravels Harry's sweater. When Harry and Grandma go for a walk in the park, they see a bird's nest made of woolen string. Grandma realizes it is Harry's sweater, so she makes him a new one for Christmas: a white one with black spots. He likes it better.

**APPLICATIONS:**
- Problem-solving
- Phonemes / h, p, w/—Harry, he, home; pull, present, piece; wool, white, wag
A small girl and her mother take an early morning walk. As they walk, they notice things around them, like flowers and birds in the sky.

**APPLICATIONS:**

- **Adjectives**-- Colors; quantitative and qualitative
- **Counting**--The girl and her mother count their steps as they walk.
- **Pronouns**--she, he; possessives
- **Phonemes / m, g, t, f / s-blends**--mother, morning; girl, garbage; two; four, five; step, sky, school

It is easy to find quality children's books to read during therapy if one looks. For example, the Caldecott Awards are awarded each year for the "most distinguished American picture book[s] for children." A list of these books can be easily found, for example, by looking on the Internet. Some resources for locating good children's books are listed below.

**Internet Resources:**
*American Library Association--
http://www.ala.org/alsc/notable98.html

*Children's Literature Web Guide--
http://www.acs.ucalgary.ca/~dkbrown/caldecott.html

*All-time Bestselling Paperback Children's Books
http://www.bookwire.com/pw/articles/childrens/all-time-paperbacks.html

**Published Materials:**
*Literature Notes Volume 1 from Super Duper School Company

*Read to Me, Talk with Me from Communication Skill Builders BY: Barbara M. Lockhart