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***Bilingual Literacy in Early Childhood Education and
Primary Education: The Jolly Phonics Method***

La alfabetización bilingüe en Educación Infantil y Educación Primaria: El método *Jolly
Phonics*

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I declare after all there is no enjoyment like reading! How much sooner one tires of anything than of a book! -- When I have a house of my own, I shall be miserable if I have not an excellent library.

Jane Austen. *Pride and Prejudice*

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ABSTRACT

This thesis presents research into Spanish pupils' literacy development in English and Spanish. In recent years this has become an important issue since different European reports showed that Spanish learners have a very low level of Spanish and English reading. For this reason, the present thesis analysed the development process of literacy skills of young learners in English and Spanish.

The main aim of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of using a phonics method for developing English literacy skills of young learners. Thus, analysis was also focused on the possible reading predictors of both languages, if there could be transference of skills between the languages and how the teaching and family context could influence children's literacy development.

The research followed a mixed-method parallel research design in which quantitative (pre-tests and post-tests, questionnaires) and qualitative data (recorded daily observations, semi-structured interviews) were collected. The sample consisted of 142 pupils (5-7 years old) from two different schools of Seville (state and private). The research presented a different experimental design for each of them; the first with treatment and control groups and the second with four experimental groups. The treatment was the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method during a school year. Quantitative data were analysed through descriptive, regression, correlation, comparison and clusters analysis whereas the qualitative data followed a textual data analysis.

The outcomes revealed that phonological awareness and letter and pseudo-word reading can predict word reading in Spanish whereas phonological awareness and English and Spanish pseudo-word reading can predict English word reading.

Regarding Spanish literacy skills, pupils from each school achieved different scores as they seemed to be situated at different stages of reading development, which could be influenced by the teaching methods used. Related to this, a phonics method combined with the global method seemed to be more effective for the development of pupils' literacy skills. Results also showed

that activities created and adapted to children's needs and a high frequency of literacy practices at home also benefited pupils' literacy development.

Considering the public school, results revealed that, after implementing *Jolly Phonics*, pupils from the experimental group attained a high level of phonological awareness and naming in English whereas the improvement in the control group was almost non-existent. In addition, both groups were receiving the same Spanish instruction with a syllabic method. However, the treatment group achieved a higher differential growth in phonological awareness and reading variables in Spanish, which seems to suggest that *Jolly Phonics* was also influencing pupils' Spanish literacy skills.

Furthermore, the final *Jolly Phonics* test revealed that pupils from experimental groups (7 years old) in both schools attained a reading level equivalent to English children aged 5.7. In addition, the outcomes also showed that literacy skills can transfer between Spanish and English and that there are some sounds which seem to be more transferable than others. These results are aligned with teachers and parents' opinions, who agree that the method was effective for the development of pupils' literacy skills in English.

The doctoral thesis suggests important implications for the development of literacy skills in English and Spanish. Among them, the appropriateness of using *Jolly Phonics* in Spanish primary schools which may involve not only the improvement of pupils' English literacy skills but also an increase of their European reading and comprehension scores; the creation of more teachers and parents' training programmes; and the dissemination of the presented good results.

KEYWORDS: phonological awareness, phonics, bilingualism, literacy, teaching methods, early childhood education, primary education.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the rationale and significance of the research and how the thesis is organised throughout the whole document.

1. RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

For several years, news has informed people about the low level that Spanish pupils, students and undergraduates demonstrate in reading not only in their mother tongue, in Spanish, but also in their second language, English. Due to the fact that people of different ages normally present reading and comprehension deficiencies, this study tries to find reasons and draw possible solutions. These problems, which appear in youth or adulthood, may be a sign of how languages are taught in the early years. Thus, analysing teaching methods for both Spanish and English since the beginning, that it is, since the period of Early Childhood Education (5-6-year-old children), could reveal the origin of some of these problems, which do not only worry the Ministry of Spain but also the European Union.

The *Progress in International Reading Literacy Study* (PIRLS, 2016) and the *Program for International Student Assessment* (PISA, 2015) carried out by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), evince the fact that Spanish people present a low level of reading in Spanish, whose mean is not only below the European mean but also below the OECD mean. Furthermore, the last *European Survey on Language Competences* (ESLC, 2012), carried out by the National Institute for Educational Evaluation (INEE), of the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport, also shows that English competencies are very low in relation to the European mean. These means are ‘present not only at the average, but also among the best students’ (ESLC, 2012, p. 15). Nowadays, learning a second language, as English, is not only necessary to communicate but also to develop ourselves professionally. The possible reasons for these low means which the ESLC (2012) present are:

[...] Spanish students spend much more time doing English homework and attend to more extra classes for English expansion [...]; teachers in Spain set much more homework [...]; the education of the mother, not that of the father, has a positive effect [...]; the employment status of the father [...], is a determining factor for a better result in both reading comprehension and writing [...]; Something could be failing in the methodology in the Spanish classrooms, perhaps having an approach which is still too traditional.’ (pp. 16-24).

The national policy in Spain (*Ley Orgánica 8/2013, de 9 de diciembre, para la mejora de la calidad educativa*), also establishes that knowing a second or third language has become a priority as a result of globalization and multilingualism. This multilingualism, according Suso López (2018), seems to be the most appropriate approach to cover this demand.

El dominio de una segunda o, incluso, una tercera lengua extranjera se ha convertido en una prioridad en la educación como consecuencia del proceso de globalización en que vivimos, a la vez que se muestra como una de las principales carencias de nuestro sistema educativo. La Unión Europea fija el fomento del plurilingüismo como un objetivo irrenunciable para la construcción de un proyecto europeo. (*Ley Orgánica 8/2013, p. 10*)

More concretely, Andalusia, has been carrying out a Plan to Promote Multilingualism (Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo) since 1998 in order to cover the learning and use of other languages, which was finally approved in 2005. The objectives are based on the learning of content areas through a different language to the mother tongue; teaching methods based on communication and interactions; enhancing linguistic competences and consciousness; developing metacognitive skills; using the language in different areas; increasing knowledge about culture... Since then, early teaching of additional languages has been introduced from Early Childhood Education (Madrid Fernández, 2006).

Related to that, new teaching-learning approaches have appeared in the last years. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been introduced in schools as a specific bilingual teaching approach. Lorenzo, Casal, & Moore (2009) mention that CLIL can improve children's learning in terms of language skills and motivation. However, it should not be forgotten that children have to face a different learning process in which they have to read, write and study English texts in other subjects, as science. Then, it could be a good approach in terms of linguistic immersion but it may have deficiencies when developing early skills of a language. Children should be taught since the beginning how to read in English in order to be able to understand other subjects which are taught in English as well. Lorenzo, et al. (2009) also mention that 'planning for advanced literacy is just as important as basic communicative L2' (p. 435). Therefore, an English teaching method based on the development of emergent literacy

skills in the early years could be a possible solution for these reading deficiencies in the different contexts of CLIL or in a foreign language classroom, where the age of introducing an additional language, as English, has also decreased in the last years up to the point of teaching English formally in the first year of Primary Education.

Furthermore, these deficiencies may be related to the lack of teacher training to implement and innovate methodologies. As Zaidi, Aftab, Naeem & Naheed (2016) state 'adequate and appropriate teacher training is key to success in language education' (p. 1). Fleta (2016) mentions that problems are not only found in children's learning but also in teaching and that training is currently not enough to cover the learning necessities. Kern et al. (2018) suggest to focus on the creation of specific programmes to train teachers to face any reading problem that a child may encounter.

2. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

To summarise, the low reading level presented by PIRLS (2016) and ESLC (2012) in both languages as well as the Spanish national policy's demand in learning an additional language and increase the pupils' language levels justify this research in terms of social, practical and scientific values as a system to detect literacy problems.

For the reasons presented above, this research was developed, which aimed to identify factors which could influence the bilingual literacy process of Spanish children who are learning English as an additional language. This longitudinal study is set in the south of Spain, in two different schools located in Seville, and extends from the last year of Early Childhood Education (5-6-year-old children) to the first year of Primary Education (6-7-year-old children). Thus, the process and teaching methods involved in developing emergent literacy skills in Spanish and English and what elements could be transferred from one language to the other were considered to be studied. This research also intends to present possible proposals in terms of teaching methods for our current bilingual literacy system.

With the purpose of creating a theoretical foundation of the present doctoral thesis, the researcher wondered what the literature says about what factors could best predict pupils' literacy skills; what differences can be found between English and Spanish in terms of phonetics; the possible transferences between these two languages; what aspects, such as the moment of introducing the second language, could influence pupils' literacy skills in two languages; what types of methods are considered best for teaching early literacy in Spanish and English; what the *Jolly Phonics* method is, what results it has had and what opinions have been found in previous research studies; how the teaching and family environment can influence pupils' early literacy process.

3. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS:

This introduction justifies the relevance of the present research and explains the reasons of carrying out this study. Following this introduction, which forms chapter 1, different other chapters organise the present doctoral thesis document.

The second chapter is focused on the literature review and theoretical framework which establish the base for this work. How children's emergent literacy skills develop and what variables can predict them introduce this second chapter which continues with how these variables can transfer from one language to the other. The chapter continues with a section which explains the positive and negative aspects of the early bilingual literacy development and how it can be taught through the development of phonological awareness. To do so, understanding the contrastive phonetics of two languages (Spanish and English) seems necessary. This second chapter continues with the explanation of teaching methods used to teach how to read in Spanish and English. A concrete explanation of the *Jolly Phonics* method is included. The chapter ends with a section dedicated to the contextual elements which can influence the literacy process of children. These elements are related to the classroom and family environments. As a conclusion, this literature review gathers all the information needed to understand the present research and find gaps in research. Due to that, general and specific objectives are specified, which introduce chapter three.

Chapter three is focused on how the research was carried out in terms of its design, methodology and instruments used along the whole study. It concludes with information about how the data were analysed through different techniques depending on the nature of the information obtained.

The fourth chapter is dedicated to findings. In this episode, the findings answer the objectives specified in the last section of chapter two. Thus, these sections respond to findings related to pre-tests and post-tests regarding emergent Spanish and English literacy skills, the *Jolly Phonics* implementation, pronunciation problems and contextual environments which can influence children's literacy process.

Finally, chapter five contains the discussion, conclusions, limitations and implications of this study which encloses all the findings and their relation to the literature presented, contributing to the advancement of knowledge. This chapter also includes suggestions for future research which could be carried out as a continuity of this doctoral thesis.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework presented below is intended to create a base for this thesis by examining studies focused on the development of emergent literacy skills. Literacy predictors and teaching methods are revised as well as the possible advantages of carrying out the early bilingual literacy process. Furthermore, a new teaching method for developing emergent literacy skills in English is explained together with research studies carried out around the world since 1975 to the present. To end this background, classroom and family environments will be revised as possible factors influencing children's literacy process.

1. THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMERGENT LITERACY SKILLS

Throughout this chapter, the terms *skills*, *reading* and *literacy* will appear very frequently. For this reason, it is of vital importance to provide definitions of them.

Dictionaries offer some definitions for *skills*. Most of them give simple definitions as ‘the ability to do something well’ (Oxford Dictionary). Baker (2011) offers a more specific definition which seems to be more appropriate for the present research: ‘language skills tend to refer to highly specific, observable, measurable, clearly definable components such as handwriting’ (p.21). It is important to consider that students can develop different language skills in the process of learning, such as reading or writing. *Reading* is a language skill based on processing a written text.

Although competence is not a term this research focuses, it is necessary to highlight that *reading competence* may be defined as the level a child can attain in understanding a written text. This is important because reading skills will help children to acquire a certain level of reading competence.

For *literacy*, many definitions would have probably been included in this section. There are many references to different types of literacies, such as computer literacy, as being referred to the competence achieved in a field (Barton, 2007). In some cases, literacy appears together with numeracy, ‘the ability to understand and work with numbers’ (Oxford Dictionary).

However, this research is not focused on these definitions of literacy as being competent on a field and it is not related to numeracy. Then, agreeing with Barton (2007), a proper definition would be difficult to find.

Furthermore, as Barton (2007) mentions, before 1924, dictionaries included words such as ‘literate’ referring to ‘being educated’. *Literacy* started to appear later on with the definition which appears in current dictionaries, such as Oxford Dictionary. The definition refers to ‘the ability to read and write’. Recently, PIRLS (2016) defines reading literacy as:

[...] the ability to understand and use those written language forms required by society and/or valued by the individual. Readers can construct meaning from texts in a variety of forms. They read to learn, to participate in communities of readers in school and everyday life, and for enjoyment. (p.12).

Apart from PIRLS (2016), the Department of Education and Skills (DES, 2011) defines *literacy* as: ‘the capacity to read, understand and critically appreciate various forms of communication including spoken language, printed text, broadcast media, and digital media’ (p. 8). Then, this term is just referring to the ability to read but it is not considering the previous process and pre-reading skills needed in order to achieve proper *literacy*.

Thus, in addition to the general term of *literacy*, Barton (2007) talks about ‘pre-reading skills’ as prerequisites for reading development. This may be more connected to the idea of this present research, where, pre-reading skills are named as *emergent literacy skills*, which refers to the abilities a child may achieve since birth through the development of different basic skills in order to be able to learn to read and write formally. Whitehurst & Lonigan (2002) also mention this term referring to ‘development precursors’ of reading and writing. This is the term which defines clearly the essence of the present doctoral study as the participating sample was children. Since *emergent literacy skills* may appear since birth, there are contextual elements which can influence the development of reading, such as the literacy practices carried out in the family environment and how it connects with the teaching of literacy in the classroom.

Furthermore, this research focuses on literacy in two languages. Bauer & Colomer (2017) mentions that ‘biliteracy’ refers to what ‘students are able to do with print across their languages’ (p. 1). The author also comments a sociocultural point of view for the term: ‘biliteracy is viewed as a skill that develops outside the classroom, which emergent bilinguals bring with them when they enter the school’ (p. 7). This may be related to the idea that contextual elements, as family literacy practices, are relevant during the literacy development of children. More specifically, Ducuara & Roza (2018) defines biliteracy as ‘the combination of literacy and bilingualism’, ‘being literate in two languages’, which is the focus of this doctoral thesis.

As Kennedy et al. (2012) comment there are important aspects to be considered in the early literacy development as they can be essential for effective literacy. Among them, phonological awareness and vocabulary are highlighted, which can also function as possible predictors for reading. Due to that, the next subsection focuses on these two pre-reading skills in the biliteracy process, how they can predict reading skills and the possibility of transferring them between languages.

1.1. Predictors of literacy: phonological awareness and vocabulary

Phonological awareness is considered to be a pre-reading or emergent literacy skill which children need to develop as a first step in order to be able to decode and read. According to Adams (1990), phonological awareness consists of remembering rhyming words, distinguishing phonemes inside words and joining and isolating phonemes in order to form words. This phonological awareness is characterised by the ability of recognising individual phonemes in order to be able to relate them to graphemes and read, a process which is known as *decoding*. Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) defined *decoding* as ‘reading the symbols or letters and transferring them into sounds to recover words’ (p. 43) and *encoding* as ‘the process of turning sounds into symbols or letters’ (p. 43). According to these authors ‘decoding requires recognition memory as the letters act as a prompt’ (p. 43) and ‘for encoding, the visual prompt is not present and the child must use recall memory, which is more difficult’ (p. 43). This may be due to the fact that children have to process a visual symbol in order to remember how to decode it.

This phonological awareness has been seen as crucial for successful reading development (Fuentes, 2003). Children develop this ability through cognitive connections and frequent and familiar words and these connections tend to be the consequence of how the mind processes language (Goswami, 2001). Thanks to this reading subskill, comprehension skills (based on understanding what a written text means) tend to appear relatively early on. As Solé (1992) states the control of decoding skills and the learning of different strategies which lead to comprehension are necessary in order to be able to read.

The acquisition of phonological awareness during early childhood can help and influence later reading skills (Stanley, Petscher & Catts, 2018). Jiménez & Ortiz (2000, 2007) argue that phonological awareness is connected to word and pseudo-word reading and helps the development of reading skills. Suárez-Coalla, García-de-Castro & Cuetos (2013) mention that phonological awareness contributes to reading accuracy whereas speed naming contributes to reading fluency. Then, according to that, both phonological awareness and speed naming would be crucial for effective reading.

Several other studies also evince that phonological awareness and letter recognition are related to reading abilities (Jiménez & O'Shanahan, 2010; Hill, 2017; Russell, Ukoumunne, Ryder, Golding & Norwich, 2018). Furthermore, this relationship is also based on the idea that phonological awareness can even predict later reading performance (Batson-Magnuson, 2017; Kenner, Terry, Friehling & Namy, 2017; Bellocchi, Tobia & Bonifacci, 2017). Specifically, Edyburn et al. (2017) mention that phonological awareness together with letter-knowledge, listening comprehension and word reading significantly predicted pupils' achievement at the end of the study, that is, when pupils were at the end of the first grade (6-7-year-old children). Authors such as Parrilla, Kirby & McQuarrie (2004) or McIlraith (2018) also show that phonological awareness is presented as the strongest reading predictor in the first grade (6-7-year-old children). Parrilla et al. (2004) also comment that speed naming can be a good predictor for reading skills. So, it may seem that although letter recognition or speed naming can influence reading, phonological awareness may be the strongest pre-reading skill.

According to Metsala (2010) phonological awareness can also benefit from the increase of vocabulary acquired by pupils. Furthermore, this vocabulary has also been shown to predict later reading skills and improve them, having a strong relationship with later word reading skills (Metsala, 2010). In this sense, Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) refer to vocabulary as another predictor of literacy development. It seems that not only phonological awareness but also vocabulary and naming can play an important role in the acquisition of reading skills. Swanson, Orosco & Kudo (2017) confirm that, when considering the mother tongue, vocabulary can predict later reading abilities, as letter word identification. In addition, Nouwens, Groen & Verhoeven (2017) through a research focused on the mother tongue of Dutch children, could

say that semantic storage can have an impact on reading comprehension and can help to identify individual variances. English vocabulary learnt in the early years is the best English literacy predictor from the third (8-9-year-old children) to the eighth grade (13-14- year-old children) (Grimm, Solari & Gerber, 2018) which can predict reading accuracy and comprehension (Howard et al., 2014). Warmington & Hulme (2012) also mention that naming accuracy in the first language (in this case, English) is significantly and statically related to reading skills, predicting a good reading fluency and that isolating phonemes may allow the prediction of pseudo-word reading.

The relationship between the development of phonological awareness and vocabulary is something which Whitehurst & Lonigan (2002) mention in relation to the existence of two information areas which are interdependent in the learning of a language. They say that the first area is known as ‘*outside-in*’, which refers to what pupils can receive from their context through oral skills. Children who read more frequently and fluently develop more vocabulary and better sensitivity with respect to phonological awareness. The second area is known as ‘*inside-out*’, which is what a child produces. It refers to units of sounds and letters which characterise the development of phonological awareness. According to them, understanding a text means being able to translate units of letters into units of sound and writing implies the translation of these units of sounds into units of letters. This is the interdependence found between both areas which seem to be necessary to develop emergent literacy skills. Probably, emergent skills developed before school, such as vocabulary, can help the development of phonological awareness.

The processes that a child has to take in order to learn how to pronounce and communicate is based on different stages. These processes and stages will vary depending on each child, something which has been commonly known as individual characteristics and differences.

Regarding individual differences and the analysis of phonological awareness, it is important to consider that each child develops emergent literacy skills in a different way. Thus, not all children follow the three stages presented by Frith (1986). According to some authors (Frith, 1986; Bigas & Correig, 2002; Guzmán-Simón, Navarro-Pablo & García-Jiménez, 2015),

reading starts with the ‘logographic’ stage, in which children begin to be interested in the written world. Children start to recognise meaning which has previously been given to them. In this stage, children ask what it is written in a text and try to imitate the reading action. This stage is characterised by the recognition of more frequent words related to proper names, logos, cartoons’ names, stories’ titles... In this case, pupils commence to identify the first letters of words which are more familiar to them. After that, reading moves on to an ‘alphabetic’ stage when a formal instruction is necessary so that children understand and start joining phonemes to graphemes. This stage is crucial for the acquisition of phonological awareness. This is the moment when children may start confusing some phonemes as /b/, /d/ or graphemes, as or <d>. They recognise each sound and letter to be able to read but they still need more learning processes in order to work on comprehension. Finally, the moment when they are familiarised with the spelling system is called ‘orthographic’ stage. This is the moment when children begin to detect the morphology of words. In this case, meaning gets more importance. These stages would allow, according to Frith (1986), to determine the phase in which pupils’ reading development is. As it has been commented before, these stages can help to determine the moment of children’s development but do not mean that all children develop in that order.

At the same time that children acquire a high phonological awareness through these stages of development, their decoding process moves from a non-lexical route, as Cuetos (2008) says, in which phonological awareness is necessary in order to be able to decode words and pseudo-words; on to a lexical route in which word reading begins to be more automatized and comprehension skills appear. This is also known as the ‘double route approach’ (Figure 1) which Coltheart (1985) defines on the one hand as lexical route, in which children look up for a word in the mental lexicon; and, on the other, non-lexical route, in which graphemes are transformed into phonemes to recognise letters in order to read words. Thus, depending on how children develop their literacy stages, they will probably be in a route or another. It may also probably depend on the type of teaching method used to work on literacy.

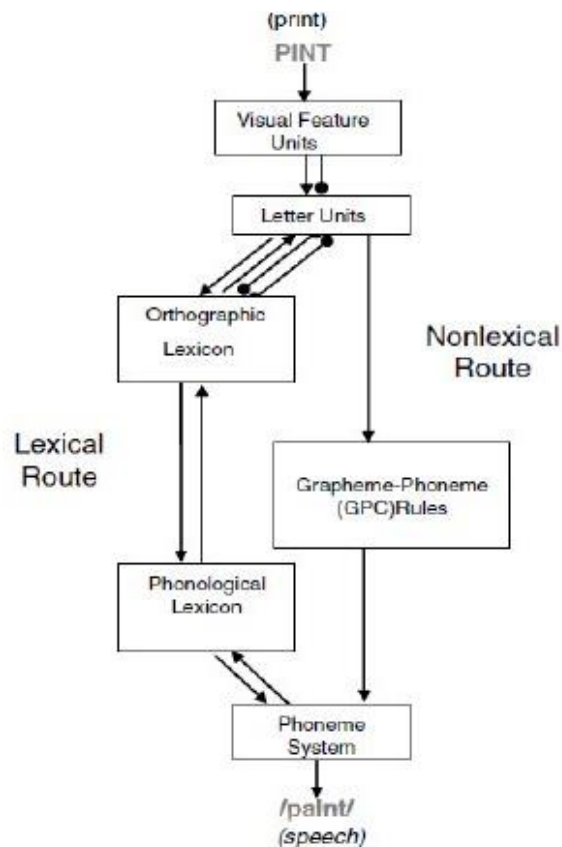


Figure 1. Coltheart's double route approach. (Coltheart, 1985)

As it can be seen from this first section of the present literature review, there are some variables which are considered necessary to analyse in children who are in the process of developing emergent literacy skills. Due to that, it was decided that phonological awareness, naming, speed naming and letter, word and pseudo-word reading were needed to be measured in this research in order to analyse children's emergent literacy skills in Spanish and to determine which variables can predict later reading abilities.

This literature presents research studies regarding Spanish or English literacy as a first language but it has not considered how a dual literacy process can be developed. For this reason, L2 Emergent English literacy skills will also be analysed. Furthermore, it is, then, important to know if transference between languages can happen in a dual literacy process. Due to that, the following section will consider the literature related to the transference process between first and second languages by focusing on the literacy predictors mentioned above.

1.2. Transference of phonological awareness and vocabulary between first (L1) and second (L2) languages

Transference processes may seem to help create new cognitive structures and affect learning development. Cummins' (2001) *Interdependence Hypothesis* focuses on the idea that knowledge and literacy acquired in the mother tongue transfer and positively influence a fast acquisition of a second language. Furthermore, this transference seems to be *bidirectional* between the first and the second languages (Reyes, 2006). However, it may depend on the type of language, that is, if transference can happen between transparent and opaque languages. Thus, this will be considered in the present research.

Different research studies seem to coincide on the fact that the early literacy process can help to identify factors which can predict word reading also in the second language (Bowyer-Crane, Fricke, Shaefer, Lerva, & Hhulme, 2017). Fernández Corbacho (2016) says that acquiring phonological awareness, work memory and a proper speed processing in the first language can help and facilitate the acquisition of a second language. In addition, this author mentions that pupils who present reading problems in their second language is due to the fact that they also present reading problems in their mother tongue. Yamashita & Shiotsu (2017) points out that children who show good reading skills in their first language will also acquire them in the second language. Related to that, Recio & León (2015) affirm that children who present a high fluency in a language also tend to have fluency in the other language learnt. Abrams (2000) claims that there exists an influence of the first language on the second language as the latter is the '*non-dominant*' language being benefited thanks to the knowledge acquired from the first language. So, it seems that there is a relationship between reading skills when learning two languages.

Related to that, Brisbois (1995) points out that pupils with a high language level are able to use reading skills from their first language in order to read in their second language. So reading strategies can be transferred and the L1 reading skills function as important predictors for L2 reading. The studies presented before confirm the *Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis*

stated by Sparks & Ganschow (1993), which focuses on the idea that basic linguistic skills which allow success in the first language has a similar impact on the second language.

Phonological, morphological and orthographic awareness together with words and pictures recognition, speed naming and vocabulary knowledge are also said to be great reading predictors not only for a first but also for a second language learning (Kahn-Horwitz, Shimron & Sparks, 2005).

First, Scarpino, Lawrence, Davison & Hammer (2011) mention that vocabulary learnt in the first language (in this case, English) can also help predict phonological awareness but Spanish vocabulary had no effect on English phonological awareness. Then, it may seem necessary to analyse these two languages and how one can influence the other. Later and opposed to that, Zhao, Dixon, Quiroz & Chen (2015) state that phonological awareness learnt in Spanish could influence the reading of words in English. They also mention that not only phonological awareness can help language development from one language to the other, but vocabulary learnt in Spanish can help predict word reading in English. More recently, it has been commented that English can influence Spanish. More specifically, English vocabulary and, even, grammar can have an ‘indirect influence on Spanish reading comprehension through English reading comprehension’ (Spies et al., 2018, p. 5).

Regarding phonological awareness, Casillas & Goikoetxea (2007) say that phonological awareness is a strong reading predictor in English and Solari et al. (2014) mention that English word reading and English and Spanish pseudo-word reading are presented as good predictors of reading fluency. Concretely, the acquisition of phonological awareness in two languages is considered to be important in order to have a proper development of reading skills as this ability acquired in one language can benefit its learning in an additional language. More specifically, Martin (2016) comments that teaching the ability to connect phonemes and graphemes, that it is, phonological awareness, is important in order to develop later reading comprehension skills in the mother tongue, which will have an impact on the second language. As a contrast, Pinto, Bigozzi, Vezzani & Tarchi (2016) mention that alphabetic processing, which is the ability to connect a letter name to a letter symbol, can also be an important predictor in formal and early

literacy which can benefit later reading and comprehension skills. Then, a debate raises as to what is better to teach first, letter sounds or letter names. Phonological awareness may be a good predictor of later reading development since it allows children to identify any sound and read any word. Learning letter names could be a source of confusion for them as the name of the letter does not help to read any word or pseudo-word. In that case, more strategies need to be learnt and, probably, a mixture of phonological and alphabetic awareness could be helpful. A possible learning process could be learning first sounds and, later, names. This means that none of them are discarded. They would just be introduced later in the process of learning.

Thus, it may be possible to say that phonological awareness acquired in the mother tongue has a significant impact on the second language. As Mott (2011) mentions ‘when the native language has a similar phoneme, this of course will be transferred’ (p. 259). But it may seem necessary to study the type of language involved. The study carried out by Fabiano-Smith & Barlow (2010) had a sample of 24 children (8 bilingual (Spanish-English), 8 Spanish and 8 English monolingual children). The purpose of this research was to analyse the phonetic inventories that these children had. The authors say that bilingual children present phonetic inventories as complex as those of their monolingual peers and that the two phonological systems of each language were separated in a way that children could be in different levels in each language. These authors conclude that there is transference between phonetic inventories of bilingual children. Kremin, Arredondo, Hsu, Satterfield & Kovelman (2016) mention that there is a significant relationship between phonological awareness and reading skills in bilingual and monolingual pupils and languages with similar phonological systems favour bilingual literacies. Wawire & Kim (2018) also confirm that a positive benefit can be found in the bilingual learning process since the phonological awareness developed in a language can be transferred to the second language.

However, these authors do not mention what could happen if languages are very different. It is important to consider that Spanish and English present a different type of decoding process as each language is formed by a different phonological system. As Dombey (2006) mentions ‘teaching children to read in English is not the same as teaching them to read in a transparent orthography such as Italian, Spanish, Finnish or Swahili. It is more complex’ (p. 103).

Thus, similarities and differences could be studied in terms of phonetics, which will be presented in a following section of this chapter. Kremin et al. (2016) comment that ‘children’s exposure to a phonologically transparent orthography enables the transfer of skills to their phonologically opaque language’ (p. 2). Specifically, the study carried out by Niolaki & Masterson (2012) which says that there is transference between a transparent, Greek, and an opaque, English, languages. As they say, the degree of transference depends on the Greek level of students which sets them in lexical or non-lexical routes. Then, it may be possible to hypothesise that Spanish children could transfer their phonological knowledge when learning the English phonological system.

In summary, among literacy predictors, phonological awareness has seen to be able to contribute to reading skills and help to predict them (Carlisle, Beeman, Davis & Spharim, 1999; Parrilla et al., 2004) in the first and second language learnt. As Wawire & Kim (2018) says, phonological awareness and the knowledge of letters can transfer even in contexts where there are more than one language. Then, it would be interesting to analyse in this thesis how emergent Spanish and English literacy skills relate during children’s dual literacy process and what aspects are involved in this early process, which will be mentioned in the next section.

Finally, it could also be interesting to comment that transference will depend on the learning context, such as school and home, and characteristics of the learner (Baker, 2011). For this reason, contextual elements will be commented in the third section of this literature review.

1.3. Aspects of the early bilingual literacy process

The acquisition of a bilingual or dual literacy may depend on different factors such as the age of introducing it or the exposure time that children have to both languages (Durán, Roseth & Hoffman, 2010; Kremin et al., 2016). Early language acquisition and simultaneous language learning are aspects which have been considered controversial throughout time in terms of being advantageous or not.

An early intervention could be necessary for the potential literacy development but it is important to consider how it is developed in the different contexts. Early language exposure

could be beneficial as pupils seem to be less stressed and dedicate more time to learning two languages (Pinter, 2006). Baker (2011) points out that children who start learning a second language in the early years will have a better level of English than those who start learning the language later on.

The study carried out by Han, Silva, Vukelich, Buell & Hou (2014) claims that an ‘early literacy intervention focused on preliteracy skills [...] play an important role in the successful language and literacy development of English Language Learners’ (p. 550). In addition, Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) mention that the early learning of phonics in a natural way should be introduced before children are five years old. Formal instruction is preferred to be included later on. ‘The earlier they get into literacy, the more experiences they will gain to survive both in educational and social lives’ (Ariati, Padmadewi & Suarnajaya, 2018). Then, an important aspect to be considered in the commentaries provided by these authors is that the early introduction to English needs to be focused on pre-literacy skills in order to have a proper literacy and learning development.

Lightbown & Spada (2006) also comment that an early exposure to a language will allow a high acquisition of vocabulary and language structures which will function as previous knowledge for later formal teaching. They also mention that such early exposure is beneficial for a positive transference between languages. Pinter (2006) states that ‘as we progress to older children, their first language development will allow them more and more opportunities for useful comparisons between the languages they know’ (p. 18). Then, an early exposure to language seems to be beneficial not only in terms of developing pre-literacy skills but it may also help to compare the two languages and, probably, to transfer some strategies and skills.

Pinter (2006) mentions that bilingual children may take more time in acquiring the system from two different languages but, when they are three years old, they come conscious of how to use each language depending on the context. This is something which may depend on the personal characteristics of children and may also be related to social factors in which interactions play an important role. Then, social, interpersonal and individual factors may influence the process that a child has to perform when choosing one language or the other in different contexts since,

as Brisk (2011) mentions, learning how to write in a second language implies knowing how to function in a new culture. This can contribute to a positive emotional effect in the language output and, so, to achieve efficient results when transferring aspects from the mother tongue to the second language.

In addition, the study carried out by Parsons & Liddy (2016) focuses on analysing the reading processes of children learning English and Irish in bilingual and monolingual contexts. Children in bilingual schools seem to outperform monolingual children and that learning to read in one language does not affect later reading development in their first or second language. Later, Birke et al. (2017) comments that, although some delays may appear when learning a second language, they will disappear with age. These authors mention that bilingual and monolingual children improve their first language 'reading skills with age at a similar pace' with no 'detrimental consequences' in any of the two languages learnt. Related to that, it would be interesting to analyse specific cases in which there may be children who can struggle with reading and, in that case, what elements of the language are the ones making them struggle.

Furthermore, Brisk (2011) insists on the fact that an early exposure to different types of texts help children to develop any language. Then, early learning of two languages does not need to be negative if there is appropriate input. Related to that and aligned to what Pinter (2006) mentions, several studies carried out throughout time say that learning a second language does not interfere in the learning of the mother tongue. Recently, Spies et al. (2018) also state that there is no indication of any possible negative effect, when learning more than one language, either in the mother tongue or the second language.

Opposed to any negative view of learning two languages, when this happens, it seems that gains can even appear in the mother tongue (August & Shanahan, 2009; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Durán, et al., 2010). Westerveld (2014) comments that bilingual children can retain more vocabulary across languages, with no need of 'obtaining translation equivalents' (p. 538) and show 'better receptive vocabulary' (p. 539) than monolingual children. Unsworth, Persson, Prins & De Bot (2015) also mention that dual literacy has positive aspects because as children grow, vocabulary grows and, so, they acquire cognates in both languages which increase their

vocabulary knowledge in two languages. Later, Kuo, Ramírez, de Marín, Kim & Unal-Geer (2017), through a research carried out in the United States, say that learning Spanish and English at the same time does not cause a negative interference. On the contrary, cognates for both languages appear which help the vocabulary retention in both Spanish and English. Kuo et al. (2017), then, mention that bilingual children transfer words from one to the other language, creating cognates of words and suffixes and increasing the vocabulary acquisition.

Related to vocabulary acquisition, the knowledge children acquire in one language can benefit the other language as they can use different words from both languages depending on the context. Oller, Pearson & Cobo-Lewis (2007) point out that the vocabulary which bilingual pupils have is *distributed* in relation to the circumstances which surround them. In such a way they can store an acquired word in one language but not in the other language as they are used in different situations. The authors call it *singlet*. When they keep two words for both languages, they call that case *doublet*. For this reason, bilingual pupils can present a high knowledge of vocabulary in both languages. However, in terms of only one language, monolingual pupils can present higher results. These pupils tend to be better at reading and writing. So, this aspect can also influence reading skills. According to Oller, Pearson & Cobo-Lewis (2007), this *distributed characteristic* can happen in vocabulary but not in phonics as, although there may be similarities between language phonemes, it is not possible to have *doublets* as in vocabulary. Learners need, according to them, to know the complete phonological system in order to be able to read properly in that language. Bilinguals present higher scores on phonics than monolinguals as they have to learn two different systems.

Furthermore, and more specifically, it is important to consider that phonological awareness learnt in the mother tongue may predict reading skills of the second language with no negative interference on the first language learnt. Bialystok, Luk & Kwa (2005) confirm that phonological awareness learnt in two languages can be an advantage in terms of understanding two language systems in order to be able to decode. In addition, these authors say that bilingualism has a second advantage and this is related to the fact that reading principles and strategies can also be transferred between languages, as mentioned in the section before. Baker (2011) states that biliteracy can be advantageous since, although grammar, vocabulary and

orthography could be different among languages, decoding skills and reading strategies can transfer from first to second language literacy. When children learn the relationship between letters and sounds in one language, they will understand that this relationship also exists in the second language, although differences may appear among them (Baker, 2011).

However, reading problems may appear and they may be due to a bad acquisition of the language in the early years. So, as Márquez (2013) points out, the type of teaching-learning process can help to achieve a better reading fluency and comprehension which will allow the development of other learning abilities.

Apart from the method, the way of including the language in the classroom seems to be important. Pinter (2006) mentions that the best way of acquiring a first or second language is through a real and daily exposure to languages. On the other hand, children who are not totally immersed in their second language need this exposure time at school. This could mean that the learning process can be slower and less motivating.

Thus, early literacy may not need to be better when considering a first and a second language. The important factor is the way and time of exposure to these languages (Baker, 2011). McLelland (2018) explains how the language teaching has changed in the United Kingdom throughout time and concludes that the best way to teach and learn a language is talking that language, that it is, to perform a language immersion inside the classroom. That would be the most appropriate teaching-learning process for children who cannot receive input outside the school context, as it is the case of Spain.

Then, the exposure time to languages seems to play a crucial role in the learning process. Unsworth et al. (2015) confirm that classroom exposure time to English is significant in the learning process. These authors comment that teaching English in classrooms for more than 60 minutes is necessary to achieve important results. Less than this is considered to be insufficient input. Verhoeven (2005) also mentions that a huge quantity of time exposed to a second language is necessary in order to achieve a good language development.

An important aspect to consider during an early dual literacy process is the moment of introducing the second language for the first time since it is a factor which can influence the language development positively or negatively. As Cummins (2001) states through the *Developmental Interdependence hypothesis*, the second language will be easier developed if the first language level of development is higher. Oller & Eilers (2002) also say that ‘a strong foundation in the first may facilitate second language development, which in turn may facilitate educational success, even in the second language’ (p.13). In addition, Tabours and Snow (2002) mention that it may be better to start teaching L1 literacy and, then, L2 literacy, when children are between 5-8 years old, because, otherwise, it could be more difficult and less motivating. In addition, Pinter (2006) states that ‘once literacy in one language is established, children often expect to learn to read in the new language too’ (p. 65). In this way, strategies learnt to read in their mother tongue could be transferred to learn to read in the second language. Later, Birch (2011) also mentions that the second language should probably wait for a threshold which determines the acquisition of specific language skills. For this reason, as Saracho (2017) confirms, consolidation of knowledge of the first language seems to be essential in order to start learning a second language. Related to that, this present doctoral thesis has considered the idea that some L1 literacy knowledge is necessary to develop L2 literacy.

Aligned to the *Interdependence hypothesis*, Cummins (2001) states that the *Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis* was also necessary for a second language learning. This hypothesis focuses on the fact that learners will read properly in the second language once they surpass the threshold of some second language skills.

Regarding more advantages of bilingualism, other studies carried out by Lorenzo, et al. (2009), Bialystok et al. (2005), Hopewell & Butvilofsky (2016) and Lin, Cheng & Wang (2018) also confirm that bilingual children present a better performance control when acquired in the early years. Bialystok (2007) also says that bilinguals can develop an executive control to manage their attention on both language systems and be able to maintain fluent performance. In addition, Pinter (2006) mentions that bilingualism seems to be advantageous with respect to the metalinguistic awareness since children become more conscious of language structures and forms. The study carried out by Páez, Tabors, & López (2007) says that bilingual pupils achieve

better results in reading and writing skills than in oral skills in both languages. Finally, it is interesting to mention that bilingualism also helps to increase children's motivation in the classroom (Lorenzo et al., 2009), which may be another positive aspect to consider.

To conclude, and according to Baker (2011): 'infant bilingualism is normal and natural, with evidence that it is typically beneficial in many ways: cognitively, culturally, communicatively, for higher curriculum achievement, and to increase the chances of employment and promotion' (p.95). The early bilingual or dual literacy advantages will definitely depend on 'social, linguistic and/or educational variables' (Oller & Eilers, 2002), aspects which are considered in this doctoral thesis.

The next section focuses on an aspect which has already been mentioned as part of the dual learning process, which is the fact that languages can influence each other in terms of the phonological system. In this sense, it seems necessary to analyse the two languages considered in the present study, analysing both phonological systems in order to see what similarities and differences may be and if there could be some transference between the sounds of the two languages.

1.4. Contrastive phonetics of Spanish vs. English

Phonetics, as defined by Trask (1996), refers to the 'scientific study of speech' (p. 270). The term is divided into articulatory, acoustic, auditory or instrumental phonetics depending on the focus of the study. According to Trask (1996), there are two terms which are important to differentiate: 'Anthropophonics (or general phonetics) considers the total range of speech sounds producible by the human vocal apparatus, independently of any real or possible linguistic use; linguistic phonetics examines the speech sounds occurring in particular languages or in languages generally.' (p. 270). In this sense, this research may be dealing with general phonetics as sounds from English and Spanish are studied independently of any linguistic use.

Regarding phonology, Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) define it as 'the link between phonetics and linguistics' (p. 4). More specifically, Trask (1996) mentions that the term 'phonology' was not

clearly differentiated from ‘phonetics’ until the late 1990s, which may be the reason why the two terms are so easily confused. The author defines it as ‘The branch of linguistics dealing with the relations among speech sounds in particular languages and in languages generally, and contrasting with phonetics.’ (p. 275).

Then, phonetics and phonology will help to determine the differences between two language systems and try to understand common errors and problems which Spanish children may encounter when facing two different phonological systems.

For this reason, the term used in this research is ‘contrastive phonetics’ as it is dealing with the study of English and Spanish sounds with the objective of comparing them and identifying possible similarities and differences. It will also focus on the articulatory phonetics as it will deal with how each sound is articulated in order to identify the differences between the two languages.

Focusing on the development of a second language, the acquisition of its phonological system should be implied in the learning process. As Mott (2011) says, what is normally implied is that learners need to acquire a set of words from this second language. However, they also need to learn the set of sounds which conforms that language (Mott, 2011) in order to be able to communicate properly. Phonological awareness seems to be necessary for the development of any phonological system. As Fonseca-Mora & Fernández-Corbacho (2017) say explicit teaching of English letter sounds seems to be important so that children develop this phonological awareness. Phonological awareness and development processes work in the creation of a new phonological system (Pavón, 2001, p. 111).

Due to that, in order to teach and learn a language, it is important to understand how this new language works and how different it is from the mother tongue. Related to that, Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) analyse the two languages, Spanish and English, and talk about the problems that teachers can find when teaching English to Spanish students. They state that the best way to learn pronunciation is through oral instruction. As Pavón (2000) mentions, it seems to be essential that learners develop their perception and production skills in order to achieve a

proper acquisition of pronunciation in their L2. The differences presented by Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) are shortly reviewed below.

First and regarding the vowel system, it is crucial to understand that although both English and Spanish present the same number of vowels (a, e, i, o, u) in terms of spelling, by which Spanish directly relate them to the same number of sounds, the number which they represent in English are twelve. Because of that, Spanish is referred to as a ‘phonetic language’ since letters are closely related to sounds (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

Due to these differences between both phonological systems, as the authors mention, it is important to consider that depending on their articulation and auditory aspects, some of them may be easier to acquire than others.

Both vowel systems (English and Spanish) present some common aspects as they are voiced and oral sounds, with vibration of the vocal folds. In addition, regarding the lips position, front vowel sounds are unrounded and ‘back ones are rounded, except the one in English arm’ (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982, p.14).

English presents 6 short pure vowels, 13 relatively long vowels (5 are pure and 8 are diphthongs) and 1 borderline case /æ/ (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982). According to the authors, depending on their environment, long vowels may vary the degree of length and short vowels can become longer. Diphthongs can be wide or narrow, closing (towards /ɪ, ʊ/) or centring (towards /ə/) and falling or rising (depending on the first and second element) (Figure 2). In the case of Spanish diphthongs, they can be closing or opening, but not centring. English most diphthongs are falling and centring (Figure 3). In Spanish, falling diphthongs are closing and rising diphthongs are opening (Figure 4). In addition, the second element of central diphthongs in English is narrower than Spanish one (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

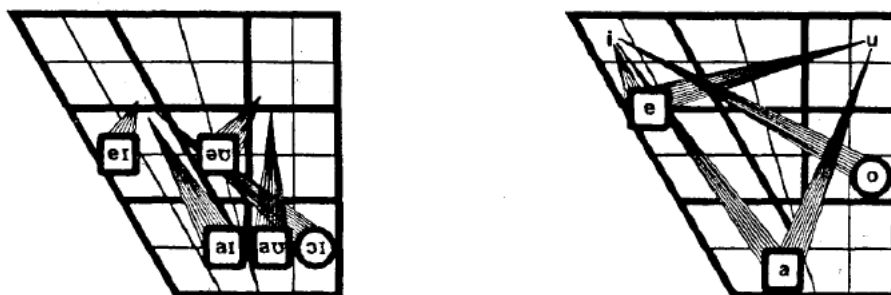


Figure 2. English and Spanish closing diphthongs. (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982)

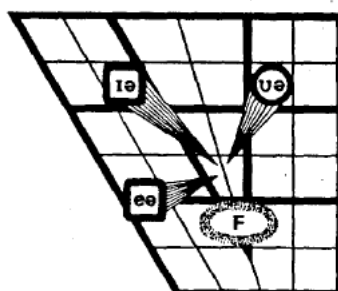


Figure 3. English centring diphthongs. (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982)

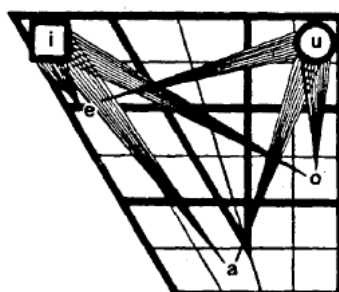


Figure 4. Spanish opening diphthongs. (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982)

Regarding differences between both vowel systems, English presents 12 pure vowels and Spanish only 5 (Figure 5). Central vowels only exist in English. It is important to notice that no Spanish vowel coincides exactly with any English one. They may be similar but not equal (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

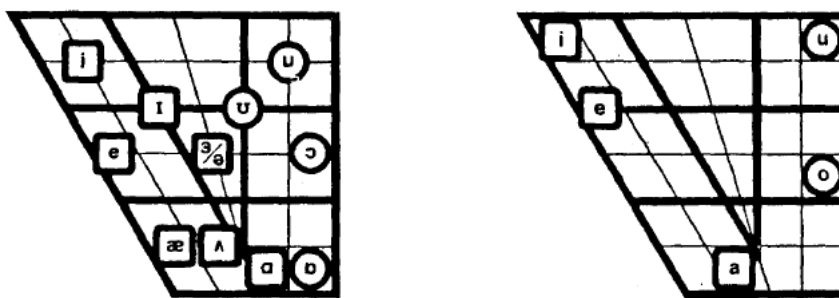


Figure 5. English and Spanish pure vowels. (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982)

Furthermore, both English and Spanish vowels can present different length variations depending on their environment. Short variants of English can be similar to Spanish vowels but English long vowels have the double length than Spanish ones. This length implies a change in meaning in English but it is not the case in Spanish (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

With regard to the frequency of presence, as the authors mention, open vowels (a, e, o) are more frequent in Spanish whereas centralized vowels predominate more in English (mostly /ə/ and /ɪ/).

Considering the position in syllables, English vowels can appear in initial, medial or final position in accented or unaccented syllables. Spanish ones can be present in initial, medial and final position. Regarding this, near equivalents are found in English, which are accented and unaccented initial /eɪ/ and unaccented final /eɪ, aɪ, oɪ, aʊ/ (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

In terms of spelling, Spanish vowel phonemes are represented by 14 different spellings whereas English ones by 70. So, ‘In English (a) the same vowel phoneme is usually represented by several spellings; (b) one spelling may represent several vowel phonemes, and (c) two or more vowel letters may represent only one vowel phoneme, or no phoneme at all’ (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982, p. 41).

Taking all this into account and considering the previous Figure 5, the authors mention that it is important that learners should know that Spanish pure vowels /i e, a, u/ can be similar to English /i, e, ʌ, u/. However, English /e/ is opener, /ʌ/ is not so open than Spanish /a/ and /i, u/ are not so close as in Spanish. In addition, /ə/ and /ɪ/ are more difficult to pronounce as they

are central and they do not exist in Spanish (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982). It should be added that they are very frequent in English. /ə/ is between /e/ and /ɒ/, which the authors identify as a ‘hesitation noise’ which English people make; /ɪ/ goes from /i/ to /ə/; /ʊ/ is halfway between /u/ and /ə/; /æ/ is between English /e/ and Spanish /a/; /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/ could be opener than Spanish /o/. Also, /ə, ɜ, ɔ/ are pronounced with spread lips, /ʊ/ with rounded lips, /ɒ/ with open rounded lips; and /ɔ:/ with close rounded lips. To continue with diphthongs, /aɪ, aʊ/ should start with the quality of a Spanish vowel but the second elements are closer to /e/ and /o/ respectively. The first element in /eɪ, ɔɪ/ are opener than Spanish counterparts. The first element in English /aʊ/ is central and, then, difficult to pronounce by a Spanish person. The same happens with the last element of English /ɪə, eə/ since Spanish lacks narrow central diphthongs (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

Regarding consonants, Spanish ones are articulated, in general, with weaker muscular tension. Spanish *lenis* consonants (produced with less force) are devoiced in the same circumstances as the English ones. Aspiration of /p, t, k/ does not occur in Spanish. Spanish plosives do not occur together very frequently and /n, m/ are influenced by their environment in both English and Spanish languages. In the case of /t, d/, they are alveolar consonants in English and dental in Spanish (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982). This point is also highlighted by Mott (2011).

When teaching, it is crucial that teachers understand these differences in order to teach pronunciation properly and so that learners could acquire the proper phonological system in order to be able to be understood and communicate with other people. However, according to Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982), it is also important to take into account that English vowels can vary from region to region and the same can happen with consonants in Spanish. This fact can cause problems in pronunciation (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982). Aspiration problems may be the easier aspect to solve but devoicing requires coordination of both the glottis and the mouth, as the authors say. For this reason, this together with length, nasal and lateral air releases are the most difficult aspects of English to be acquired. Due to that, training is essential to work on these issues since the very beginning (Finch & Ortiz-Lira, 1982).

Mott (2011) also presents elements which could be problematic for Spanish people learning English as a second language. As this author says, 'Being a Germanic language, English has a more complicated vowel system than Spanish and Catalan' (p. 261). Spanish vowels are tenser than English ones. 'They begin and end very differently. English vowels begin abruptly and dies away slowly' (Mott, 2011, 263). Spanish vowels do the opposite. In addition, Spanish does not have semivowels as English /j,w/ and so, they may be confused. Furthermore, some examples provided by this author which relate to consonants are summarised in order to complement what Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) commented.

According to Mott (2011), it is normal to take an L1 sound which could be similar to the L2 sound intended to be pronounced, such as the case of Spanish /h/ which is mute. So, /x/ will be used for English /h/. However, sounds as /v, z, ð, ʒ, dʒ, ʃ/ are not found in Spanish and so, they would be difficult to pronounce and new phonemes should be learnt since the beginning. Spanish allophone of /d/ is similar to the English /ð/ causing possible confusions in some cases as between 'breathing' and 'breeding' but, although it is not a problem as a 'total unit' (Mott, 2011, p. 260), this allophone can be problematic in words containing /d/ between vowels as it will always be transferred from Spanish to English (Mott, 2011). Moreover, this sound can be difficult in final position as it does not exist in such position in Spanish. According to the author, the case of consonant clusters as /θr/ do not appear in Spanish. Combinations of /s+Consonant/ exist in Spanish but not in initial position. To solve this problem, according to the author, Spanish people use [e-] before it. In some areas, as in Andalusia, final consonants could be more problematic, as in the case of [l, n, z, s, x, θ, b, g], which tend to be eliminated from their pronunciation as there is a tendency for *consonant + vowel* syllabic structure (Mott, 2011). Another example is [m] which in Spanish appears in medial position (e.g. *cambiar*) and not in final position (Mott, 2011). But due to that, this one may not be that problematic. In addition, <y> tends to be pronounced as /dʒ/ but it should be shortened to /i:/. <w> tends to be pronounced with a [g] as 'sanguish' for 'sandwish' (Mott, 2011).

Considering more difficulties when learning English pronunciation, Zaidi et al. (2016) comment that some alternative spellings taught in group 4 (/eɪ/, /dʒ/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, /i:/, /o:/) of the *Jolly Phonics* method had a great difficulty for children (p. 1) although reasons are not

explained. This present research will try to suggest reasons for this difficulty in the discussion chapter.

Related to differences and similarities among these two languages, it may be helpful to underline some points which Stockwell & Bowen (1969) highlight as possible transferences. It is important to mention that these authors' study focuses on how English speakers learn Spanish and which sounds could be transferred from English to Spanish. So, their study refers to a context opposite to the one that this doctoral thesis presents. Nevertheless, it may be useful in order to identify similar points with the studies carried out by Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) and Mott (2011).

Specifically, Stockwell & Bowen (1969) mention that all Spanish vowels and diphthongs are higher and tenser than English ones which can cause problems in pronunciation. However, there are some consonants which could be transferred from English to Spanish as they are similar sounds. This is the case of /tʃ, f, s, m, n/. /p, t, k/ can also transfer but without aspiration. In that case, a Spanish speaker would have to do the opposite. /b, d, g/ can be easily transferred. In addition, they mentioned that Spanish /l, r/ can be difficult for English people. Thus, it may be deduced that it can also be problematic for a Spanish speaker using English /l/ Stockwell & Bowen (1969).

Through the explanation of English vowels, Kelly (2000) talks about the most difficult ones which Spanish learners can face. The author refers to the closed vowels /ɪ, ʊ/, the mid vowels /ə/ and /ɔ:/ and most open vowels /æ/, /ʌ/ and /ɑ:/. Regarding diphthongs, this author says that all of them are difficult for Spanish learners since as it could be noticed in Figure 2, Figure 3, and Figure 4, none of them coincide with the Spanish ones, their point of articulation is different in each of them. This author gives some suggestions in order to help learners remember how to pronounce English sounds (Figure 6, Figure 7, Figure 8). These suggestions coincide with some of the ones given by Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982). In addition, examples of activities are provided so that teachers can use them in the lessons. Some of them are 'phonemic bingo', using phonemes instead of numbers; snapping cards to find pairs; or phonemic crosswords, some which could be used as a complement to any phonic programme.

| Sound | Suggestion |
|---------------|---|
| Vowels | |
| i: | A 'smiling' sound. Smile widely, make and hold the sound. Demonstrate that it is a 'long' sound. |
| ɪ | Make the sound, and make it obviously short. If necessary, contrast it with /i:/. |
| ʊ | A short sound. Exaggerate the forward position of your lips. One way into this sound is to ask students what noise a gorilla makes! |
| u: | Make and hold the sound. Use a 'rising then falling' intonation, as if you've heard something surprising, or some interesting gossip (uuUUuu). Demonstrate that it is a 'long' sound. |
| e | A short sound. Make the sound, and point out the loosely spread position of your lips. |
| ə | The 'Friday afternoon' sound. Relax your whole body, slump your shoulders, relax your face and mouth, and say /ə/, as though completely exhausted. |
| ɜ: | The 'something horrible' sound. Make and hold the sound, curl your upper lip, and pretend to look at something nasty. Look in the litter bin, if there is one to hand. Demonstrate that it is a 'long' sound. |
| ɔ: | The 'either/or' sound. Liken it to the word <i>or</i> . Demonstrate that it is a 'long' sound. |
| æ | Make the sound, and point out the neutrally open shape of your lips. |
| ʌ | Make the sound, and throw your head back slightly as you do it. This works well if contrasted with /æ/. |
| ɑ: | The 'holding the baby' sound. Place your arms as though holding a baby, and say /ɑ:/. Demonstrate that it is a 'long' sound. |
| ɒ | Make the sound, and point out your lightly rounded lips. |

Figure 6. Suggestions for learners to pronounce English vowels. (Kelly, 2000).

| Diphthongs | |
|------------|--|
| | For all diphthongs, one of the best techniques is to get students to make and hold the first element, then slowly move to the second. Finish off by making the sound at a 'normal' speed. Some other suggestions are made below. |
| ɪə | Make the sound while tugging your ear. |
| ʊə | Hold the first sound, and move to the second. |
| eə | Likened this to the word <i>air</i> . Point to your hair. Say <i>over there</i> , or <i>on the chair</i> . All will give good examples of the sound, which you can then isolate. |
| eɪ | Pretend not to hear someone, and say <i>eh?</i> |
| ɔɪ | Words work best here: <i>toy, boy, enjoy</i> . |
| aɪ | Make the sound and point to your eye. |
| əʊ | <i>Oh, hello</i> , said slowly, and exaggerated a little, works well. |
| aʊ | The 'shut your finger in the door' sound. Pretending to do this and making the sound while pulling a 'pained' expression works rather well! |

Figure 7. Suggestions for learners to pronounce English diphthongs. (Kelly, 2000).

| 'Home' sound | 'Halfway house' | 'Destination' |
|--------------|-----------------|---------------|
| i: | ɪ | e |
| ɪ | e | æ |
| e | æ | ɑ: |
| æ | ʌ | ɒ |
| æ | ɑ: | ɒ |
| ɑ: | ɒ | ɔ: |
| ɒ | ɔ: | ʊ |
| ɔ: | ʊ | u: |
| e | ə or ɜ: | ɔ: |

Figure 8. Suggestions for learners to pronounce difficult sounds which are between two others. (Kelly, 2000).

Regarding consonants, Kelly (2000) states that the ones which are more difficult for Spanish learners are /p, b, d, k, g, tʃ, dʒ, v, z, ʃ, ʒ, m (at the end of words), r, j, w/ which coincides with the commentaries given by previous mentioned authors, as Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) and Mott (2011). Some ideas are also given in order to help learners pronounce English consonants (Figure 9). In addition, different activities are exemplified to be used by teachers such as

‘hangman’; searching phonemes which form a word in a grid; sound chains; or dictations. Dictations seem to be common in phonics programmes.

| Sounds | Ideas to help students articulate sounds |
|------------|--|
| p b | Hold a small piece of paper in front of your lips. Make the sounds. The paper should move for /p/, but not for /b/. |
| t d k g | Hold a match or lighter in front of your face. Make the sounds. You should be able to make the flame flicker for /t/ and /k/, but less for /d/ and /g/. |
| f v | Hold your palm in front of your mouth. Make both sounds. You should feel some air for /f/, but less for /v/. |
| θ ð | Place a finger against your lips. Try to touch your finger with your tongue. Breathe out. Now add your voice. (This exaggerates the positions, but will help nonetheless.) |
| s z | What noise does a snake make? (/s/). Now add your voice. |
| ʃ ʒ | What noise do you make if you want someone to be quiet? (Show ‘Shh . . .’ gesture if necessary.) Now add your voice. |
| h | Hold your palm in front of your mouth. Open your mouth and breathe out. Don’t use your voice, try to make sure you can feel the air on your palm. |
| m | Link this with ‘liking something’ (e.g. food, as in <i>Mmm, nice</i>). |
| n | Use a word as an example, with /n/ as the last sound. Hold the sound, and get students to copy. |
| ŋ | Use ‘-ing’ words as examples (e.g. <i>singing</i>). |
| l | Use repeated syllables, as in <i>lalalalala</i> . |
| r | Point your tongue towards the roof of your mouth, but don’t let the tip touch. Breathe out, using your voice, and hold the sound for as long as you can. |
| j | Smile, and say /i:/ . Now quickly say /ə/. Say the two together, and keep it short. |
| w | What shape is your mouth if you are going to whistle? Now use your voice, and say /wə/. Also try /wəwəwi:wə:wu:/ etc., to practise using different vowels after /w/. |

Figure 9. Suggestions for learners to pronounce English consonants. (Kelly, 2000).

Furthermore, it is also necessary to consider the environment in which English letters behave. For example, according to Kelly (2000), many vowels are shortened between some consonants as in ‘cap’; when final <e> appears, a long vowel or a diphthong is pronounced as in ‘cape’; when final <r> appears, a long vowel will come up as in ‘carp’. There are also environmental restrictions according to this author, as it is the case of <ng>, which can appear in medial or final position but not at the beginning of a word (Kelly, 2000).

More recently, Gleason (2012) mentions common pronunciation errors made by Spanish speakers learning English as an L2. As a summary, this author comments that the most common errors are found in /i:/ and /ɪ/ since Spanish does not have length change in vowels which could imply a change in meaning. As an example, this author says that they can pronounce 'sheep' as 'ship'. In addition, /t, d/ are also common errors when they appear in final position as /d/ can become /ð/, which is not a critical error but can cause problems in understanding. Less problematic errors, according to Gleason (2012), are /p, b/ as Spanish people just need to add aspiration. /ɔ, əʊ / are also less problematic as they are similar to Spanish sounds. This also coincides with what Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) and Mott (2011) mention.

Aligned to the authors previously mentioned, Pavón (2000) also states the importance related to the fact that a teacher needs to be aware of and convinced that acquiring a good pronunciation is necessary in order to be understood by different native or non-native speakers. There should be more specific focus on pronunciation during the early years and this is the only way to avoid fossilization of errors. This should be included as part of the communicative process learning. Stockwell & Bowen (1969) also state that the moment which is more effective in order to learn the phonology of an L2 'is early in students' acquaintance with the language or with any specific fragment of it' (p. 120). Difficulties are normal when learning a second language and should be taken into account by teachers. For these reasons, teachers should be well trained in order to attain an effective teaching. As Pavón (2000) says, teaching needs to have a focus on phonology. Due to that and as Kelly (2000) states 'a consideration of learners' pronunciation errors and of how these can inhibit successful communication is a useful basis on which to assess why it is important to deal with pronunciation in the classroom' (p. 11) and so, teachers need 'a good grounding in theoretical knowledge, practical classroom skills and access to good ideas for classroom activities' (Kelly, 2000, p. 13).

For the reasons stated above, it seems important to analyse the role of pronunciation in the different teaching methods which have been developed throughout history.

Through the book written by Richards & Rodgers (2014), it is possible to understand that during the 1840s and 1940s, when teaching was based on the Grammar-translation method,

pronunciation was irrelevant in the teaching process with grammar and translation being the language areas emphasised. In the 1880s, linguists started what is known as ‘The Reform Movement’ as a reaction to the Grammar-translation method emphasising the speech and phonetics as important goals in the teaching of second languages. Then, the Direct Method was developed. This method was aligned to the ‘natural’ learning focus, which Stephen Krashen related to the idea that second language learning was attempted to be learnt as first language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). After that, the Oral Approach (1920s-1930s) or Situational Language Teaching (1950s-1960s) appeared. The former was based on oral procedures with a systematic linguistic base and the latter language structures introduced in situations where they could be used. In the mid 1950s, the Audiolingual Method turned up in the United States. Although similar to the British Situational Language Teaching, the Audiolingual method emphasised practice to work on speech through structures, in which pronunciation activities were included.

In the 1960s-1970s, the Communicative Language Teaching appeared as a reaction to the previous methods as linguists argue that language needs to be taught through ‘communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express.’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 85). In the 1980s, Content-Based Instruction appeared in different settings around the world while in Europe, Content Language Integrated Learning emerged in the 1990s. Both were considered as approaches based on teaching content and language integrated in each lesson with much focus on comprehension. Following these approaches, others based on several competences which pupils need to achieve (Competency-Based Language Teaching), on tasks (Task-Based Language Teaching) or on texts (Text-Based Instruction) appeared. The last two approaches were more based on some parts of the language, such as grammar. In the early XX century, the Lexical approach with a focus on vocabulary; the Multiple Intelligences based on Gardner’s intelligences which should be developed by students in each lesson; or the Cooperative Language Learning based on group work cooperation, also turned up.

Within the XX century, other alternative methods and approaches were developed. Among them, the Natural approach (focused on comprehensive communication), the Total Physical Response Approach (combining comprehension with action activities), the Silent Way

(focused on making students talk as much as possible with pronunciation exercises), the Community Language Learning (in which language is focused on communicative situations in interaction), Suggestopedia (focused on vocabulary through music, rhythm and intonation) and the Comprehension Approach also appeared.

As it can be noticed not all of them gave the same importance to the learning of pronunciation through phonology or listening activities. As Pavón (2000) mentions, and to sum up, in the 1960s, the Audiolingual process turned up giving the necessary importance to pronunciation but it was more focused on correcting errors orally. In the 1960s and 1970s, the mentalist approach began to favour vocabulary and syntax, leaving pronunciation behind again as it was commonly thought that it was impossible to acquire the same or a similar pronunciation that a native speaker could have. However, in the late 1970s, the Communicative method started to give more relevance to it again but it was based on communicative needs by focusing on errors which only affected intelligibility. So, until the 1980s, pronunciation was almost non-existent in teaching lessons.

Within the XX century, it is important to highlight the Silent Way, a method which was focused on making students produce as much as possible and the teachers need to be as much silent as possible. So, the learner is in charge of discovering the language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). As the authors mention, the father of this method was Caleb Gattegno, known for introducing the teaching method based on coding sounds with colours in order to facilitate initial reading. The Silent Way was based on rods and colour-coded pronunciation charts which helped learners to remember pronunciation aspects. So, each symbol had a colour which coded according to sounds. So, it may be said to have similar features to *Jolly Phonics*, which links sounds to actions instead of colours. This method will be described in the following section.

In summary, as Baker (2011) says, pronunciation has not been given much importance throughout the history of English teaching. The author carried out a study with some interviews and questionnaires to teachers and students. All of the students agreed on the fact that they preferred to be corrected regarding pronunciation and teachers said to have a lack of motivation for teaching it. Even though they said to have taken courses on pronunciation, they still did not

feel confident when teaching it. So, it seems that students and teachers prefer to have more focus on pronunciation.

Related to the teaching of pronunciation, there is also an aspect which is not normally specified in English lessons, which is accent. This aspect can help teachers understand difficulties when learning the language and can also help learners to understand the difficulties they may face in real communication. By being aware of the different accents, they can be more prepared to understand other people speaking in English. According to Jolliffe & Waugh (2015), accents may be a challenge in the learning process. Examples provided by the authors are found in words such as 'but' which can rhyme, in some places, with 'cup' and, in others, with 'food'. This is something which can not only appear among speakers of English but also among each teacher of English. Furthermore, it is important to notice, as Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) say, that there may also be just between four and five sounds which are pronounced across all accents. Thus, it should be taken into account that accents exist and each child will have its own accent inevitably. It is important to teach them that there are different accents and that the Standard English is used in order to be understood across the world.

Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) present a case study related to that issue by saying that teachers can tell pupils to use the 'Queen's hat' in order to pronounce the Standard English (also known as 'Received Pronunciation', 'Queen's English' or 'BBC English') with the purpose of making them be aware that it is not wrong to have an accent. It is necessary to say that as Kelly (2000) comments, less than 3% of the British population uses this accent. Pavón (2000) also mentions the terms 'native accent' and 'foreign accent' and says that accents are a reality and everyone has a different one regardless of the nationality of that person. According to him, this is something which should be taught, that it is, that accents exist and that there could be other aspects, as reduction and simplification processes, in the spoken language which also need to be taught, as they are a reality. However, that shouldn't be a focus in order to avoid the learner forgets other aspects of the language. In order to integrate pronunciation in a lesson, Kelly (2000) suggests some techniques and activities such as drilling, which consists in making pupils repeat words or structures; chaining, which is based on giving parts of sentences to be completed by pupils; substitution drilling, which is similar to drilling but changing some words

of a sentence; use of minimal pairs as ‘cat’ and ‘cut’ which could be both pronounced with the Spanish /a/ as it is of great difficulty for Spanish people to differentiate them; exercises with homophones and homographs; exercises related to recording students’ English in a tape; listening and comprehension activities to work on pronunciation aspects as accent; or reading aloud activities.

Then, if a phonics method is considered in this research, contrastive phonetics seems important in order to analyse Spanish children’s difficulties when learning English as a second language.

2. METHODS FOR TEACHING READING

The development of emergent literacy skills is related to the type of instruction performed in classrooms (Pinto et al, 2016; Márquez, 2013). Teaching strategies are essential for a good acquisition and development of languages.

Throughout time, several studies have presented the use of two different teaching approaches for reading. Guzmán-Simón et al. (2015) and Bigas & Correig (2002) describe these specific approaches: synthetic and analytic. The former is, as its proper name indicates, based on a bottom-up teaching which starts with the smallest units of languages (phonemes, graphemes and syllables) to the widest or global units (words, sentences and texts). Through this approach pupils are needed to manage the decoding elements in order to be able to synthesise and blend so that they can later read properly. Its implementation can be carried out in three different ways: through the alphabetic method, which is focused on teaching first the letter name and relate it to an image; through the phonetic method, whose teaching starts with a phoneme connected to a grapheme; or through the syllabic method, in which syllables are taught first.

Regarding the analytic approach, teaching is based on a top-bottom process, that is, it starts with the global units and moves on to the smallest units of languages. This type of approach allows learners to work with previous knowledge of a text. Three methods can also be differentiated inside this approach: the lexical method, in which words are first introduced; the global method, in which sentences or texts are first presented; or integrated, based on the combination between lexical and global methods. Bigas & Correig (2002) also present another type of approach, which is the interactive one, which combines both synthetic and analytic approaches. As an example, Goswami (1995) talks about ‘analytic phonics’, a method in which words are decoded based on patterns related with other words. Another example is THRASS (Teaching Handwriting, Reading and Spelling Skills) which mixes the use of both synthetic and analytic phonics.

For teaching English, there are also approaches which are similar to the ones presented above. In Figure 10, a summary (Jiménez & Artiles, 2001) compares both synthetic and analytic approaches for Spanish and their correspondent name in English:

CUADRO A
Revisión de métodos de enseñanza de la lectura más utilizados en la escuela, según distintos países

| | LITERATURA ESPAÑOLA | LITERATURA INGLESA |
|---|--|--|
| Métodos sintéticos (Decodificación grafo-fónica) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alfabético • Fónico • Silábico | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ABC o Alphabetic method • Phonics method • Linguistic approach |
| Métodos analíticos o globales (Comprensión) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Léxicos • Global-natural | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole-word method • Lenguaje experience approach |

Figure 10. Review of teaching methods. (Jiménez & Artiles, 2001, p. 80).

As this figure presents, in English it is possible to find the ABC or alphabetic method which is based on the same idea as the Spanish alphabetic one, that it is, on learning the letter names first. The phonics method is based on the relation of sounds to letters. Similar to the phonics methods, the linguistic approach appears, which is based on the teaching of sounds through monosyllabic words and pseudo-words. In this case, children learn letter sounds through a sequence of words through which they need to discover the association between letters and sounds. The whole-word method would correspond to the Spanish lexical method which is based on the association of visual patterns (words) to meanings. Finally, the language experience approach (similar to the Spanish global method) includes the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). In this approach, teachers ask children for their own experience. Then, children tell a story that the teacher summarises in two sentences. The teacher writes the sentences emphasizing the trace of the letters, the sounds of each of them and making them aware that what they said can be written by using the alphabet. As a final step, once children are ready, they would write their own stories by copying the sentences. This method may have risen from the Whole Language Approach based on the idea that there is an

interactional relationship between readers and writers. Language is used in communication for authentic functions in situations relevant for pupils. This approach views all four language skills as integrated and cannot work on their own.

Thus, slight differences can be found between the Spanish and English classification of methods. The essence of each of them is the same and the debate about which one is best in order to teach reading and writing is widespread around the world. However, these methods have always been a source of criticism.

Related to this, Jiménez & Artiles (2001) present the advantages and disadvantages that these methods may have. These authors mention that synthetic methods help pupils to memorize the phonological system faster than when an analytic method is used. This is due to the fact that it may be more efficient to teach phonemes before graphemes in terms of rapid association and decoding process. This type of method may also help children to acquire more autonomy and instruct them to decode any word or pseudo-word to be able to read on their own. On the other hand, these authors comment that analytic methods present a more ‘natural’ learning process promoting children’s interest and creativity. They also say that these methods have the advantage of attending best pupils’ needs. However, they consider that learning to read through these types of methods may be slower than learning through synthetic methods as children have to work more on visual perception and less on listening perception. Thus, choosing a specific method would depend on pupils and teachers’ characteristics.

Regarding each type of method, the synthetic phonic method has been characterized by being faster, more dynamic and efficient regarding the fact that children learn directly the phonemes and relate them to graphemes (Cuetos, 2008). Jiménez & Ortiz (2007) mention that teaching through a synthetic phonic method has a ‘facilitating effect’ in terms of the acquisition of phonological awareness as it is more efficient and dynamic than the other methods.

In the case of Spain, the *Micho* method has been used for a long time and it is still being used in many schools. This is a synthetic phonic method which teaches first vowels in order to combine them to consonants. After that, words and phrases are introduced. This method is based on teaching a phoneme related to a story and its relation to a grapheme. After that,

speaking and vocabulary activities follow. Later on, psychomotor exercises are used to work on hand movements and pencil hold. Lessons continue with the joint of the grapheme to other vowels or consonants to form syllables and words, which links reading to writing processes. Calado, Cordero, García, & Jiménez (2007) say that this is a multisensorial method which can also be used to help children with reading problems. The use of stories makes learning more interesting and motivating by making children develop attention, creativity and other abilities. Finally, and among other advantages, these authors mention that developing the ability of decoding words, pupils' autonomy can grow allowing them to read any word or pseudo-word in Spanish.

Then, in general, from what these authors say, it seems that phonics has more advantages as children learn easier and faster how to read.

The concern about what type of method is best to teach children reading skills is also found among other authors regarding English speaking countries. This uncertainty spreads to the countries where English is also taught as a second language.

Johnston & Watson (s.f.) also question the effectivity of synthetic and analytic approaches: 'We asked whether synthetic phonics (like *Jolly Phonics*) was more effective than analytic phonics' (p. 3). They mention in their study that pupils got to read seven months ahead of their actual age with high improvement in rhyming and phonological awareness. Thus, according to these authors, a synthetic method is effective for the development of these abilities. Dixon (2010) mentions that teaching methods should include phonics in order to help children read any possible word. If not, children would only be able to recognise familiar words. In this authors' research, it is mentioned that phonological awareness can predict word recognition in children learning English as a first or second language. Children who got better development in phonological awareness seemed to have better reading results, according to the author. In 2006, Stuart commented that '5-year-old children are ready and able to read to identify initial phonemes' (p. 24). More specifically, Schoaga, Akintola & Isiwat OKPOR (2017) talk about the effectiveness of using a synthetic phonics method in order to develop phonological awareness.

However, phonics methods have also been criticised. Concretely, Bowey (2000) questions some aspects of the phonics method as to what level of phonological awareness is needed in pre-school or what type of activities are better to practise. This author specifically wonders the effectiveness of phonic programmes, such as *Jolly Phonics*. Related to what activities should be taught in a phonics lesson, Stuart (2006) states that grapheme-phoneme correspondences and blending are necessary to work on pronunciation while segmenting words into graphemes is important in order to develop spelling skills. The author also specifies that in case of lexical or non-lexical processes, grapheme-phoneme correspondences work for both of them. The study carried out by McArthur et al. (2012) mentions that phonics training is effective. This study says that pseudo-word reading accuracy, word reading accuracy and letter-sound knowledge were statistically significant in children who learnt through a phonics programme.

To continue, more criticism is found regarding phonics methods. Hannon (2001), after analysing some teaching methods, says that synthetic phonics could have the disadvantage of not making children grow on comprehension as it is only focused on one level of literacy: phonemes. In addition, Campbell, Torr & Cologon (2011) state that phonics programmes normally focus on ‘reading sub-skills’ and not all areas of literacy development as ‘vocabulary, comprehension and discourse structures’ (p. 370) as Hannon (1995) mentions. Later on, Campbell (2015) also says that teaching only phonics is not enough. This author claims that reading pleasure and comprehension strategies are needed in the literacy development of a child.

In favour of phonics methods, more recently, Nasrawi & Al-Jamal (2017) state that ‘phonics helps learners to read and write quickly and fluently as they get to read and write easier’ (p. 106). Related to this, Savage, Georgiou, Parrila & Maiorino (2018) confirm the positive values of using a synthetic phonics method. Their research focuses on the implementation of *Direct Mapping and Set-for-Variability* programme, which is based on the identification of phonemes and graphemes. This programme seems to have a great development on pupils’ reading skills, specifically on word reading, spelling and comprehension. Other research studies with intervention based on the learning of phonological awareness and phonetic strategies also seem to be effective. Dussling (2018) evinces its effectivity through the *Road to the Code*

programme. All participating pupils, whose mother tongue was different (Somali, French, Arabic, Burmese, Chinese), presented a great improvement from pre-test to post-test in terms of segmenting phonemes and word and pseudo-word reading. Analysing phoneme segmentation in Spanish learners of English could be more reliable than analysing rhyme since, although rhyming structures are different in these languages, phonological awareness can be transferred as there may be similar features in both languages (Raynolds, López-Velásquez & Olivo Valentín, 2017). Then, it seems that more recent research has found a possible development of comprehension in phonics programmes. It probably depends on how the method is implemented and the type of activities included.

Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) provide important aspects regarding systematic synthetic phonics in primary schools. They cover information about the research carried out on this teaching method and offer strategies for teachers. These authors say that teaching reading and phonics has become a government focus not only in the United Kingdom but also around the world. They mention authors such as Wyse & Goswami (2008) who state that more research is needed since they still doubt about the good advantages of this method to develop reading skills. However, in 2005, Rosowsky mentioned that after the study carried out in Clackmanshire by Johnston & Watson (2005), the National Literacy Strategy was asked to reconsider methods to teach how to read and write as it seems that a phonics programme can help children develop reading skills. As a result, for some years now, phonics forms part of the English National Curriculum for schools. As it is stated for Year 1 pupils, children learn to ‘spell new words using phonics as the prime approach’ (Primary Framework for literacy and mathematics, 2006, p. 25).

Before reading and writing, children develop the ability to talk (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015). It seems that it could be easier to teach how to read in similar ways to the oral language (Browne, 2001). In that case, special care should be taken into account when dealing with Spanish children learning English as a second language. As commented in the previous sections of this literature review, reading and writing in English should be introduced once children have been formally taught to read and write in Spanish. Then, according to that, reading and writing in English should start in Primary Education in Spain. Thus, pupils could start communicating in English before this period, that it is, during Early Childhood Education so that they can have a

first step based on the ability of talking and increase vocabulary in order to facilitate the learning of emergent literacy skills. Due to that, home background may also be important to develop language skills and increase vocabulary in the early years, which could be the base for systematic teaching of phonics.

The controversy of the methods is not only between synthetic and analytic methods but also among synthetic methods such as the phonic and alphabetic ones. There is a constant debate about what is best to teach first, letter names or letter sounds, which was already mentioned by Stuart in 2006. Weinberger (1996) already mentions that learning letter names before letter sounds could help children learn the former easier. Children relate things to names but it may make them ‘produce the wrong sound for many letters’ (Stuart, 2006, p.23). Related to that, Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) first mention that ‘the most common practice is to teach the alphabet and letter names very early and this knowledge acts as a basis for new knowledge, particularly when children learn that letters can make different sounds.’ (p. 7). Nevertheless, later on, they comment that ‘the development of phonological awareness [...] needs training not linked to letters’ (p.9). Learning letter names and sounds at the same time could be detrimental because children may be confused with two aspects for just one symbol. Probably, it may be better to start with sounds and, then, their names. However, the authors mention that learning the alphabet can function as previous knowledge in order to acquire letter sounds. So, this may depend on the type of language, that it is, if the language being learnt is transparent or opaque and if it is a first or second language.

Furthermore, it is necessary to consider that the teaching of phonics should be systematic with a planned programme in order to be successful. ‘For the best result, it should be carefully planned by the teacher with regard to the children’s need and ability’ (Ariati, et al., 2018, p. 6). Any systematic progression should include: first contact with grapheme-phoneme correspondences regarding some consonants and short vowels; introduction to long vowels; teaching complex high frequency words; teaching alternative pronunciation and spelling; and application of grapheme-phoneme correspondences (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015). According to these authors, any phonic lesson should be ‘pacey, interactive and relevant for children’ (p. 132) and should: include opportunities of input and output; use of visual materials, use

decodable texts; work on continuous coaching; carry out ongoing formative assessments; include partner work; teach one phoneme per day; revise phonemes previously taught; and teach alliterative phrases or mnemonics (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015). It is also important to consider, according to these authors, that phonic lessons should be short, with a duration of 15-20 minutes per day and teach one sound per day. In the past, one sound was taught per week but it seemed to be problematic in the learning process as children could use other strategies, and not phonic skills, in order to read unfamiliar words (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015).

To conclude, Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) examine several systematic synthetic programmes such as *Jolly Phonics* (Lloyd & Wernham, 1998, 2013), *Read Write Inc* (Miskin, 2011) and *Letter and Sounds* (DfES, 2007). They also mention *THRASS* (Teaching Handwriting, Reading and Spelling Skills) which uses both synthetic and analytic phonics approaches. In the following section, *Jolly Phonics* is explained as it is the method decided to be chosen in this research to teach emergent literacy skills of English as a second language to Spanish pupils during the intervention period.

2.1. The *Jolly Phonics* method

Throughout time, several methods for teaching English have been a source of discussion. However, *Jolly Phonics*, a synthetic phonics method, seems to be possibly effective for the learning and development of phonological awareness in order to acquire initial abilities for reading. This method appeared for the first time in 1975 in the Primary School of Woods Loke, Lowestoft, Suffolk, due to the fact that a group of pupils were presenting some reading problems. With this method, these pupils could first learn sounds connected to actions. At the end of the implementation, the reading problems seemed not to be present (Lloyd & Wernham, 1998, 2013).

The method follows the established National English Curriculum and its objectives and standards can be found in Jolly Learning (s. f.). The method itself consists of teaching 42 English sounds (except /ə/ and /z/ which are taught in the second year of *Jolly Phonics*, known as *Jolly Grammar*), during a period of nine weeks (a sound per day). Those sounds are

classified into seven groups¹ depending on their difficulty for learning. First, the sounds are presented in connection to actions and then stories, songs, words and pictures in flashcards, and games follow to practise them. So, it seems that multimodal materials are crucial in this method. As Pinter (2006) states ‘visual aids would attract children’s attention and help them make the links between spoken and written forms’ (p. 69).

Through this method, pupils can work on five specific pre-reading skills:

The first skill is *letter sounds*, based on the connection between a sound and an action. For example, in order to learn the /s/, the teacher weaves the hand making the shape of an <s> and saying /sssss/ as a snake. This is first presented by the teacher who continues telling a story related to the sound and presenting vocabulary which contains the sound worked in the session. For example, the story for the /s/ would be ‘a boy and his dog are out on a walk when the dog begins to bark. In front of them, a snake rears up out of the grass and hisses ‘sssssss’ (Lloyd & Wernham, 1998, 2013). Vocabulary includes this sound, such as ‘sun, sun, spots, nest’. Through this way, individual letter sounds, diagraphs (e.g. /ei/ <ai>) and alternative spellings (e.g. /ei/ <ai, a_e, ay>) are presented to be worked through different activities and songs. Alternative spellings are taught once children have mastered the simple ones.

Letter formation is the second *Jolly Phonics*’ skill. This is focused on the ability to form letters correctly and to hold pencils properly. The method provides different resources so that children can work on tracing letters. It is important to keep in mind that in the case of Spain, this skill is already practised during the Spanish reading lessons. So, this is something which could just be reinforced in English.

Blending is the third skill, which is based on joining sounds together to hear and form words. There are different activities to work on this skill, such as the use of flashcards (Figure 11).

¹ Group 1: <s, a, t, i, p, n> /s/, /æ/, /t/, /i/, /p/, /n/.
Group 2: <k, e, h, r, m, d> /k/, /e/, /h/, /r/, /m/, /d/.
Group 3: <g, o, u, l, f, b> /g/, /v/, /l/, /f/, /b/.
Group 4: <ai, j, oa, ie, ee, or> /ei/, /dʒ/, /əv/, /ai/, /i:/, /o:/.
Group 5: <z, w, ng, v, short and long oo> /z/, /w/, /ŋ/, /v/, /v/, /u:/.
Group 6: <y, x, ch, sh, voiced and unvoiced th> /j/, /ks/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/, /ð/, /θ/.
Group 7: <k, ou, oi, ue, er, ar> /k/, /aʊ/, /ɔi/, /ju:/, /ɜ:/, /a:/.



Figure 11. Blending flashcard. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

The fourth skill is *phonological awareness*. This can be also worked through different activities, such as sounding out a word or dictations. As Ehri (1987) mentions learning to spell phonetically can help children learn to read.

Finally, problematic or *tricky words* (as the method terms them) are words which do not follow the phonetic rules of the method and have to be learnt by heart or by using different strategies, as finding the ‘tricky’ part of the word or through the *look, copy, cover, write and check* strategy (Figure 12). Related to that, Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) also mention that it is important to teach children ‘tricky’ words as the ‘whole thing’ in order to be able to identify them visually. They can practice through games, activities and the use of flashcards or posters. In addition, it is said children should learn two or three tricky words per week.



Figure 12. Tricky words strategy. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

The authors of the method mention that *Jolly Phonics* should be first carried out when children are 4 years old, that is, during Early Childhood Education as it is a reading and writing

method. So, it seems to be normal to start teaching it since early childhood. However, this method could be adapted depending on children’s abilities (Ariati et al., 2018) and, of course, if the method is used to teach English as an additional language. *Jolly Phonics* specifies that the 42 sounds should be taught in the first term, a sound would be ideally introduced each day during nine weeks (or at least three sounds per week), together with alternative sounds, blending and tricky words. They would be revised in the following two school terms with more alternative sounds, blending and ‘tricky’ words with the addition of dictations and the use of readers. This timetable could also be modified when teaching English as an additional language as school time for English in most of the countries, as in Spain, is less than in the United Kingdom as most of this time is dedicated to teach the first language. Figure 13 includes the programme as the method says to use in the United Kingdom.

However, it may be suggested another plan in order to be used in Spain (Figure 13). This is important if the moment of introducing the second language is considered. As mentioned in the section before about the aspects of the early bilingual literacy process, it seems important to have a foundation for the mother tongue in order to start learning how to read in a second language. So, it seems reasonable to introduce a teaching method to learn English in the first year of Primary Education, that it is, when children are 6-7 years old and have already being introduced to reading in Spanish.

| U.K. | 4-5 years old | 5-6 years old | 6-7 years old | 7-8 years old | 8-9 years old | 9-10 years old | 10-11 years old |
|-------|--|--|--|---|--|----------------|-----------------|
| SPAIN | 6-7 years old 1st year of primary Education | 7-8 years old 2nd year of primary Education | 8-9 years old 3rd year of primary Education | 9-10 years old 4th year of primary Education | 10-11 years old 5th year of primary Education | | |
| | <i>Jolly Phonics</i> | <i>Jolly Grammar (Continuation of Jolly Phonics with Grammar and Spelling)</i> | | | | | |

Figure 13. Suggested *Jolly Phonics* programme for U.K. and Spain. Adapted from (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

Jolly Phonics has been researched through several experimental studies since 1975. These studies have been focused on the use of *Jolly Phonics*, not only for teaching English as a first but also as second language. Stuart (1999) carried out an implementation of the method during twelve weeks. The author concludes that the experimental group presented high levels of phonological awareness. These results were not found in the control group. These author's outcomes are also aligned with the ones obtained by other authors (Ekpo, Udosen, Afangideh, Ekukinam & Ikorok, 2010; Inaja, Ubi & Anagbogu, 2012; Eshiet, 2016; Asonze, s.f.). Specifically, Ekpo et al. (2010) state that the use of proper conditions and materials also seem to improve pupils' reading skills which can clearly be done through *Jolly Phonics*. So, according to them the synthetic phonics method should be adopted to teach reading in English at an early stage. In 2001, Hus carried out an experimental research focused on teaching *Jolly Phonics* during the suggested nine weeks and saw that, in this short period, children got phonological gains. This author states that early reading intervention is effective and can prevent reading disabilities in bilingual and multilingual children. Bowyer-Crane et al. (2008) affirm that pupils participating in programmes focused on phonology and reading significantly improve their phonological awareness and reading skills. This positively affected their emergent literacy skills. These authors affirm that early language and word reading were predictors of later reading skills.

Callinan & Van der Zee (2010) also comment that a pure synthetic phonic method is more effective. Through a comparative research between *Jolly Phonics* and *THRASS* (Teaching Handwriting, Reading and Spelling Skills), a synthetic and analytic phonics method, they evince that, after a nine-week implementation of the method, pupils who were taught through the *Jolly Phonics* method were able to recognize more words and pseudo-words and individual phonemes than pupils learning with *THRASS*. So, even in this case, it may seem that a pure phonics method presents better results.

Phonological awareness is not the only positive effect of this specific method. It is necessary to mention that reading is part of a social development, in which motivation plays an important role for pupils. Young learners normally have more positive attitudes towards learning a language which can be crucial for their subsequent learning process. Motivation during lessons

is highly significant and can help detect possible problems during the teaching-learning process. As Eshiet (2014) mentions children participate more actively during lessons and pay more attention. Farokhbakht (2015) also evinces that the experimental group using the *Jolly Phonics* method were highly motivated in comparison to the control group, which was taught through a traditional phonic method. *Jolly Phonics* presents materials which seem quite adequate not only for the teaching-learning process but also to work on motivation as it is very visual and present fun activities. Through daily observations, pupils seem to be more enthusiastic and motivated during the lessons and teachers tend to feel more confident throughout the whole implementation (Eshiet, 2014).

Furthermore, teachers are more focused and teach with passion creating a participating classroom environment and keeping children engaged (Eshiet, 2014). Another aspect is that through *Jolly Phonics* there was more positive impact when attendance was constant (Schagen & Shamsan, 2007). In addition, López-Cirugeda & López-Campillo (2016) mention that this method can motivate students when they have to read a text in English in subsequent years, being able to face the educational processes of bilingualism. Thus, in conclusion, *Jolly Phonics* does not only seem to contribute to having a high level of phonological awareness but also to a high motivation during the early literacy process.

In Spain, this method may seem to be different to other methods and teachers may not feel confident in implementing it due to the fact that they are used to the conventional methods provided by some publishing houses. They may need to be trained to feel confident and understand that the method may have similar resources to the ones they are used to. Moreover, Zaidi et al. (2016) state that this phonics method can have more effective results regarding the learning of key basic reading skills. Some case studies suggest that these types of opinions can change, as mentioned by Steele (s.f.). Robertson (s.f.) (Early Intervention Development Officer for Clackmannanshire Council) confirms that, throughout time, good results can be appreciated and, then, it is the moment when teachers feel more motivated and would start increasing the rhythm of the lessons. ‘Pupils’ success has surpassed our wildest expectations...’ Spence (s.f.) (Headteacher).

For this reason, it is possible to notice how teachers' perceptions can change at the time that the implementation moves forward. Smith (s.f.) from St. Michael School, Bristol, decided to teach *Jolly Phonics* after observing some reading problems in his pupils. Only three months later he could notice that these pupils significantly improved their literacy skills. Similar to this is the case of Wainwright (s.f.) (Reading and Special Needs Teacher) who says that her pupils' reading age was six months ahead of their actual age. Then, as can be noticed, once the *Jolly Phonics* implementation finishes, teachers and parents finally appreciate the method's effectiveness. Teachers state that they use phonics programmes for pragmatic or personal reasons related to children's interests and enjoyment and their own preferences (Campbell et al., 2011). In relation to that, Moodie-Reid (2016) says that teachers' general opinions of this method are that it has a positive effect on pupils with reading problems from the first to the third year of Primary Education.

Furthermore, Ekpo et al. (2010) say that *Jolly Phonics* can enhance the problems or impediments which cause children not to develop reading skills properly. Among these problems, they mention that the use of English in Primary Education, the high costs of books, inadequate instructional time, the poor preparation of teachers and the poor teaching methods, among others, are the principal causes of impeding children to develop reading skills. *Jolly phonics* can make children and teachers be more motivated with the provision of a synthetic method which uses proper and visual material. However, teacher training is still something which has to be covered in the different schools, specially, state schools in the case of Spain.

2.1.1 *Jolly Phonics* materials

Jolly Phonics offers a great quantity of different resources for teachers, parents and pupils. First of all, teachers are provided with a handbook (Figure 14) which contains the timetable (Figure 15) for the whole year of *Jolly Phonics* implementation. It continues with the explanation of the method, the basic *Jolly Phonics* skills, how they should be worked inside the classroom and how teachers can help parents to support them.

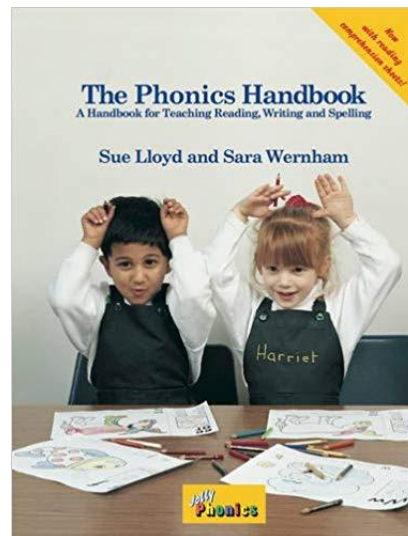


Figure 14 Jolly Phonics Handbook. (Lloyd, & Wernham, 2013).

Timetable for first term with Jolly Phonics

| Teaching | | Week 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|------------------------------------|--|--|--|---|---|---|--|---|---|----------------------------|
| Letter Recognition | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Worksheets + actions Flash cards & games Sound books Put up alphabet frieze, section by section | s a t i p | n c/k e h r | m d g o u | l f b a i j | o a i e e e o r z w | ng v y x oo oo | ch sh th th qu ou | oi ue er ar | Main alternative spellings |
| | | | | | | | Beginning letter names and capitals Beginning to learn alphabet Introducing consonant blends | | | |
| Letter Formation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Multi-sensory practice – pencil hold – correct formation | Air writing | | | Air writing, including joined-up digraphs | | | | Air writing, including joined-up digraphs and joined c.v.c. words | |
| Blending | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hearing the word after the sounds have been spoken a) by teacher, b) on their own Sound Books Letter games/ activities Word Boxes | | Practising sounds: first loud, then soft | Practising blending techniques on simple c.v.c. words | | | Practising blending regular words with consonant blends | | | |
| | | | | | | | | Beginning word boxes for capable children – takes 3-4 weeks | | |
| Identifying Sounds in Words | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encoding regular words Writing simple sentences Dictation | Dictation of sounds, then of c.v.c. words | | | | | Introducing characters from reading scheme | | | |
| | | Identifying the sounds in words. Is there an 's' in nest? Where is it? – beginning, middle or end? | | Whole class calling out sounds in given word, e.g. dog, then holding up a finger for each sound, and counting | | | Whole class identifying and counting the sounds in words with consonant blends | | | |
| Tricky Words | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading tricky words Learning spelling of tricky words | | Learning to write first name | | | Learning to spell tricky words – two per week | Dictation of simple sentences using regular words and tricky words already taught. | | | |

Figure 15 Timetable for first term. (Lloyd & Wernham, 1998).

After that, teachers can find the description of each lesson (Figure 16). It starts with a suggested storyline for the letter sound, the flashcard to be used, the action linked to the letter sound and any further information that teachers should know in order to teach that sound. Then, a photocopy sheet appears for each letter sound to work on letter formation.

Suggested Storyline for the ‘i’ sound: The family gets a new pet white mouse. That night the mouse gets out. It jumps on the desk and knocks over the ink bottle. Ink splashes over the mouse. After that the mouse is named ‘Inky’.

Flash Card: Teacher shows the letter ‘i’.

Action: Children pretend to be Inky Mouse and wiggle their fingers on the end of their nose saying *i i i i i*.

Letter Formation: Teacher shows how to form the letter ‘i’. Children form the letter in the air.

Further Phonics: The teacher tells the children that ‘i’ is another vowel. When children have a better knowledge of the sounds, they can be told that words do not like to end in ‘i’ (shy ‘i’), so ‘y’ (toughy ‘y’) takes its place in words such as ‘sunny, mummy, silly, happy’, etc.

Figure 16 Example of a lesson plan. (Lloyd & Wernham, 1998).

At the end of the handbook, teachers can find flashcard sheets which contain the individual simple sounds and more complex sounds, blending and ‘tricky’ words. They can cut them and give them to pupils so that they can create a sound book or a word box to work in groups in the classroom or to practise at home. Finally, more extra activities are presented to work with pupils who may present reading problems or may be fast finishers. These activities are: joining words to pictures; matching letters to words and pictures; cutting sentences to stick them to pictures; letter clue pictures; different reading games; writing the missing sounds; and activities to work on alternative sounds. Teachers are also provided with a book containing lists of blending and tricky words which can be used to work each group of sounds.

In order to introduce sounds with stories to pupils, teachers can also use ‘big’ books, which contain all the stories and are big visual and attractive material for pupils (Figure 17). The content is the same which can be found in pupils’ books.

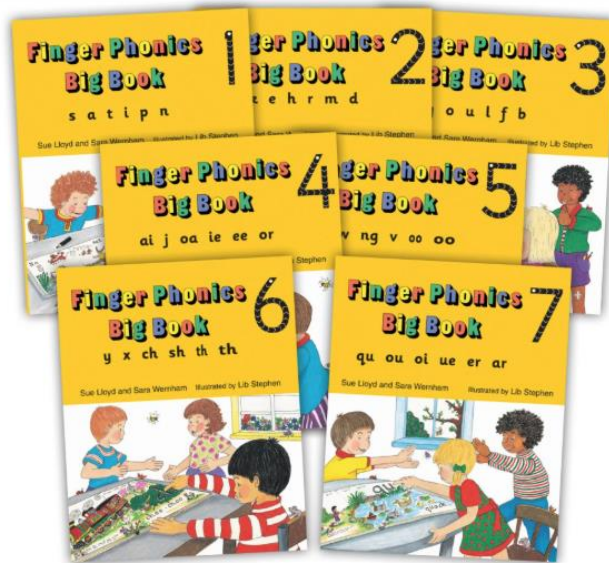


Figure 17. Finger phonics big books. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

Regarding pupils, they can have a book and a workbook (Figure 18). The former (Figure 19) contains pictures which represent the story told by the teacher and it shows written words which contain the specific sound presented in the session. Pupils' books are multisensory and children can touch each letter form to facilitate the development of this ability. Each workbook (Figure 20) comprises activities based on letter formation, identification of individual sounds in words, writing the missing sounds in words or matching sounds to pictures.



Figure 18. Pupils' book and workbook. (Lloyd & Wernham, 1993, 1995).

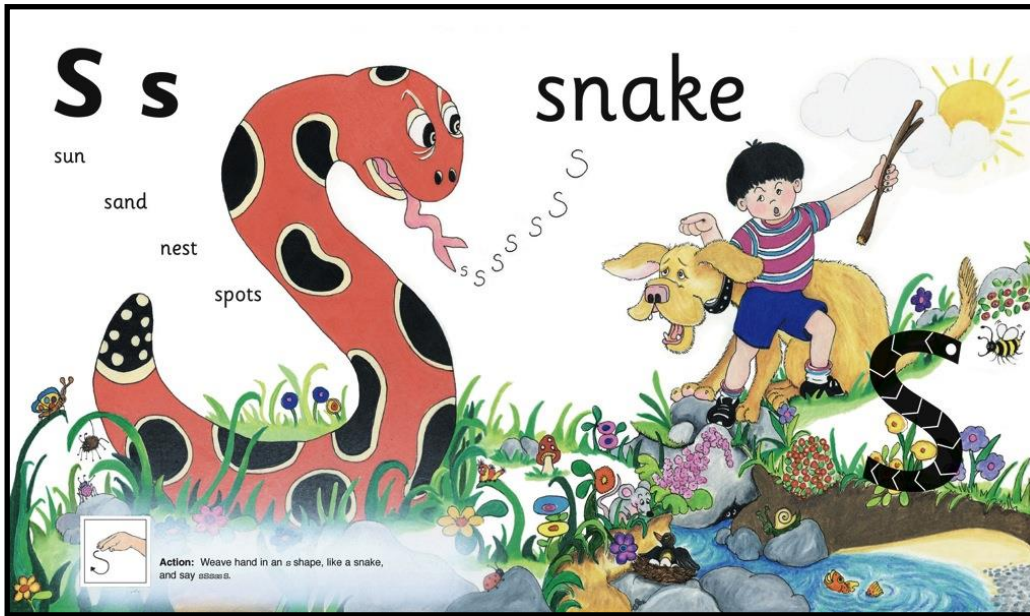


Figure 19. Example of pupils' book. (Lloyd & Wernham, 1993).

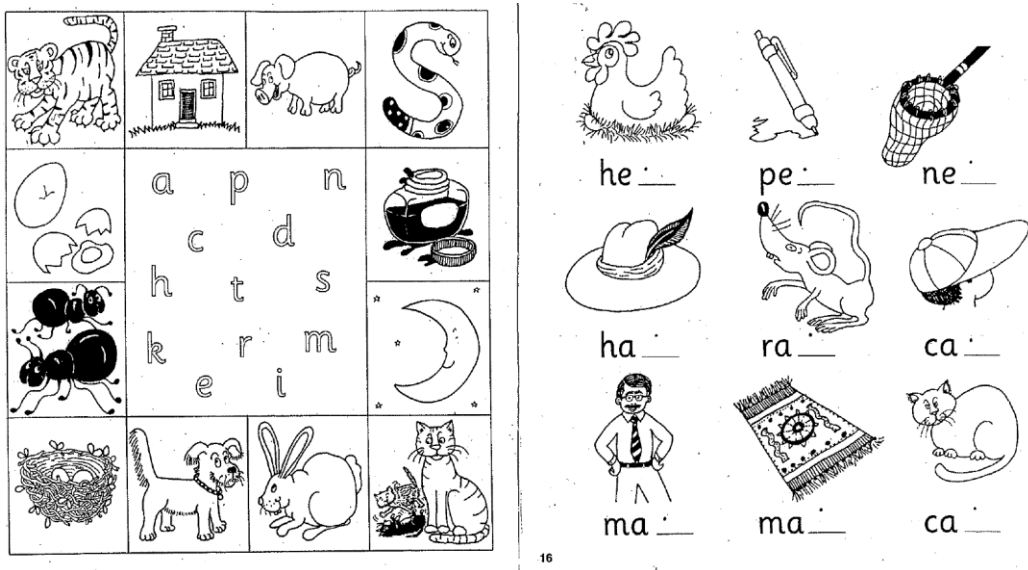


Figure 20. Example of pupils' workbook. (Lloyd & Wernham, 1995).

Teachers are also provided with flashcards (Figure 21) to be used in every lesson. There are flashcards which contain just a letter to work on letter sounds; flashcards containing the sound and a word on one side and, on the other side, a picture and dots which stand for the sounds of the word; and flashcards containing simple, complex and 'tricky' words.



Figure 21. Examples of flashcards (individual sounds, blending and tricky words). (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

Jolly Phonics materials also include puppets (Figure 22) which are the main characters of the stories and are presented with each sound: snake, inky and bee. Posters are also provided as they are very visual containing the different groups of sounds with characteristic pictures, alternative spellings or ‘tricky’ words.



Figure 22. Puppets. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

Songs are an important part of *Jolly Phonics* as they are related to the sound and action worked in each lesson (Figure 23). They are very useful to practise them and make children remember in a fun way.

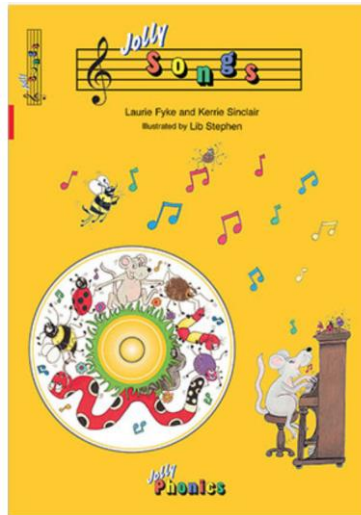


Figure 23. Jolly songs. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

In each lesson, pupils can be individually assessed through activities presented in the white and black pupils' book. These books can also be found in colour for teachers and pupils (Figure 24). The books contain activities which are based on letter formation and identification of sounds. The latter (Figure 25) comprises four pictures and pupils have to cross out the picture whose name does not contain the sound worked in the session. There is a worksheet for each sound. Furthermore, there is a second part of this book with revision activities.



Figure 24. Pupils' black and white and colour books. (Lloyd & Wernham, 2013)

Three of these pictures have an /e/ sound in them. Cross out the one that does not.

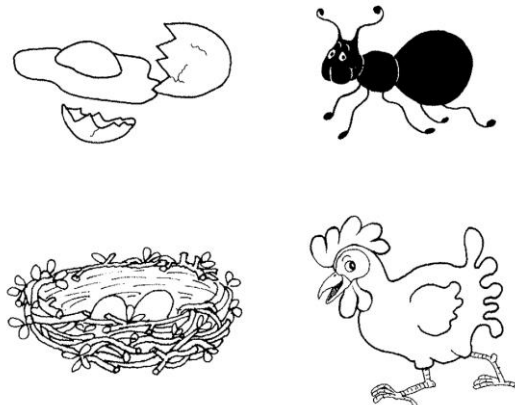


Figure 25. Example of individual activity. (Lloyd & Wernham, 2013)

Finally, *Jolly Phonics* presents readers for four levels (Figure 26). There are 3 readers for each level. They contain the characters of *Jolly Phonics* and are adapted to the group of sounds, blending and ‘tricky’ words worked in each level. Spelling is also adapted in these books for these early years.



Figure 26. Readers. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

Jolly Phonics offers teachers a CD with games and a programme to be installed in computers in order to be used in whiteboards (Figure 27). The latter can present the stories through the whiteboard or through specific DVD stories (Figure 28). Different types of posters are also offered so that teachers can put them around the classrooms (Figure 29). More activities are

also provided through different books to help children who present more reading problems. There are also extra resources to work in classrooms which teachers can use, as magnetic letters or applications of *Jolly Phonics* for mobile phones or tablets. More extra material can also be found in the *Jolly Phonics Resources CD* (Figure 30) or in Jolly Learning (s. f.), where some of them are free resources. The publishing house has also created reading material so that children can work at home with their families. This is related to activity books, story books, CDs and colourful board books to practise each sound.

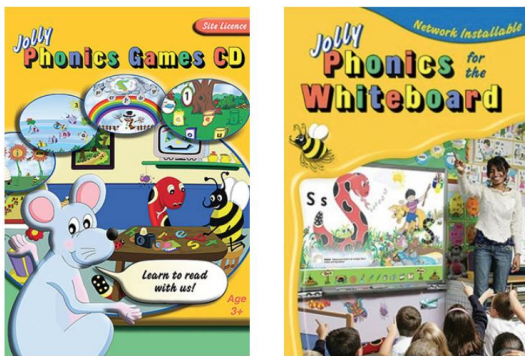


Figure 27. Phonics CD and Phonics for the Whiteboard. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)



Figure 28. Phonics DVD stories. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

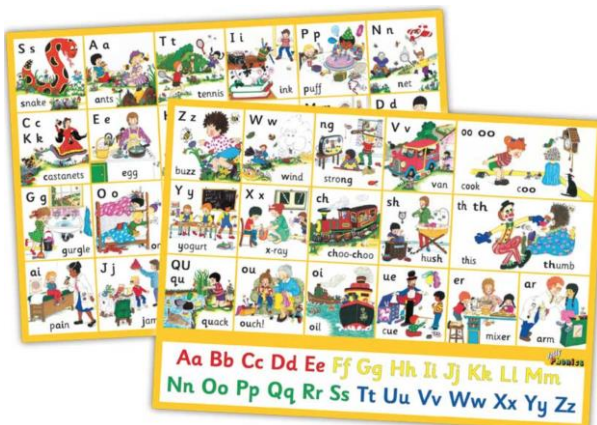


Figure 29. Example of posters. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

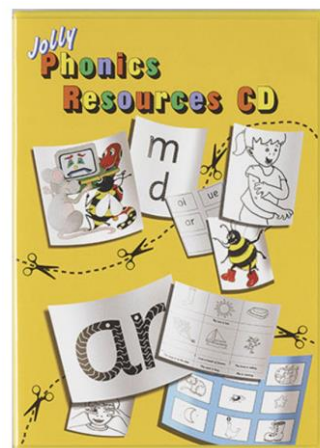


Figure 30. Jolly Phonics Resources CD. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

2.1.2. Assessment of *Jolly Phonics*

Assessment is also an important element in the teaching context since as Johnston & Rogers (2002) say literacy and assessment form part of the process of becoming literate. Hopewell & Butvilofsky (2016) mention it is crucial to know what our pupils are able to do. In addition, if this assessment is carried out in the language which is being taught, then it would have more positive effect (August & Shanahan, 2009). Furthermore, studies such as the ones carried out by Fuentes (2003) or Slomp (2012) affirm that assessment is a real pedagogical support for teaching and it has to be not only a final product but also a dynamic process which continues during the whole academic year. Thus, assessment during the early years should merely be formative in order to improve instruction and the communicative development (Johnston & Rogers, 2002).

There are different types of assessment. However, as commented by Hobart & Frankel (2009), observation appears to be one of the best assessment methods in the early years as it enables detecting any problem children may show. Galve (2007) and Jiménez & Artiles (2001) present different elements which teachers should be focused on in order to detect problems and activities to train children and correct reading and writing problems. Daily, weekly and yearly assessments are important in phonics teaching (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015). According to these authors, daily assessments can be based on activities like ‘phoneme fingers’, using mini whiteboards or magnetic letters to write through dictations, pronouncing sounds, reading pseudo-words, repeating words and spelling all sounds; group assessments can be done weekly through activities in which pupils need to circle the word missing in a phrase; final assessments are more formal and are based on activities and tests prepared by the own material of the publishing houses.

As observation seems to be the most suitable type of assessment for children in the early years, *Jolly Phonics* offers a checklist (Figure 31) which can be used to check what each child has learnt and achieved in a daily, weekly or monthly way. This is a dynamic and formative assessment. As the aspect which is being dealt with in this research is emergent literacy skills, it seems essential to count on a type of assessment which is individual and reach every aspect

that is worked on during the lesson. For this reason, *Jolly Phonics* provides different types of individual worksheets apart from the final assessment which covers what has been explained in the previous chapter.

Jolly Phonics Teacher Checklist

Teacher: _____ Class/Grade: _____ Date: _____

This checklist is mainly for an administrator to use, perhaps with lesson observation, to evaluate how faithfully Jolly Phonics is being used.

| | Y | N | Further information |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| 1. General | | | |
| 1.1 Are the skills of learning the letter sounds, letter formation, blending and identifying sounds in words being taught from the beginning? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | It is important that all these skills are taught from the beginning, and not just the letter sounds. The introduction of tricky words is delayed but is then taught alongside the other skills. |
| Comments: | | | |
| 2. Learning Letter Sounds | | | |
| 2.1 Are the letter sounds being taught initially (not the letter names)? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Introducing letter names is delayed until the third group of letter sounds has been taught to avoid confusion. |
| 2.2 Are the 42 letter sounds being taught at a fast pace (3-6 a week)? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Teaching fewer than 3 letter sounds a week is not very stimulating and should be avoided, if possible. |
| 2.3 Is there regular practice of the letter sounds taught so far? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | It is important to provide the class with some quick practice in every lesson. It is also important to monitor individual performance. |
| 2.4 Are the 42 letter sounds being taught, including the digraphs? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| 2.5 Are the main alternative spellings being introduced once the initial 42 letter sounds have been taught? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | These should be introduced gradually (1-2 a week), at a pace that suits the class. Support can be given to the slower learners. |
| Comments: | | | |

Figure 31. Example of *Jolly Phonics* teacher checklist. (Jolly Learning, s. f.)

The mentioned final assessment provided by the method to check pupils' development at the end of each year is an individual formal assessment (Appendix XII, Colin & Kate, 2012) which comprises activities based on identifying individual sounds, recognizing alternative spellings, pronouncing tricky words, word and pseudo-word reading, word and pseudo-word recognition, sentence reading and comprehension questions. This assessment also allows teachers to know the reading age achieved at the end of the year in English.

3. CONTEXTUAL ELEMENTS

Linguistic factors, such as phonological awareness or vocabulary, including individual characteristics or methods for teaching reading are not the only aspects which may influence children's bilingual literacy process. Elements which surround them every day, as the classroom or home environment can influence children depending on aspects such as how classroom areas are organised and what literacy activities are developed in each of them and, more importantly, how these two contexts collaborate to improve their literacy development. So, school and home literacy play an important role in children's learning development where natural and real experiences seem necessary in order to develop language in a criticising and creative way. The literature presented in this chapter will be complemented with how the *Jolly Phonics* method works on these aspects.

3.1. Classroom environment

Classroom environment is crucial for successful second language acquisition 'as a social context for speaking and listening' (Datta, 2007, p. 23). As Browne (2001) states 'all classrooms should be rich and dynamic literacy environments, providing children with opportunities to read, to write and to learn more about the nature and purpose of literacy' (p. 41). Classroom areas, activities and resources play an important role in children's literacy process as these elements are present in the learning process every day. School contexts should emphasize the development of cognitive and psycholinguistic abilities but also the free use of books and texts, the use of teaching strategies and the creation of a familiar environment (Sastre-Gómez, Celis-Leal, Roa de la Torre & Luengas-Monroy, 2017).

First and taking into account classroom environment, the study carried out by Beecher & Makin (2002) evinces that teachers should create real situations inside the classroom, keep a planned system but introducing real experiences which should be integrated in the curriculum. Norling, Sandberg y Almqvist (2015) mention that children engagement was directly related to the situations created by teachers inside the classroom. In addition, these children seemed to achieve more learning gains when there were narrower relationships between them and

teachers. In addition, Neuman & Roskos (2002) establish different design principles to create a positive classroom environment. First, they mention that space should be ‘large’ and ‘clear’ as they influence children’s interactions and learning. Second, ‘appropriateness, authenticity and utility’ should be characteristics of the materials used in order to help connect children’s understanding. Third, ‘feeling of identity and belongingness’, connections between home and school or familiar environments are crucial factors to introduce in classrooms. They also state that collaborative interactions and integration of places and people are important to create a positive environment in the classroom and enhance a better reading development. As Datta (2007) says ‘a second language is learnt interactively and in context’ (p. 23). This interaction should be created in natural contexts or in activities created inside the classroom which can enable children enhance meaning. In addition, pupils learn better when they work in collaboration or with peers (Datta, 2007). Children learning two languages need many opportunities to be able to interact using the languages in shared contexts. They learn by relating languages to people and contexts (Datta, 2007). The access to these different contexts can be carried out by teachers who may promote activities developed outside the school.

These ideas which are focused on pupil’s learning through real situations and experiences were developed by Montessori, in 1907 and, later, by Freinet in 1974. Montessori wanted to create a nursery school for workers’ children. The main aim was to satisfy children’s needs in an environment adapted to the personality of each of them. In such a way, school was based on learning in a natural way, observing, experimenting and learning from each other. Children, in this school, could count on the adult as a guidance for their learning and not as a person imposing a particular formal teaching. Montessori based her teaching method on organisation and freedom of work in which children’s autonomy was an important objective.

With regard to Freinet, his natural method was also focused on real experiences and motivation for reading. He says that children start observing and imitating writing through the use of drawings. After that, basic writing goes with drawings in order to finally find writing without these drawings. Writing presents different stages of repetition and imitation and help to predict reading. Freinet says that reading could even appear after writing and the best method to learn

it was through the environment, that it is, through real experiences of writing and, after that, reading.

To sum up, both of them, Montessori and Freinet, mention that learning based on real experiences in contact with the real world through observations and experimental activities can develop pupils' organisation and autonomy.

In the case of the *Jolly Phonics* method, the environment is a key aspect. The techniques and strategies that the method provides are useful in order to create a positive atmosphere and motivation. Visual materials, games and different activities based on phonological awareness make children pay more attention as they are not used to this type of learning. They seem to be more focused and engaged in everyday lesson. Competition can occur but always in a positive way. Teachers can also be more motivated as they can see the progress of children in a short period of time. They are also supported by the great quantity of materials that they can use every day to work on emergent literacy skills. These are other reasons why *Jolly Phonics* may enhance a positive and motivating environment. In any case, it seems necessary to mention that everything would depend on how teachers develop each activity inside the classroom.

Regarding activities, Browne (2001) states that 'early literacy activities should provide children with the opportunity to extend what they already know by enabling them to explore, experiment, take risks and reflect in ways that are immediately connected to print, books and stories' (p. 51). Reading aloud, games, songs and rhymes are examples of activities which authors as Datta (2007), Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) or Englezou & Fragkouli (2014) present as beneficial for the learning of phonological awareness and the cognitive development of the language. Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) state: 'teaching phonics in the early years needs to be first and foremost based on informal activities in a play context that begins the process of linking sounds to letter' (p. 76). Browne (2001) suggests different types of activities which could be appropriate for the development of literacy. Some of them are 'story props', based on the idea of having pictures to order once a story is told; collecting the names of their peers in alphabetical order; children can sign in a paper instead of calling out the names of the children to register them every day; collecting words which start with the same sound... Browne (2001)

also points out that teachers should encourage children for the story time which are followed by questions about the story. Telling stories during some time of the day can create reading routines and promote children's interests in books as well as developing abilities to criticise or relate the story to their own real life. Browne (2001) also mentions that the story time activities can be empowered if children retell the stories or work on role plays. Different more activities can be used after stories as guessing the name of characters after describing them or drawing them (Browne, 2001).

The creation of different areas in the classroom are a good opportunity for children to work individually or in groups (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015). Bigas (2002) mentions that teachers should work on the development of communicative and language competences through oral discourses, interactions... and organise the classroom in a way that these competences could be better acquired. How a room is organized can be crucial in the development of children's literacy. Creating different areas, as corners, small libraries which connect books with home or 'protected spaces' are useful so that children can work and listen without the interruption of their peers (Datta, 2007, p. 65). As Browne (2001) says there should be a 'writing area, a listening area and a library area' (p. 41). The listening area would include story tapes or blank tapes to record themselves. The reading area would include different types of books, comics, newspapers... And the writing area would include empty diaries, notebooks or papers to write on. This author also mentions 'play areas' since through them children can explore literacy situations. In addition, there should be places in the class where children could have some time for silent reading on their own (Browne, 2001). For developing reading abilities, it seems that different strategies can be used as literature circles, in which children sit around and talk; paired reading, in which two children take turns to read together and help each other; or individual reading, which is based on each child reading some time aloud. Thus, classrooms should show a good environment with a good range of books, reading and role play areas, phonic resources, ICT, puppets... (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015) in order to facilitate children's learning development.

However, teaching phonics is not the only important issue but how it is taught is also crucial. Educators think it should be done through play-based activities and meaningful, fun and educational experiences (Campbell, 2015). In *Jolly Phonics*, every lesson contains stories,

songs, and activities focused on phonological awareness which enrich emergent literacy skills. Different readers are also included in the method which could be set in a classroom area to create a reading space. Phonics resources should be in another area so that children know when to work on that. According to Campbell (2015), *Jolly Phonics* isolates the teaching of phonics from personal experience. However, this issue is something which each teacher can adapt in order to enhance it in every lesson.

A positive atmosphere and interaction inside the classroom could also be carried out if useful and motivating resources are used for language use. The use of a specific type of resources can influence the teaching-learning process. As Browne (2001) mentions if proper resources are provided, children would give more real sense to reading activities. Related to that, Fons (2002) mentions that classroom resources should be useful in order to be able to create interaction opportunities with elements which can appear in children's daily life. In addition, children need different opportunities to write with coloured papers, whiteboards, tracing shapes in the air, sand or carpets or using their own body, using electronic devices, modelling materials, pencils, colouring pencils, crayons, pens, keyboards, paints, magnetic letters... and they can also use small and individual whiteboards which are considered to be a good option for children to write and erase. Magnetic letters are another possibility to engage them in learning (Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015). Datta (2007) mentions that resources as musical instruments or paintings could be helpful tools to support literacy development.

Browne (2001) adds 'notepads, memo boards, telephone pads, calendars, diaries, telephone directories, recipe books, TV guides, newspapers, books, magazines, cards, postcards, letters, bills, pens and pencils' (p. 42). Reading books are also important to consider. Wright & Peltier (2016) comment that the use of proper resources is crucial as nowadays there are lots of books which are quite old and do not pay attention to the oral language, to the development of vocabulary or to the type of instruction teachers should perform inside the classroom. Browne (2001) talks about the different types of reading books teachers can include in the classrooms for the early years. Some of them are: books with illustrations which do not contain words; alphabet, counting or naming books which may contain little texts with some photographs;

picture books, which contain stories with pictures and texts; ‘big’ books, which can be used by teachers when shared reading is carried out.

Furthermore, Baker (2011) mentions the possibility of using ‘Dual Language Books’ in which everything is presented through two languages. This could be an option of integrating the second language in everyday learning and to engage parents in this dual learning process. Teachers should be aware that books are an important part of the literacy process and they should be carefully selected (Browne, 2001) and thought regarding children’s age, interests, needs and motivation.

Jolly Phonics also provides different resources for children, as flashcards, word or letter sound boxes which they can touch and use to practice blending. IT is also encouraged as the method offers some DVDs and CDs to be used in the classroom or at home. They contain explanations, worksheets and several games which are focused on the different skills and groups of sounds. So, games are also adapted to the levels which children acquire in each group of sounds.

To conclude, there are different aspects from the classroom environment which can directly influence how children develop during their literacy process. Regarding teachers, they should know children’s needs and interests; children should work on their own; teachers should know children’s previous knowledge; they should integrate language learning through games; assessment should be formative and positive; and resources should be adapted to their needs and interests (González Álvarez, 2003).

However, it is important to consider that how phonics is taught is related to how teachers are trained to do so. As Campbell (2015) states not all educators have the same perspectives on phonics programmes due to the fact that they did not receive the same type of training. Teachers find it important to teach phonics but may feel unequipped to teach it effectively. Teachers need to be trained and understand phonics teaching to be able to adapt it if necessary (Campbell, Torr & Cologon, 2014). ‘Educators need to have the necessary knowledge about phonics learning and teaching to inform their literacy curriculum decisions’ (Campbell, 2015, p. 19). So, teachers need to understand the process of reading and the use of different approaches in order to teach children well (Browne, 2001).

3.2. Family environment

The literacy process starts when children are born and it is influenced by the sociocultural context which surrounds them (Neuman & Roskos, 2002). ‘Because the development occurs within a cultural and social context, children from different backgrounds will necessarily have different experiences’ (Weinberger, 1996, p. 13).

Collaboration between different contexts is important so that pupils’ own sociocultural contexts could be connected to the classroom’s reality. For this reason, school and home become the most important contexts in their literacy process as they directly influence children’s early language development. In 1996, Weinberger mentioned that the relation between teachers and parents can make significant gains in children’s reading scores. If these two agents collaborate in the teaching-learning process, pupils will develop best languages and will achieve a better learning achievement (Wright & Peltier, 2016). Furthermore, this social factor in which real interactions appear in the family context can help to improve the phonological awareness mentioned in the sections before (Pinto, Bigozzi, Gamannossi & Vezzani, 2012). In 1990, Adams already talked about the importance of the relationship between home and community in order to develop children’s literacy. Through this context, frequent and familiar vocabulary can increase and help the development of reading skills because an early intervention can prevent reading problems (Grimm et al., 2018).

Collaboration between families and schools would be beneficial in order to improve communication between them and carry out daily reading and writing practices in two languages. Before 1970s, Hannon (1995) mentions that parents were not involved in their children’s literacy process. One of the reasons given at that time was class size as there were many children in the class and parents were kept in the playground. Other reasons were related to techniques and materials used in the classroom which were not accessible for parents. There was ‘limited professional incentive to involve parents’ (p. 20). In the 1970s, parents were involved in a ‘limited’ way since not all of them were free to stay at school during the day, not all of them had space in the classrooms and had little influence on the teaching curriculum which continued to be defined by teachers and they were not really improving literacy at home

but helping other children at school (Hannon, 1995). In the 1980s, research studies seem to mention that children whose families were more involved in reading at home, got better reading scores. That was the moment when ‘paired reading’ appeared as a positive perspective or literacy development at home. Other variants as ‘shared reading’ also turned up in this period. In addition, parent involvement in classroom was also seen as positive because they could share reading experiences. Although it seemed to be changing in this period, this parent involvement was based on reading only (Hannon, 1995). As this author mentions, perceptions were changing, parents were little by little more engaged and one of the reasons could be related to the fact that, as the author says, teachers were also parents and they wanted new ideas to improve their job. Other reasons of parents’ exclusion could not be related only to the school but to their own opinions of not being well prepared to help their children (Hannon, 1995). This author claims that parents ‘can provide for developing readers and writers: *opportunities* for learning, *recognition* of the child’s achievement, *interaction* around literacy activities, and *a model of literacy*’ (p. 51) and parents can do so through the ‘three strands’ of literacy that Hannon (1995) suggests: reading, writing and oral language. The latter includes the phonological awareness. Around the early 1980s the focus was on bringing parents to school. Hannon (1995) concludes that since the 1980s this focus started to move literacy practices to home.

Beecher & Makin (2002) or Theodotou (2017) observe that when literacy is based on daily social practices, pupils achieve better results. The authors studied literacy in different contexts but in all of them teachers and families agreed on the fact that children look for literacy through interactions and emotions which surround them. They conclude that school and home have to share these ideas but, above all, they should work together in order to have a better communication and be able to develop literacy and create activities based on real experiences.

Although these ideas may seem to be difficult to achieve, it is important to consider some possibilities as parents’ training in the same way as teachers’ training is so importantly considered. Parents may not know what to do if they are not told so.

In relation to that, *Jolly Phonics* presents different resources which can give parents information about the method and how their children learn to read at school. This information is given in the teachers' handbook so that teachers keep parents informed, and in the web page with different types of activities and materials to be used at home. So, *Jolly Phonics*, in that way, is emphasising that parents should work in collaboration with the school and help them to improve their emergent literacy skills through activities which enrich the development of phonological awareness and readers which include characters that appear in everyday lesson. In such a way, they connect what they learn at school to what they read at home and help to create a reading environment which can help to develop children's reading skills and motivation for reading. However, it seems that teachers have to be in charge of helping parents when it should be a government focus to include parents' training sessions in the school years.

In some cases, as Campbell (2015) comments, educators, who teach phonics, feel pressed by parents who asked for a formalized phonics lesson. Due to that, they find some literacy practices in conflict with their beliefs on how literacy is learnt. According to this author, parents and educators should work together to support positive outcomes for children. According to Campbell et al. (2014), teachers mention that they use phonics with some pressure from parents. So, parents may also need training sessions to understand everything related to phonics.

Programmes which help parents achieve objectives in terms of reading interactions or any other interactive activities seem to be beneficial for children's language development (Kern et al., 2018). The study carried out by Neuman (2000) focused on interconnections between mothers and children. The programme, according to the author, was based on four elements which the author describes as 'get set' (encouraging children for the programme), 'give meaning' (making children understand the activities), 'build bridges' (making children connect with their past or future) and 'step back' (giving feedback to children). The programme designed different areas in a classroom so that both mothers and children can participate in different literacy activities. The results emphasised that bridge building helped children be more active and engaged in activities, feeling in control, which increased their interests and expectations for reading activities as well as understanding the importance of literacy development. Caesar &

Nelson (2014) say that introducing contents in the classroom about what parents usually do at home is feasible and can improve the development of reading skills. Parents may create materials which children could take to classrooms and which are not normal to find inside them, such as plants, as the authors say. Parents could even be invited into the classroom to collaborate in the bilingual learning process (Baker, 2011).

Regarding the content of a synthetic phonic lesson, Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) also mention that parents need to ‘understand that learning grapheme-phoneme correspondences is just part of their children’s development as readers’ (p. 26). Padak & Rasinski (2006) designed the programme ‘Fast start’ based on a daily 15-minute activity in which a passage is read by parents by pointing out interesting things for children who read the text after them and ends with phonemic awareness activities. The programme seemed to be effective and encouraged parents to work with their children at home. The result was a better improvement in children’s literacy abilities.

The article written by Feiler et al. (2008) mentions that activities such as making videos at school to carry home, bringing home objects to school, bringing photographs to school, were positive in order to encourage and increase their interests and enthusiasm for learning. This seem to be a positive link between school and home.

Lloyd & Wernham (1998, 2013) also comment that parents need to be involved in their children’s language development in order to be able to support and help them. This is the reason why teachers are encouraged to make parents understand what their children are doing in the English classroom. Recently, Swain & Cara (2019) mention that parents can support school literacy at home and it can help them to have a better relationship with their children when promoting collaboration with school and parents’ networks (Swain & Cara, 2019, p. 126).

With regard to the family context and the development of reading skills, Weinberger (1996) mentions that families from different contexts and different literacy levels agree on the fact that the use of materials at home to develop literacy practices are important. This author says that the regular reading habits families have at home together with interaction activities with children was related to a positive literacy development.

In addition, Harris, Loyo, Holahan, Suzuki & Gottlieb (2007) evince the fact that mothers' literacy level, families' literacy practices, the frequency with which parents read to children and the number of books available at home are important reading predictors. These authors conclude that developing 'positive expectations' about reading, helping parents to eliminate possible obstacles for reading and increasing the access to books were aspects which contribute to the increase of reading skills and benefit children's literacy development. Hannon (1995) also mentions that children whose parents 'read more, owned more books, and read more often with their children' (p. 29) present high reading scores. This author also mentions that the materials available at home, the literacy opportunities created outside home, parental encouragement and expectations for literacy, their contact with school, the library visits, the literacy environment at home and early reading to children, parents' educational level and their income were important factors influencing the literacy development of young children.

More recently, Van Bergen, Van Zuijen, Bishop & de Jong (2017) say that the number of books available for children at home appears as a strong reading predictor as it determines the frequency with which parents read to children. In this way, this aspect can predict later reading skills. They also observe correlations in terms of genetic aspects, that it is, children inherit a genetic tendency towards a certain reading level and towards a family environment which they are normally exposed to.

Related to that, Wiescholek, Hilkenmeier, Greiner & Buhl (2018) have recently commented that there is a positive relationship between the family environment and the frequency that children have a look at books at home. Aligned to this research, Wood, Fitton & Rodríguez (2018) also say that children's English and Spanish performance is related to an active home language (parents and children's frequency of reading) and their growth of phonological awareness is related to children's interests in literacy practices. Other factors as the numbers of books accessible at home can also influence children's literacy development. So, as Alston-Abel & Berninger (2018) state home literacy activities can significantly correlate with higher achievement in school literacy.

In this line, it is necessary to mention that the relationship between children and adults seems to be crucial for the development of languages. As Vygotsky (1978) say, children learn from their environment. Adults and peers are a guidance for problem-solving and learning collaboration (*Zone of Proximal Development*). Thus, in this way, children's immediate future and developmental state can be detected, that it is, what children have achieved and what they are in process of developing. For this reason, if children work in collaboration, they will be able to work individually in the future (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, Bigas (2002) considers that language is a form of socialization which develops through children's interaction in their environment and it can differ according to the social and cultural level of the family and school context to which children belong. Each child develops a different communicative process in which home and school should work to prevent school failure and create tasks based on integration and socialization. As Datta (2007) states 'bilinguals learn best in multi-ability collaborative settings with knowledgeable adult guidance' (p. 126).

Concerning the socioeconomic status of the family, it is a factor which also seems to contribute to improve phonological awareness and, so, predict reading skills (Arafat, Korat, Aram, & Saiegh-Haddad, 2017). Some studies mention that socioeconomic status can influence literacy processes (Oller & Eilers, 2002), especially the oral language (Eilers, Oller & Lewis, 2002). Escobar & Meneses (2014) say that this socioeconomic status is related to the language development and observed that phonological processing and speed naming are reading predictors in children with both low and high socioeconomic status. This prediction is stronger in the case of children with high socioeconomic status and their acquisition process is faster and related to orthographic processes. In the case of children belonging to families with low socioeconomic status, the acquisition process is faster when it is related to non-lexical reading skills.

Furthermore, a recent research carried out by Russell et al. (2018) confirms that the development of skills related to phonological awareness is connected to social and psychological circumstances of each family. The school context may not be a problem for the results. Recently, Carroll, Holliman, Weir & Baroody (2019) mention that significant correlations exist between socioeconomic status, home language environment, literacy interest

and emergent literacy skills. As their study emphasises ‘making literacy learning more interesting (regardless of HLE and SES) may support the development of children’s emergent literacy skills’ (p. 158).

Phonics programmes can also work in socio-economically deprived contexts. The research carried out by Ferguson, Currie, Paul & Topping (2011) affirms that even in this context, word reading, spelling and reading comprehension can significantly improve during and at the end of the study. It is also necessary to mention that some studies (Johnston & Watson, 2005; Dixon, Schagen & Seedhouse, 2011) confirm that *Jolly Phonics* can work in different contexts as pupils with both low or high socioeconomic status seem to have acquired the same reading levels. It also appears that the use of *Jolly Phonics* can also help to prevent reading problems in children belonging to minority groups (Hus, 2001).

Finally, and to conclude, as Hannon (1995) states ‘the key is to involve parents more in the teaching of literacy’ (p. 1). In order to provide early language acquisition, families should be a model to follow, a positive attitude towards reading should be encouraged, parents should read to children every day, TV time should be considered, families should collaborate with school and they should have adequate books related to children’s needs and interests (González Álvarez, 2003).

4. GATHERING ALL LITERATURE TO APPROACH THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This theoretical framework enabled the researcher to establish not only a base for this present thesis but also a relationship with the previous studies which have focused on similar topics carried out throughout time.

First, different studies presented in this background, such as the ones carried out by Jiménez & Ortiz (2000, 2007), Metsala (2010) or Stanley, Petscher & Catts (2018), seem to evince the fact that phonological awareness and vocabulary are factors which can influence and predict the development of reading skills not only in the mother tongue but also in second language acquisition (Scarpino, Lawrence, Davison & Hammer, 2017). This development is different in each child and does not necessarily moves through the different stages of development proposed by Frith (1986) (logographic, alphabetic, orthographic) in the same order, which could situate them in a lexical or non-lexical route (Coltheart, 1985; Cuetos, 2008).

To continue, these emergent literacy skills, phonological awareness and vocabulary, acquired in the first language also seem to be beneficial when learning a second language (Yamashita & Shiotsu, 2017) as they can be transferred from one to the other with no negative consequences in the development of any of the languages which are in process of learning (Kuo, Ramírez, de Marín, Kim & Unal-Geer, 2017). These two factors can help the development of word reading and reading comprehension in both languages. It also seems that pupils learning two languages can develop cognates which can increase the knowledge of vocabulary acquired in both languages (Unsworth, Persson, Prins & De Bot, 2015).

Furthermore, in order to achieve a proper development of phonological awareness and vocabulary, it is important to consider how these variables are taught and learnt since the very beginning (Márquez, 2013). It has been seen that teaching phonological awareness in early childhood can help the development of reading skills (Schoaga, Akintola & Isiwat OKPOR, 2017) in a faster and more dynamic way since children would be able to read any word or pseudo-word by following the language phonetic rules. Then, the development of phonological

awareness and, so, reading skills, would be more appropriate if teaching methods are centred on this.

Due to that, throughout time, teaching approaches have been questioned by many authors in terms of which one, synthetic or analytic approach, is best. This controversy has appeared not only in Spain to teach how to read in Spanish but also in the United Kingdom to teach how to read in English. In the case of Spain, the Primary Education curriculum (Orden de 27 de marzo de 2015) does not specify the use of a specific method in the literacy development. However, it mentions that teachers should be able to decide the type of method which promotes different learning styles and rate, autonomy and group work. Active participation in the classroom should favour critical thinking, individual and cooperative work in order to promote reading and research. In addition, the curriculum says teaching methods should include references to daily experiences. Phonics is only mentioned as a complement to help younger learners but the materials used are not focused on phonics. As a contrast, in the case of the English curriculum (Primary Framework for literacy and mathematics, 2006), it has already been accepted by the government that the use of a synthetic phonics method is appropriate to develop emergent literacy skills during the early years. In most of the cases analysed, the synthetic phonics method has been considered to be better for the development of reading skills as phonological awareness appears first in the development of a language (Schoaga et al. 2017; Dussling, 2018).

Furthermore, although several studies have stated that a phonics method is the best option to teach English as a first language, it is also necessary to consider English as a second language in Spain, where Spanish pupils have to face it in the early years at the same time they are learning how to read in their mother tongue.

So, this problem of learning how to read in the mother tongue in the early years together with the introduction of English as a second language also in the early years, due to the Spanish laws which are demanding a better command of second languages, made the researcher question the best way to teach how to read in both languages. Reading in Spanish may be automatically considered by any Spanish educational institution. However, reading in English has not been considered in the same way in our country. In addition, reading and comprehension problems

appear in children when they are in subsequent school years. This problem also turns up when they are in bilingual schools where other school subjects have to be taught and learnt in English.

Then, if children learn how to read in Spanish in order to be able to work on different areas through this language, it may be wondered why Spanish bilingual schools insist on bilingualism without teaching children how to read in English if this is the language of study of many subjects. Maybe the problem is that teaching methods are not focused on reading but only on lists of vocabulary whose pronunciation and meaning are needed to be learnt by heart and, when time passes, children may end up forgetting them. Perhaps, a reading teaching method for English could be the solution to enable children to understand English in a better way in any context. This could allow them to read anything in English and understand any teacher of any subject.

Then, the main research question of the present study was: would it be effective to use a phonics method to teach Spanish pupils how to read in English?

Thus, this doctoral thesis analysed emergent literacy skills, such as phonological awareness as the main variable in both languages (English and Spanish) and carried out an intervention with a synthetic phonics method (*Jolly Phonics*) focused on the development of emergent literacy skills in English as a second language.

Furthermore, the development of reading skills may not only be affected by the teaching method. The family environment would also be needed to be analysed since many studies seem to say that it can influence children's literacy skills (Van Bergen, Van Zuijen, Bishop & de Jong, 2017; Alston-Abel & Berninger, 2018). Contextual elements were also important in this study in order to identify possible influential factors on the literacy process. More details about the sample and data collection are specified in the following chapter.

It is interesting to point out that this doctoral thesis could be one of the first experimental research studies developed in Spain considering the *Jolly Phonics* method. The use of this method could be a possible solution for the problems set above and could also be an answer for the Spanish law which demands multilingualism. This could also allow children attain

better results in English reading increasing the Spanish mean in the different mentioned tests for both first and second languages (PIRLS, 2016 or ESLC, 2012).

For these reasons, the main aim of this study was to determine the effectiveness and influence of *Jolly Phonics* on the bilingual literacy process of Spanish children and to identify a possible transference between languages.

The literature review guided the researcher in order to find the research gap which enabled identification of not only the main research question and aim but also the following specific objectives:

1. To identify language factors which require more attention during the early literacy process and determine which variable predict best Spanish reading skills in the Spanish pre-test in both schools.
2. To compare the levels of phonological awareness (PA), naming (N), speed naming (SN), and word and pseudo-word reading (WR, PWR) obtained in the Spanish pre-test in both schools.
3. To compare the level of pupils' emergent literacy skills in Spanish and English, considering phonological awareness; picture, colour, number, and letter naming (PN, CN, LN); speed naming; and word and pseudo-word reading used as pre-test and post-test in all participating groups of the state school.
4. To compare the level of pupils' emergent literacy skills in Spanish, considering phonological awareness; picture, colour, number, and letter naming; speed naming; and word and pseudo-word reading used as pre-test and post-test in all participating groups of the private school.
5. To compare the number of errors committed in the *English Reading Predictors Test* at the beginning and at the end of the study regarding the variables of 'Phonological Awareness' and 'Naming' in both treatment and control groups in the state school.

6. To determine correlations between Spanish letter, word and pseudo-word reading and English sound pronunciation (SP), word and pseudo-word reading in both schools.
7. To identify the level of English reading achieved by all pupils at the end of the research and compare pupils' actual age to the Age Reference Scale for native English speakers provided by *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.
8. To identify the most difficult English sounds to be pronounced by Spanish children.
9. To identify the type of activities which are more difficult for Spanish pupils.
10. To identify which sounds are more transferable from Spanish to English.
11. To determine the teaching context of each school (teaching methods, resources and activities used in the classroom) in Childhood and Primary Education, contrasting with teachers' opinions.
12. To identify teachers' opinions of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.
13. To determine the family environment regarding Spanish and English reading practices carried out at home in both schools.
14. To identify parents' opinions of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes information about the design and sample of the research, the methodology, the instruments their used throughout the whole study. It also includes the validation of the research instruments and how the negotiation process was carried out with the participating schools. This chapter ends with the description of how the data were analysed.

1. RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study was carried out under a mixed-method research design, which includes quantitative and qualitative information. As Tashakkori & Teddlie (2009) mention it is considered the ‘third methodological movement’. There are many terms in order to refer to this type of research design, as quantitative and qualitative method, multimethod, mixed methodology... However, following recent writing as Creswell & Creswell (2018) suggest, the term mixed method is tended to be used nowadays and it is the one decided to be used for the present doctoral thesis. This type of research design originated around the 1980s-1990s among different fields in which education was one of them. This design continues developing as it can be seen in different research studies carried out around the world in which different variabilities are included.

In addition, this study followed a mixed-method parallel research design since data were collected in a ‘synchronous manner’ (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). In concordance with these authors, the word ‘parallel’ is used instead of ‘concurrent’, as other authors called it, because quantitative and qualitative information may be collected at the same time. Furthermore, it can also be named as ‘convergent mixed method design’ (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) since both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed at the same time in order to merge the results and be able to compare them (Figure 32).

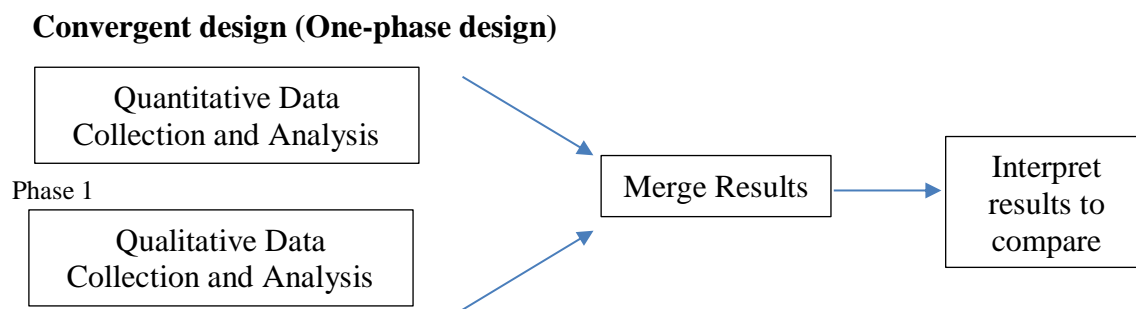


Figure 32. Convergent mixed method design. (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 218).

This research followed the pragmatic worldview since both qualitative and quantitative data were necessary to analyse. First, quantitative data (*QUANT* component) was needed throughout the whole study in order to analyse pupil’s levels of literacy skills in English and Spanish. The

QUANT component referred to pre-tests and post-tests as well as the tests carried out during the treatment period in the experimental groups and parents' questionnaires. The *qual* component was simultaneously used through recorded daily observations and semi-structured interviews to teachers in order to complement the *QUANT* component. In this case, the triangulation of data provided a 'better understanding' of the results (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This is 'the most common approach across disciplines' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 77), which helps to enrich each type of data collected and provides more evidence to the research. In addition, in some cases, both type of data provide answer which cannot be given separately. It is important to highlight that the present research followed a fixed design where all the procedures were planned beforehand and carried out following them.

Regarding the *QUANT* component, the present research counted with two different schools with different research designs (Table 1, Table 2, Figure 33, Figure 34).

Table 1 and Figure 33 show the design for the first school, School 1, in which a between-subjects experimental design (O'Dwyer, 2018) was followed with equivalent groups. The pupils and type of groups (treatment and control) were randomly assigned, which means, according to O'Dwyer (2018), that each subject could have been assigned to any condition. This design was used in order to be able to compare results between a treatment group, where the *Jolly Phonics* method was implemented by the researcher, and a control group, where a different method was used. This method was not focused on phonics but on lists of vocabulary which pupils had to learn.

In order to guarantee the equivalence between both treatment and control groups, the Student's t-test was performed. Results presented non-statistically significant differences between both groups in the Spanish ALE1 test (Appendix IX) and the *English Reading Predictors Test* (Appendix XI). Due to that, both groups were considered equivalent. The independent variable was the *Jolly Phonics* method and the dependent variable was the learning of English as an L2. Following the models of theories presented by Jungnickel (1990) in Creswell & Creswell (2018), the research of this school was based on a model (Figure 33) 'in which control and

experimental groups are compared on one independent variable in terms of an outcome (dependent variable).’ (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 55).

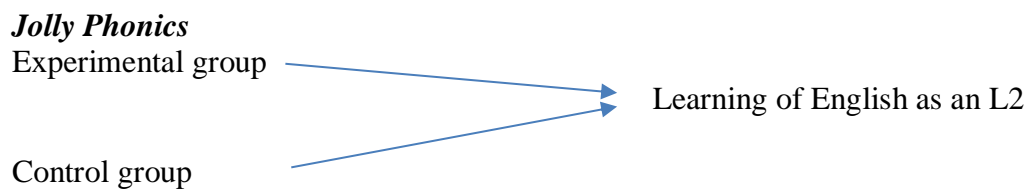


Figure 33. Two groups with different treatments (*Jolly Phonics*) are compared in terms of learning English as an L2. Adapted from: Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 56.

Table 1. Research design for School 1

| Group | Randomisation | Observation | Intervention | Observation |
|----------------|---------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| Experimental A | R | O ₁ | <u>X</u> ₁ | O ₃ |
| Control B | R | O ₂ | | O ₄ |

Source: Own elaboration

According to O’Dwyer (2018), between-subjects experimental designs can be extended to include more treatment groups in order to be compared among them. This type of design also enables eliminating pre-tests.

School 2 presents a design (Table 2, Figure 34) in which the four groups which participated in the study were treatment as all of them were receiving the *Jolly Phonics* method by their own teachers and were compared in terms of the learning of English as an L2 (Figure 34). The same tests were used in both schools for the different designs, except for the *English Reading Predictors Test* which was only necessary to be used in School 1 for the pre-test - post-test between-subjects design.

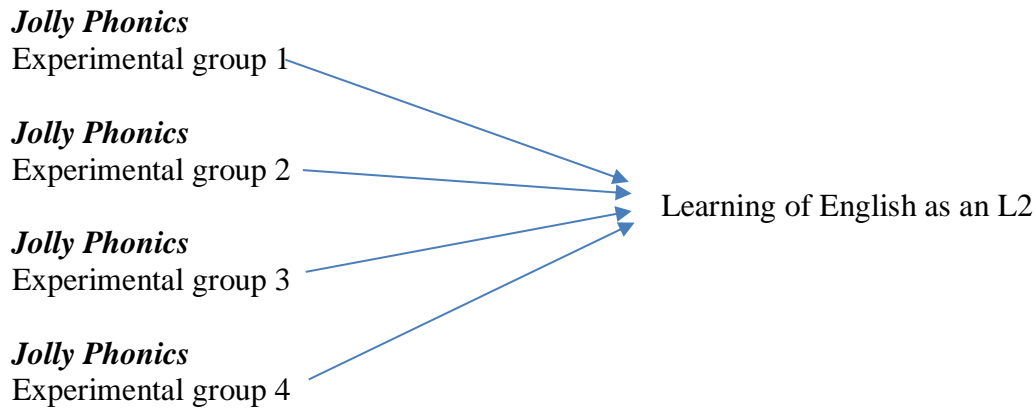


Figure 34. Four experimental groups compared in terms of learning English as an L2

Table 2. Research design for School 2

| Group | Randomisation | Observation | Intervention | Observation |
|----------------|---------------|----------------|----------------------|----------------|
| Experimental C | R | O ₁ | <u>X₂</u> | O ₅ |
| Experimental D | R | O ₂ | <u>X₂</u> | O ₆ |
| Experimental E | R | O ₃ | <u>X₂</u> | O ₇ |
| Experimental F | R | O ₄ | <u>X₂</u> | O ₈ |

Source: Own elaboration

Considering the intervention which was performed in the treatment group of School 1, it is necessary to mention that it followed the instructions provided by the *Jolly Phonics* method. The material was bought to the publishing house (Jolly Learning, Ltd). It should be specified that not all resources were bought, just the most important ones which were necessary to carry out a proper intervention. These materials included the teachers' handbook, pupils' finger books, black and white pupils' books and workbooks, first year readers, flashcards, songs, puppets and the final *Jolly Phonics* reading assessment. These materials were specifically described in the second section of the literature review. Due to that, in the following explanation there will be references back to the figures presented in the mentioned second section.

The *Jolly Phonics* method was implemented in the mentioned school, School 1, by the researcher during seven months (November-May, 2017-2018). At first, the school only agreed

to teach *Jolly Phonics* two days per every two weeks. However, in January, the participating teacher and the Head of the school started to notice pupils' good results and asked the researcher to continue the implementation every day of every week, that is, three days per week, when English was taught. In the end, there were 38 days of intervention. The last group of sounds of the *Jolly Phonics* method was instructed by the participating teacher for one month more, which ended up with 18 more days of practice.

In each session, the researcher taught a different sound. Lessons were very systematic. Each session started with the introduction of a sound and an action made by the researcher. The objective was that children repeated it to remember the sound linked to the action (Appendix XIII. Attached video.). This was the introduction of the lesson which continued with a story presented through storybooks (Figure 19) which contained pictures and words with the sound worked during that current lesson. At the same time that the story was being told, the researcher asked children some comprehension questions related to it so that they could remember everything but also, they could have the chance to pronounce the words of the session (Appendix XIV. Attached video). As a reinforcement, flashcards (Figure 21) allowed them to practise the sound in a different way. The flashcards made children say the sound and action learnt since the beginning of the session. At the back of the flashcard, it could be noticed that there was a number of dots which represented the sounds which a word contains so that children could identify the position of the sound which the researcher was asking for (Appendix XV. Attached video).

To continue, individual and group activities focused on blending, joining sounds into words and working on tricky (problematic) words (Appendix XVI. Attached video). After this, pupils listened to a *Jolly Phonics* song which contained vocabulary related to the words presented in the session as well as the sound and action learnt (Appendix XVII. Attached video). More group activities were developed during the lesson but it depended on the time of the session. Some days the sound was perceived as easier to learn and more activities could be carried out to practise previous sounds or to practise sentence reading (Appendix XVIII. Attached video). However, in cases when the sound seemed to be harder to acquire, more reinforcement was necessary for that sound than for the revision of the previous sounds. There was a variety of

activities which the method suggests at the end of the teachers' book as games based on saying each sound of a word or looking for words with the sounds specified by the researcher.

To finish the lesson, a short assessment (Figure 25) was carried out with activities found in the black and white pupils' books. It was just one exercise for each sound which comprised four pictures, whose names were first pronounced by the pupils and then by the researcher to clarify any problematic pronunciation. After listening to the words, pupils had to cross out the picture whose name did not contain the sound of the current session.

After fifteen days, when they completed a whole group of sounds, a different assessment was performed. It was based on some activities, taken from pupils' workbooks (Figure 20), which allowed the researcher to measure the development of pupils in that particular group of sounds. The purpose of this second assessment was to analyse the process of pupil's learning through different types of activities and how they evolved in that group of sounds.

In the case of the School 2, the intervention was carried out by their own native teachers. One of them was from England and the other from Ireland. Both teachers were working in collaboration to teach the same content to all groups. They used the same materials with the exception that instead of using individual sheets (Figure 25) to evaluate them, children could use the complete pupils' workbooks (Figure 20) on which they worked each sound of each group at the end of each lesson. Their lessons took longer, so activities were the same but pupils had more time to practise. The implementation of the method in this school started in October and ended in June (2017-2018) with four hours per week dedicated to *Jolly Phonics*. So, it also took more time during the whole year. Observations were carried out by the researcher from November to April, once per week for a complete session (with exception of some holiday weeks or special school days). So, it finally completed fifteen observations of one hour.

Finally, it should be noticed that the researcher first observed all groups in both schools during Early Childhood Education in order to understand the teaching methods, activities and resources used for the literacy process of pupils' mother tongue and their additional language. In the case of School 1, which had the pre-test - post-test design, pre-tests were carried out when children were at the end of the period of Early Childhood Education (5-6-year-old

children). Post-tests were performed at the end of the first year of Primary Education (6-7-year-old children). The same was developed in the case of School 2. The difference was that the Spanish tests and the final English test were carried out but not the English Pre-test and Post-test (*English Reading Predictors Test*) as they were not necessary for the research design because pupils had previous knowledge of phonics taught during Early Childhood Education.

Regarding the family environment, questionnaires were handed in to families during the Early Childhood Education period in order to know the literacy practices carried out at home in both languages. Different questionnaires were distributed to families in relation to the *Jolly Phonics* method at the end of the study in order to know their opinions of it.

With regard to the *qual* component, it focused on all observations carried out during Early Childhood Education and Primary Education regarding both first and second language lessons. Finally, teachers of Spanish and English belonging to Early Childhood Education were also interviewed in order to understand their teaching methods and strategies used in classrooms related to the reading development. Primary Education teachers of English were also interviewed at the end of the study in order to find out their opinions of the method implemented throughout the whole year.

The design, as stated above, was different in each school case. As a summary, in the first school, the design presented a treatment and a control group whereas the second school worked with treatment groups in the four classrooms. In all experimental groups the *Jolly Phonics* method is the treatment and its effect can be analysed in the following situations:

- a) In each school, with different backgrounds and teaching-learning contexts.
- b) In the first school, against a control group.
- c) In the second school, in all different groups.

2. SAMPLE

Two Spanish bilingual (Spanish-English) primary schools finally participated in the research. They were selected considering the type of school (one of them was a state and the other a private school), the size of the school, the teaching methods and resources available in the schools.

Following Flick (2014), the state school, School 1, was chosen, through a typical case strategy, according to purposive sampling method. The principal reason why this school was chosen was that they presented an early immersion bilingual programme. Thus, this school was not yet using any specific method for teaching English literacy in the early years. Furthermore, an important aspect was that the school teachers were very receptive and they wanted to use new methodologies for the improvement of their bilingual programme. Moreover, the school received pupils from different socioeconomic and cultural contexts. It meant that there was no sociocultural bias.

School 1 is a bilingual state primary school. Its SES level is 0.05 according to the Andalusian regional government (Source: School 1). This school was born in 1950 and was related to the School of Education located in Ciudad Jardín, a residential neighbourhood in the centre of the province of Seville. It was related to this School as it was the place where undergraduates were trained in order to be future teachers. School 1 is located in a middle-class area and receives families with different SES. Recently, the school has been included to the list of ICT and bilingual schools of Seville. Among its strategic plans, the library plan is one of the most important improvements as its aim is to promote reading practices among pupils and families.

Regarding pupils, the school counted with only one group belonging to the last year of Early Childhood Education (5-6 years old children) with 26 children. However, only 25 pupils finally participated in the present research as one of them had personal problems and could not attend school. In the first year of Primary Education (6-7 years old children), the school counted with 52 pupils, who were randomly assigned to two groups (1A and 1B). Having two groups in

Primary Education was an essential aspect for this study in order to have a treatment and a control group.

With regard to the teachers participating in the research, one of them was the form tutor who was specialised in the curricular areas of the group from Early Childhood Education. The other teacher was specialised in English as a second language. She was the English teacher of the group in Early Childhood Education and, later, of the two groups of Primary Education. She was also the form tutor of the treatment group.

The private school, School 2, was chosen due to the fact that it was the second year that teachers were implementing the *Jolly Phonics* method, which enabled carrying out observations of the method.

School 2 is a bilingual private school whose SES level is 1.34 according to the Andalusian regional government (Source: School 2). It was founded in 1886 and is located in the city centre of Seville. The school receives pupils with high SES. Regarding the schools' plans, the bilingual teaching plan is highlighted as it introduces English and French, as second and third languages, in their curricular teaching. Chinese and German are optional four languages. This school is characterised by having native teachers who teach English during 50% of the school time. In addition, the teaching project is focused on internationalisation with the introduction of the north American teaching system.

The school counted with four groups in the last year of Early Childhood Education (5-6 years old children), whose pupils continued in the same four groups (A, B, C and D) in the first year of Primary Education (6-7 years old children). The overall number of pupils participating in this school was 89. Although one more child was registered in the school in mid-term. These pupils received an introduction to phonics in Early Childhood Education and all of them were going to be instructed through the *Jolly Phonics* method for the first time in their first year of Primary Education. Due to that, the four groups were treatment groups. So, there was no control group in this school. In addition, two teachers of Spanish and two native teachers of English participated in the study.

The specific characteristics which each school presented allowed the researcher to carry out observations of the intervention (carried out by their own teachers) in one of them (School 2) and an intervention with the *Jolly Phonics* method (carried out by the researcher) in the other (School 1). When the Head of both schools finally decided to participate in this research, they signed the participating agreement which contained the complete information of the study (Appendix I). Teachers were also informed and signed the school consent in which they agreed to participated in the study (Appendix II). As all pupils were underage, parents were previously informed and voluntarily signed the consent document to participate in the project (Appendix III). The schools also provided an agreement document which stated that photos and videos were possible to be taken for teaching purposes. This agreement was carried out before the first observations started during Early Childhood Education, specifically in January 2016.

The following Table 3 summarises both schools' features:

Table 3. Summary of the sample involved in the research in both schools

| | School 1 | School 2 |
|---|---|--|
| Type of school | State | Private |
| SES level | 0.05 | 1.34 |
| Foundation | 1950 | 1886 |
| Location | Ciudad Jardín. Residential neighbourhood in the centre of the province. | Alcázares. City Centre of Seville |
| Bilingual plan | Recent early immersion bilingual programme with not specific method for teaching English. | Internationalisation. Introduction of the north American teaching system |
| Number of hours/week of English in Early Childhood Education | 1 hour 30 minutes of English | 4 hours of English + 7 hours of Science, Art and Social Science in English |
| Number of hours/week of English in Primary Education | 2 hours 30 minutes of English + 5 hours and 25 minutes of Science and Art in English | 4 hours of English + 8 hours of Science, Social Science, Art and Physical Education in English |

| | School 1 | School 2 |
|--|--|--|
| Number of groups in Early Childhood Education | 1 | 4 |
| Number of groups in Primary Education | 2 | 4 |
| Total number of pupils involved | 52 | 90 |
| Pupils' age | 5-6 years old (Early Childhood Education) 6-7 years old (Primary Education) | 5-6 years old (Early Childhood Education) 6-7 years old (Primary Education) |

Source: Own elaboration

3. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS, VALIDATION AND DATA COLLECTION

Different instruments were used along the study to collect information about pupils' emergent Spanish and English literacy skills and the reading level achieved at the end of the research. Validation was carried out in all of them considering the participating sample.

The Spanish ALE1 test (Reading and Writing Learning Activities) by González & Cuetos (2008) (Appendix IX) was first used in order to be able to identify pupils' level of emergent Spanish literacy skills. It was considered to be an appropriate test because it had been designed to assess children between four and seven years old. This test was performed in both participating schools. Three sections formed this particular test: 'Phonological Awareness'; 'Picture, Colour, Number, and Letter Naming' together with 'Speed Naming'; and 'Word and Pseudo-Word Reading'.

The test was divided into two parts. First, the 'Phonological Awareness' section was performed by all pupils inside the classroom (Section A of Appendix IX). The 'Phonological Awareness' section included seven items (n=5 each) where pupils had to write words which rhymed with the ones provided in a sheet, naming words without the initial sound heard, without the final sound heard, without syllables, without initial sounds, without final sounds or middle sounds. Second, the 'Naming' and 'Reading' sections (Section B of Appendix IX) were carried out individually outside the classroom for a period of 15 minutes per participant. This procedure was carried out in both participating schools. During the four 'Naming' sections (n=36) (colours, pictures, numbers and letters), pupils had to name what they saw and the time that each student took to complete each activity was noted down. The same procedure was carried out with the 'Word and Pseudo-Word Reading' sections (n=5).

This test was validated through Cronbach's Alpha whose value was 0.758 and $F_{12,64}=1433.16$ was statistically significant ($p=0.0001$). Moreover, the construct value was analysed through the main components' analysis, in which the three components (phonological awareness, naming and reading) explained 66.26% of the variance observed in the 13 items of the test.

Secondly, it was necessary to design an English test in order to be able to compare its variables with the Spanish test mentioned above in the state school as it was the one with a pre-test - post-test design. It was named as the *English Reading Predictors Test* (Appendix XI) and measured phonological awareness and naming. The overall reliability of the test was Cronbach's Alpha = 0.81 ('Phonological Awareness' subtest: Cronbach's Alpha = 0.74 and 'Naming' subtest: Cronbach's Alpha = 0.79).

This test comprised two sections. The first section contained activities of phonological awareness (n=9) where pupils had to write an 'X' in the position of the sound inside a word which was pronounced by the assessor. This section was provided orally as a group session. The second section refers to naming activities (n=9) where pupils had to name all pictures they saw in a sheet. This section was carried out individually outside the classroom. It is important to consider that it was not possible to test English reading in the pre-test because Spanish pupils do not normally attain that English level at that age.

Thirdly, *Jolly Phonics* also provided a specific reading assessment (Lloyd & Wernham, 1998, 2013) (Appendix XII) which was performed in all the treatment groups of both schools to determine the English reading level achieved at the end of the *Jolly Phonics* implementation. This test was validated through Cronbach's Alpha whose value was 0.91.

The test comprised a total of six phonological and reading activities. The first activity focused on the pronunciation of individual English sounds (n=42). In the second exercise pupils had to read some of the tricky (problematic) words (n=11) worked during the implementation. The third activity contained alternative sounds (n=16) which children needed to pronounce. After this, the activity four asked children to read some words and pseudo-words (n=26). The fifth exercise (n=24) comprised sets of words or pseudo-words which were pronounced by the assessor and children had to identify in the written paper. Finally, in the last exercise children had to read three complete short sentences (total number of words=16). It is important to mention that this test was not possible to be used in the control group as they did not reach any reading level in English at the end of the year.

Both the ALE1 and the *English Reading Predictors Test* were carried out as pre-tests and post-tests. The *English Reading Predictors Test* was only used in both control and treatment group in the case of the state school, School 1, as it was required by its own research design. However, it was not the case for the research design of School 2. At the end of the implementation of *Jolly Phonics*, a final assessment provided the method was also performed as post-test in both schools.

Furthermore, post-test ALE1 was complemented with sections 6 and 7 of the EGRA test (Early Grade Reading Assessment) (Research Triangle Institute, RTI International, 2009) (Appendix X). These two sections corresponded to activities focused on reading and comprehension which ALE1 did not contain. In addition, this complementing test was only used as post-test as pupils did not have enough reading level when pre-test was carried out in Early Childhood Education. The first activity was based on reading a passage through which the number of words read in a minute and the errors committed were registered. Errors were based on hyper segmentation, replacement, addition, omission, rotation, hypo segmentation or line break. Section 7 focused on the reading of a passage in which reading comprehension was analysed through four questions related to the text. The overall reliability of the test was Cronbach's alpha = 0.71. The reliability of the errors section was Cronbach's alpha = 0.70.

The present study was developed throughout the course of the school years 2016-2017, when pre-tests were carried out after completing all observations at the end of Early Childhood Education; and 2017-2018, from September 2017 to June 2018, with the implementation of *Jolly Phonics* during the whole year in the state school and observations in the private school. Post-tests were carried out at the end of May in School 1 and beginning of June in School 2.

Regarding the classroom context, data were collected through the qualitative approach. To do so, an observation template was created (Appendix V, A), which was used daily in both participating schools. This observation template was used during the first year of the study, that is, when children were in the last year of Early Childhood Education (5-6 years old). The elements which were considered under observation were: classroom environment, type of activities and teaching methods used for reading in Spanish, type of materials and resources

used and classroom areas. During the second year of study, when children were in the first year of Primary Education (6-7 years old), a different observation template was used (Appendix VII). In this case, this template covered elements related to the *Jolly Phonics* method and was based on the specific objectives which the method establishes that have to be covered in each lesson.

A checklist was considered as the best option (Beecher, Abbott, Petersen y Greenwood, 2017) in order to observe teaching processes as it is easier to note down things observed. The elements included in this case were: information about the school and sessions, type of recording (audio, video, both), activities (presenting individual sounds with actions, songs...), resources (whiteboard, books...) and type of grouping (individual, pairs, groups). In all observations, a video camera was used in order to record them or take photos. In addition, diaries were written down based on the daily lessons. Thus, data from all observations in both schools were kept through observation templates, video recordings or photos and diaries (Table 4). In the case of the state school in which *Jolly Phonics* was implemented by the researcher, diaries and observation templates were completed after each lesson. The overall reliability of the checklist was Cronbach's alpha = 0.74.

Table 4. Data collected in both schools

| | School 1 | School 2 |
|--------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | N | N |
| Observation templates | 38 | 15 |
| Video recordings (time) | 38 (17h 43m 07s) | 15 (5h 32m 15 s) |
| Photos | 72 | 12 |
| Diaries | 38 | 15 |

Source: Own elaboration

Regarding the family context, a questionnaire was elaborated '*Cuestionario sobre la lectura en el contexto familiar*' (Appendix IV) which was based on a Likert scale. The main aim of this questionnaire was to know the daily practices of reading in Spanish and English performed at home. The questionnaire comprised 12 questions with values from 0 to 4 (0=not at all, 1=a

little, 2=rather, 3=much, 4=very strong). Seven of them were focused on Spanish reading practices and five of them on English reading practices. In the case of School 1, 100% of parents (n=25) participated whereas in the case of School 2, only 18% of parents (n=90) were involved. In the last case, the questionnaire was distributed online through Google forms containing the same questions. This questionnaire was adapted from others already been created, such as the one used by Anderson (1994).

The reliability of the questionnaire was Cronbach's alpha = 0.74 and the construct value was analysed through the main components' analysis which explained 31% of the variance observed in the 12 items of the questionnaire. In this case, the term 'extracurricular' (Spanish 'extraescolar') included in the last question could be the reason for this value as families could be confused with the term. This is probably due to the fact that they may not consider English academies as extracurricular activities. This questionnaire was distributed at the end of the last year of Early Childhood Education (5-6-year-old children). Items included questions related to the frequency of parents' reading at home, parents' reading with and to children and the use of the Internet for practising English.

At the end of the second year of research, that it is, when the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method concluded, a different questionnaire was also handed in to parents. Due to the scarce participation in the first questionnaire, online forms were discarded and papers were rather used in both schools. This questionnaire was named as '*Cuestionario sobre el método de Jolly Phonics*' (Appendix VI) and it was based on parents' opinions of the method, how it was reviewed at home and what specific objectives children achieved at the end of the study.

The questions for the interview were taken from Eshiet (2016, pp. 22-23) in a pilot project in Winneba, Ghana. Some questions were related to the type of activities performed at home to revise English, children's preferences for some *Jolly Phonics* activities or final objectives attained by pupils according to them. The reliability of the test regarding the frequency of activities carried out at home and family's opinions of *Jolly Phonics* was Cronbach's alpha = 0.84.

With regard to teachers, semi-structured interviews were carried out in two different moments of the research. The first one was performed at the end of the first year of the study, at the end of Early Childhood Education (5-6-year-old children). Two teachers were interviewed in each school. Questions were related to their teaching and language education, experiences, lesson plans, resources used in the classroom, how reading was encouraged in the family context, type of assessments carried out, type and frequency of meeting with families and teaching methods used for reading (Appendix V, B). Interviews were recorded in cases when it was possible. In others, notes were taken down.

Similarly, at the end of the *Jolly Phonics* implementation, different semi-structured interviews were carried out (Appendix VIII). In order to elaborate it, the seven questions used by Eshiet (2016) in this author’s research were considered for the same purpose. In this case, one Spanish teacher of English was interviewed in the state school as she was the only one in charge of the two participating groups.

In the case of the private school, two English teachers of English were interviewed who were in charge of two groups each. Items included questions such as: *What impact do you think Jolly Phonics has had on pupils, teachers and school? What is the most interesting or surprising moment you have lived during the Jolly Phonics teaching?* Table 5 presents the overall time that each interview took and Table 6 summarises all the research instruments used in this research.

Table 5. Interviews' overall time

| | School 1 | School 2 |
|--|--|---|
| | N (Time) | N (Time) |
| First interviews in Early Childhood Education | 1 English teacher (27m 25s) 1 Spanish teacher (32m 35s) | 2 Spanish teachers NOTES (no possible audio recording) |
| Second interviews in Primary Education | 1 English teacher (14m 56s) | 2 English teachers (29m 53s) |

Source: Own elaboration

Table 6. Summary of research instruments used in both schools during the whole study

| SCHOOL | PARTICIPANTS | PRE-TEST | INTERVENTION | POST-TEST |
|----------|------------------|---|---|--|
| School 1 | Control group | Observations (photos, template, diaries) ALE1, <i>English Reading Predictors Test</i> | - | Observations (photos, notes) ALE1 + EGRA, <i>English Reading Predictors Test</i> |
| | Treatment group | Observations (photos, template, diaries) ALE1, <i>English Reading Predictors Test</i> | <i>Jolly Phonics</i> implementation Observations (video recordings, template, diaries) | ALE1 + EGRA, <i>English Reading Predictors Test</i> , <i>Jolly Phonics</i> final assessment |
| | Teachers | Semi-structured interviews (Daily reading practices at home) | - | Semi-structured interviews (Opinions of <i>Jolly Phonics</i>) |
| | Parents | <i>Cuestionario sobre la lectura en el contexto familiar</i> (Daily reading practices at home) | - | <i>Cuestionario sobre el método de Jolly Phonics</i> (Opinions of <i>Jolly Phonics</i>) |
| School 2 | Treatment groups | Observations (photos, notes) ALE1 | Observations of <i>Jolly Phonics</i> (video recordings, template, diaries) | ALE1 + EGRA, <i>Jolly Phonics</i> final assessment |
| | Teachers | Semi-structured interviews (Daily reading practices at home) | - | Semi-structured interviews (Opinions of <i>Jolly Phonics</i>) |
| | Parents | <i>Cuestionario sobre la lectura en el contexto familiar</i> (Daily reading practices at home) | - | <i>Cuestionario sobre el método de Jolly Phonics</i> (Opinions of <i>Jolly Phonics</i>) |

Source: Own elaboration

4. DATA ANALYSIS

Data were descriptively analysed in order to know the different means and standard deviation of Spanish (phonological awareness, naming, speed naming and word and pseudo-word reading) variables in both schools; and English (phonological awareness and naming) emergent literacy skills in School 1 for both pre-test and post-test and for both treatment and control groups. Due to that, the Levene's test for Equality of Variances and the Student's t-test were carried out.

In addition, a lineal regression using the Spanish variables was calculated through the stepwise method for both schools. Due to the fact that the sample size was less than 30 in the case of the groups of the state school, School 1, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used in order to contrast the results achieved by a Paired Samples t Test. Through Cohen's *d*, it was possible to calculate the effect size of the differences between the treatment and control groups' means in pre-test and post-test (Cohen, 1988). Differences between sex and age were also analysed.

To continue, the *English Reading Predictors Test* was analysed by Student's t-test and by calculating the number of errors committed by both treatment and control groups in School 1. This would provide the differences between pre-test and post-test results in both treatment and control groups regarding phonological awareness and naming.

In addition, Spanish (letter, word and pseudo-word reading) and English variables (sound pronunciation, word and pseudo-word reading) were analysed through Pearson's correlation and regression coefficients in both schools. The English reading variables were possible to be taken from the *Jolly Phonics* final assessment, which allowed the researcher create comparisons with the variables of the Spanish ALE1 test.

Finally, *Jolly Phonics* provided the Age Reference Scale which was introduced in the process of analysis as a variable. In this way, pupils' actual age could be compared to their English reading age achieved at the end of the study in both schools.

Finally, a hierarchical cluster analysis of cases was carried out in order to identify the most difficult English sounds and activities for pupils during the whole implementation of the method. In addition, the Kolgomorov-Smirnov test was calculated to identify the transference capability of sounds.

Regarding contextual elements and considering the family context, the results obtained in the questionnaire '*Cuestionario sobre lectura en el contexto familiar*' were analysed by using the Mann-Whitney U Test (due to a sample of 41 responses) in order to establish differences according to each school. The *Jolly Phonics* questionnaire was also analysed through the Student's t-test since, in this case, the sample counted with 115 responses.

Furthermore, observations were analysed in a quantitative way through the information collected from the observation templates by following a hierarchical cluster analysis. The results were complemented with the qualitative information obtained in the recordings and diaries which were analysed through a textual data analysis.

The researcher created a categorial system and codes through an inductive way. Through this system, the information collected in the interviews and the notes written down in the diaries during the observations were coded. After that, the information was interpreted conceptually from the previous identified categories.

Finally, the *QUANT* and *qual* components were integrated into joint displays which enabled the presentation and connection of the results obtained in both components.

CHAPTER 4. FINDINGS

This chapter includes information about the results obtained from the data collected. These findings respond to the specific objectives presented in the last section of chapter two. In this chapter, the results obtained are divided into three sections: findings related to the pre-tests and post-tests of the emergent Spanish and English literacy skills; findings related to *Jolly Phonics* and pronunciation aspects; and findings related to the contextual elements involved in the literacy process of the participating sample. This chapter concludes with the integration of both *QUANT* and *qual* components.

1. FINDINGS RELATED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMERGENT LITERACY SKILLS

The results presented in this section correspond to the following specific objectives:

1. To identify language factors which require more attention during the early literacy process and determine which variable predict best Spanish reading skills in the Spanish pre-test in both schools.
2. To compare the levels of phonological awareness (PA), naming (N), speed naming (SN), and word and pseudo-word reading (WR, PWR) obtained in the Spanish pre-test in both schools.
3. To compare the level of pupils' emergent literacy skills in Spanish and English, considering phonological awareness; picture, colour, number, and letter naming (PN, CN, LN); speed naming; and word and pseudo-word reading used as pre-test and post-test in all participating groups of the state school.
4. To compare the level of pupils' emergent literacy skills in Spanish, considering phonological awareness; picture, colour, number, and letter naming; speed naming; and word and pseudo-word reading used as pre-test and post-test in all participating groups of the private school.

1.1. Spanish reading predictors. Analysing results from Pre-test ALE1

The analysis carried out in the different tests showed high correlations between Spanish word and pseudo-word reading, letter and word reading, phonological awareness and word reading, being over 0.05 in all cases. In the case of the correlations between word reading and picture, colour and number naming were below 0.05 or sometimes close to zero. Due to that, it would be important to consider the predictive capability of letter and pseudo-word reading, phonological awareness and naming on word reading.

The regression formula showed that phonological awareness, letter and pseudo-word reading and picture naming would identify the differences found in letter reading in the participating pupils.

These results explained the 79.2% of the observed variability in word reading but colour and number speed naming were excluded. There were statistically and significantly differences between the variance of these variables and the error variance ($p < 0.05$).

1.2. Difficulty level in Spanish phonological awareness, naming and reading in Pre-test ALE1

Results obtained in this case reveal that the tests' sections related to picture, colour and number naming were the easiest ones. Their means and the percentile 25 (P25) were very close to the maximum value (36). On the other hand, pseudo-word reading seemed to be the most difficult section with 64% mean over the maximum scores. After that, word reading (68% mean over the maximum value), phonological awareness (82% mean over the maximum value) and letter reading (87% mean over the maximum value) followed.

1.3. School differences in Pre-test ALE1

First, in order to identify the individual differences of the participating sample, sex and age were analysed. These variables did not present statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$). Regarding sex, standard deviations were similar between both groups except for colour naming in which girls obtained higher and less dispersed scores ($M=35.69$; $DT=0.70$) than those obtained by boys ($M=34.17$; $DT=4.7$). With regard to age, means were higher in older pupils. In any case, these differences were not statistically significant.

After observing no differences in relation to sex and age, the analysis focused on possible differences regarding the school to which children belonged. Table 7 presents the means and standard deviations of pupils from both schools in the ALE1 test. In all sections related to letter, word and pseudo-word reading as well as phonological awareness, statistically significant differences can be detected between pupils from both schools. The higher means and lowest standard deviations corresponded to pupils from School 2, except for the case of pseudo-word

reading. This could determine that the reading level achieved by the pupils from School 2 was higher and more uniform than the level achieved by pupils from School 1.

Table 7. Means and Standard deviations according to each school in pre-test ALE1

| | School | N | M. | S. D. |
|-------------------------------|---------------|----------|-----------|--------------|
| Letter reading | School 1 | 25 | 22.92 | 13.03 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 34.18** | 4.28 |
| Word reading | School 1 | 25 | 1.04 | 1.39 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 4.19** | 1.31 |
| Pseudo-word reading | School 1 | 25 | 1.04 | 1.27 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 3.88** | 1.47 |
| Phonological awareness | School 1 | 25 | 46.92 | 7.84 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 61.51** | 6.42 |
| Picture naming | School 1 | 25 | 35.20 | 2.73 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 34.69 | 2.77 |
| Colour naming | School 1 | 25 | 34.76 | 4.57 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 35.04 | 2.85 |
| Number naming | School 1 | 25 | 35.28 | 1.40 |
| | School 2 | 77 | 35.65 | 1.04 |

Source: Own elaboration **p< 0.01.

Furthermore, correlations between scores obtained in each section in both schools were carried out. Results also presented different values in this case for both schools. In the case of School 1, correlations between phonological awareness, letter, word and pseudo-word reading were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) and equal or superior to 0.60. However, School 2, correlations did not reach 0.30 and statistically significant differences were only found in two variables.

The high correlations (over 0.05) obtained in the different sections by the pupils from School 1 could be due to the fact that these pupils were still using their phonological awareness when reading words and pseudo-words. This means they were reading through a non-lexical route. This seemed to be related to the influence of the reading teaching method used in this school

(alphabetic and syllabic) which is going to be analysed with the observations of the classrooms in the third section of the present chapter.

School 2 presented lower correlations in all sections of the test. The reason could be related to the fact that these pupils developed more their literacy skills, they did no longer need their phonological awareness in order to read. It means they were developing from a non-lexical to a lexical route. So, they were in a different stage of their reading development. This fact also may seem to be related to the teaching method used (phonics and global).

1.4. Emergent Spanish literacy skills in the state school, School 1. Comparing Pre-test and Post-test (ALE1 and EGRA)

Determining if both treatment and control groups were initially homogeneous in Spanish was important in order to start the research. The results related to ALE1 as pre-test revealed non-statistically significant differences between both groups in the pre-test in phonological awareness ($t = -0.650$; $p = 0.522$), naming ($t = -0.882$; $p = 0.387$), speed naming ($t = 0.344$; $p = 0.734$) and word and pseudo-word reading ($t = -0.631$; $p = 0.531$). In all cases, equality of variances according to the Levene's test was assumed.

Regarding both pre-test and post-test, Table 8 presents the means obtained in the emergent Spanish literacy skills. It could be noticed that statistically significant differences were detected between both treatment and control groups in the post-test in phonological awareness ($t = -1.603$; $p = 0.115$) and naming ($t = -0.655$; $p = 0.516$), speed naming ($t = -0.577$; $p = 0.567$) and word and pseudo-word reading ($t = -3.032$; $p = 0.005$). Equality of variances was assumed according to the Levene's test in all cases except for word and pseudo-word reading.

Moreover, the Wilcoxon test was used in order to confirm these results. The differential growth was higher in the treatment group in all variables, except for the variables 'Naming' and 'Speed Naming' (See Table 8).

Furthermore, Cohen's d ($d = 0.44$) was calculated in order to analyse phonological awareness in post-test. The purpose was to determine the effect size which existed between both treatment and control groups.

The effect size was small (s) in the case of phonological awareness (0.22). Considering post-test ‘Naming’ ($d = 1.18$), it presented a small effect size (0.09). With regard to post-test ‘Speed naming’ ($d = 0.16$), it revealed a small effect size (0.08). Finally, post-test ‘Word and pseudo-word reading’ ($d = 0.86$) revealed a medium effect size (m) (0.40).

Probably, pupils were developing from the non-lexical to a lexical route at the end of the first year of Primary Education. This may explain why the effect size in the case of word and pseudo-word reading was medium.

Table 8. Emergent Spanish literacy skills (ALE1 and EGRA). Comparison of means of pupils in School 1.

| | Treatment | | Differential growth Pre-post | Control | | Differential growth Pre-post | Δ Post-test |
|------------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | Pre-test Mean | Post-test Mean | | Pre-test Mean | Post-test Mean | | |
| Spanish PA | 1.79 | 3.63 | 1.84 | 1.54 | 3.19 | 1.65 | 0.22 (s) |
| Spanish N | 32.75 | 35.35 | 2.60 | 31.27 | 35.11 | 3.84 | 0.09 (s) |
| Spanish SN | 48.74 | 35.64 | -13.20 | 50.72 | 35.47 | -15.25 | 0.08 (s) |
| Spanish WR, PWR | 0.74 | 6.62 | 5.88 | 0.62 | 5.62 | 5.00 | 0.40 (m) |

Source: Own elaboration.

1.5. Emergent Spanish literacy skills in the private school, School 2. Comparing Pre-test and Post-test (ALE1 and EGRA)

In the case of the private school, it is noticeable in Table 9 and Table 10 that the higher differential growth was found in Spanish word and pseudo-word reading and not in Spanish phonological awareness in the four treatment groups.

This might have been due to the fact that these pupils were learning through an analytic phonic method since Early Childhood Education and phonological awareness was automatized in a way that children were able to read without the need of decoding each sound, that is,

phonological awareness was no longer needed in order to read. Pupils were, then, reading through a lexical route.

In addition, Cohen's d was analysed in this case. As it can be noticed, there was a high effect size in all groups in the case of word and pseudo-word reading, which may confirm the fact that these pupils were in a more advanced level of reading development.

Table 9. Emergent Spanish literacy skills (ALE1 and EGRA). Comparison of means of pupils in School 2.

| | Treatment A | | Differential growth Pre-post | Treatment B | | Differential growth Pre-post |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------------------------------|
| | Pre-test | Post-test | | Pre-test | Post-test | |
| | Mean | Mean | | Mean | Mean | |
| Spanish PA | 3.80 | 4.55 | 0.75 (m) | 4.14 | 4.25 | 0.11 (s) |
| Spanish N | 34.51 | 35.23 | 0.72 (m) | 34.91 | 35.30 | 0.39 (m) |
| Spanish SN | 48.43 | 38.39 | -9.54 (s) | 40.96 | 36.84 | -4.12 (s) |
| Spanish WR, PWR | 3.79 | 6.76 | 2.97 (h) | 4.41 | 6.47 | 2.06 (h) |

Source: Own elaboration.

Table 10. Continuation of Table 9.

| | Treatment C | | Differential growth Pre-post | Treatment D | | Differential growth Pre-post |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------------------------------|
| | Pre-test | Post-test | | Pre-test | Post-test | |
| | Mean | Mean | | Mean | Mean | |
| Spanish PA | 3.61 | 4.03 | 0.42 (m) | 3.61 | 4.46 | 0.85 (h) |
| Spanish N | 35.29 | 35.77 | 0.48 (m) | 34.81 | 35.28 | 0.47 (m) |
| Spanish SN | 39.26 | 36.37 | -2.89 (s) | 44.12 | 36.92 | -7.2 (s) |
| Spanish WR, PWR | 4.19 | 6.5 | 2.31 (h) | 3.75 | 6.77 | 3.02 (h) |

Source: Own elaboration.

1.6. Emergent English literacy skills in the public school, School 1. Comparing Pre-test and Post-test (*English Reading Predictors Test*)

At this point of the present research, it seems necessary to remember that School 1 followed a pre-test - post-test design through which emergent Spanish and English literacy skills were analysed. This design was possible as this school was not using a phonic method for teaching English literacy. In the case of School 2, as this school already started to introduce phonics before the implementation of *Jolly Phonics*, an English pre-test was not required.

The English variables (PA, N) were analysed in the same way as the Spanish ones. It was also essential to check that both treatment and control groups were homogeneous in the English pre-test (*English Reading Predictors Test*).

With regard to the *English Reading Predictors Test* and according to the Levene's test, results revealed non-statistically significant differences between both treatment and control groups in the pre-test in both variables, phonological awareness ($t= 0.175$; $p= 0.862$) and naming ($t= -1.359$; $p= 0.181$). In both cases, equality of variances was assumed.

Table 11 shows the means obtained by pupils in both pre-test and post-test. Statistically significant differences could be detected between both groups in the post-test in the variables of phonological awareness ($t= -3.130$; $p= 0.003$) and naming ($t= -3.716$; $p= 0.001$). In both cases, equality of variances was assumed according to Levene's test.

Moreover, the Wilcoxon test was necessarily used with the purpose of confirming these results. In both English phonological awareness and naming variables, higher means could be detected in the treatment group, which received the *Jolly Phonics* implementation. Consequently, this group presented a higher differential growth.

Furthermore, Cohen's d ($d= 0.83$) was calculated in order to analyse post-test phonological awareness with the purpose of determining the effect size which both groups presented. The effect size for post-test PA was small (s) (0.38). However, in the case of post-test N ($d= 1.04$), it revealed a medium effect size (m) (0.46). This may be related to the fact that the method works vocabulary in a recurrent way and pupils from the treatment group had retained it better.

Table 11. Emergent English literacy skills. Comparison of means in School 1. The *English Reading Predictors Test*

| | Treatment | | Differential growth Pre-post | Control | | Differential growth Pre-post | Δ Post-test |
|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | Pre-test Mean | Post-test Mean | | Pre- test Mean | Post- test Mean | | |
| English PA | 0.42 | 0.82 | 0.40 | 0.44 | 0.67 | 0.22 | 0.38 (s) |
| English N | 0.55 | 0.79 | 0.24 | 0.44 | 0.53 | 0.09 | 0.46 (m) |

Source: Own elaboration

2. FINDINGS RELATED TO METHODS FOR TEACHING READING

The results presented in this section are related to the implementation of *Jolly Phonics* in both participating schools. These findings correspond to the following objectives:

1. To compare the number of errors committed in the *English Reading Predictors Test* at the beginning and at the end of the study regarding the variables of ‘Phonological Awareness’ and ‘Naming’ in both treatment and control groups in the state school.
2. To determine correlations between Spanish letter, word and pseudo-word reading and English sound pronunciation (SP), word and pseudo-word reading in both schools.
3. To identify the level of English reading achieved by all pupils at the end of the research and compare pupils’ actual age to the Age Reference Scale for native English speakers provided by *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.
4. To identify the most difficult English sounds to be pronounced by Spanish children.
5. To identify the type of activities which are more difficult for Spanish pupils.
6. To identify which sounds are more transferable from Spanish to English.

2.1. Comparison of errors committed in the *English Reading Predictors Pre-test and Post-test* in the public school, School 1

School 1 presented (previous section) very different results in each group regarding emergent English literacy skills. It is important to notice that the differential growth in these results was almost non-existent in the case of the English naming variable in the control group. This fact led the researcher to specifically analyse the errors committed by both treatment and control groups in the *English Reading Predictors Test*.

So, this analysis was carried out in order to understand if these differences were related to the reading teaching method. On the left of Table 12 all the items of this test are specified regarding phonological awareness and naming. As it could be noticed, errors were mostly reduced in the

treatment group (*d-*). For example, naming ‘snake’, a word which was presented to the pupils since the beginning of the *Jolly Phonics* implementation, revealed zero errors in the post-test of the treatment group.

Regarding the control group, errors were generally kept higher. In some cases, these errors were also reduced (e.g. Naming ‘rainy’) but in others, they increased. Examples could be found in naming ‘sad’ and ‘nose’ (*d-*).

Table 12. Comparison of errors committed in the *English Reading Predictors* Pre-test and Post-test in School 1

| | Treatment | | <i>d-</i> | Control | | <i>d-</i> |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|
| | Sum of Errors Pre-test | Sum of Errors Post-test | | Sum of Errors Pre-test | Sum of Errors Post-test | |
| Middle sound recognition /æ/ | 12 | 2 | -10 | 13 | 1 | -12 |
| Middle sound recognition /ɪ/ | 15 | 6 | -9 | 15 | 12 | -3 |
| Middle sound recognition /n/ | 20 | 6 | -14 | 18 | 8 | -10 |
| Initial sound recognition /n/ | 13 | 1 | -12 | 13 | 5 | -8 |
| Initial sound recognition /s/ | 17 | 0 | -17 | 13 | 5 | -8 |
| Initial sound recognition /t/ | 15 | 2 | -13 | 15 | 9 | -6 |
| Final sound recognition /t/ | 21 | 8 | -13 | 18 | 17 | -1 |
| Final sound recognition /n/ | 12 | 4 | -8 | 12 | 6 | -6 |
| Final sound recognition /l/ | 17 | 12 | -5 | 18 | 18 | 0 |
| Naming SAD | 15 | 12 | -3 | 14 | 15 | +1 |
| Naming RAINY | 13 | 11 | -2 | 21 | 16 | -5 |
| Naming PENCIL | 11 | 8 | -3 | 11 | 9 | -2 |
| Naming NOSE | 13 | 9 | -4 | 14 | 15 | +1 |
| Naming SNAKE | 17 | 0 | -17 | 22 | 20 | -2 |
| Naming TEN | 12 | 3 | -9 | 13 | 2 | -11 |
| Naming FRUIT | 13 | 2 | -11 | 15 | 15 | 0 |
| Naming PEN | 11 | 8 | -3 | 13 | 13 | 0 |
| Naming SUNNY / SUN | 8 | 2 | -6 | 12 | 4 | -8 |

Source: Own elaboration.

Moreover, the Wilcoxon test was used in order to identify differences which existed between the number of errors reduced (*d*-) in both treatment and control groups. Results presented statistically significant differences between them ($Z=-2,99$, $p= 0,003$). Then, the treatment group seemed to be the one in which most of the errors that pupils committed were reduced at the end of the study.

2.2. Correlations between English and Spanish variables in both schools.

Correlations were calculated between the English sound pronunciation, word and pseudo-word reading from the final reading assessment of *Jolly Phonics*, and the Spanish reading variables from the ALE1 post-test.

Regarding the state school, School 1, high correlations could be found between some variables as English sound pronunciation, English word and pseudo-word reading. However, the highest and most significant one seems to be found between English word reading and Spanish pseudo-word reading, which identified some type of relationship between both languages (English and Spanish). It could be related to the fact that knowledge acquired in languages could be transferred (Table 13).

Table 13. Correlations between Spanish and English reading variables in School 1.

| | English SP | English WR | English PWR | Spanish LR | Spanish WR | Spanish PWR |
|-----------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| English Sound Pronunciation | 1 | .892** | .776** | .350 | .196 | .264 |
| English Word Reading | | 1 | .826** | .444* | .215 | .547** |
| English Pseudo-Word Reading | | | 1 | .090 | .293 | .310 |
| Spanish Letter Reading | | | | 1 | .389** | .472** |
| Spanish Word Reading | | | | | 1 | .815** |
| Spanish Pseudo-Word Reading | | | | | | 1 |

Source: Own elaboration ** $p<0.05$

The differences found in the scores related to English word reading can be explained with the variables considered in Table 14 (Adjusted $R^2=.71$). More specifically, English word reading

can be explained according to English pseudo-word reading (Beta=.472, p=.009) and Spanish pseudo-word reading (Beta=.310, p=.038). As correlations already displayed, English word reading correlated with English pseudo-word reading and Spanish pseudo-word reading, which is confirmed with the regression coefficients found in Table 14. These coefficients showed the predictive capability which these two variables have on word-reading. It may suggest that the learning of phonological awareness in English seems to be influencing the reading of pseudo-words in English and Spanish, which means that these pupils were able to decode any pseudo-word at the end of the implementation of *Jolly Phonics*. This could be a signal that *Jolly Phonics* was influencing these skills and that children will be able to read any word in English as they have acquired the skills to do so.

Table 14. Regression coefficients. School 1

| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| Constant | -.456 | 4.907 | | -.093 | .927 |
| English Sound Pronunciation | .161 | .100 | .264 | 1.607 | .124 |
| English Pseudo-Word Reading | .555 | .191 | .472 | 2.900 | .009 |
| Spanish Letter Reading | .164 | .096 | .225 | 1.715 | .103 |
| Spanish Word Reading | -.813 | .664 | -.156 | -1.223 | .236 |
| Spanish Pseudo-Word Reading | .732 | .329 | .310 | 2.226 | .038 |

Source: Own elaboration

In the case of the private school, School 2, high correlations were also detected. In this case, the correlations found are between English word reading and Spanish word reading and between English pseudo-word reading and Spanish word reading and Spanish and English pseudo-word reading (Table 15).

This may indicate that transferences occur between languages. In the case of the public school, pupils were situated in a non-lexical route, where phonological awareness is necessary to decode and read. Whereas the case of the private school, pupils were situated in a lexical route,

at the end of the study, where decoding is automatized and are able to read without using phonological awareness not only for Spanish but also for English. This may be probably related to the teaching method used by each school in Spanish and English (*Jolly Phonics*).

Table 15. Correlations between Spanish and English reading variables in School 2.

| | English SP | English WR | English PWR | Spanish LR | Spanish WR | Spanish PWR |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| English Sound Pronunciation | 1 | .491** | .320** | .084 | .232* | .146 |
| English Word Reading | | 1 | .699** | .013 | .228* | .208 |
| English Pseudo-Word Reading | | | 1 | -.146 | .282** | .340** |
| Spanish Letter Reading | | | | 1 | .045 | .218* |
| Spanish Word Reading | | | | | 1 | .538** |
| Spanish Pseudo-Word Reading | | | | | | 1 |

Source: Own elaboration ** p<0.05

In the case of School 2, the differences found in the scores related to English word reading can be explained with the variables considered in Table 16 (Adjusted $R^2=.61$). More specifically, English word reading can be explained according to English pseudo-word reading (Beta=.584, $p=.0001$) and the correct pronunciation of individual English sounds (Beta=.374, $p=.0001$). In this case, as correlations also displayed, the predictive capability on word reading is found in the variables of English sound pronunciation and English pseudo-word reading. This may suggest that these pupils have already acquired a more advanced level of English reading skills, situating them in a lexical route of development. This could be related to the fact these pupils had had previous instruction on phonological awareness in both languages.

Table 16. Regression coefficients. School 2

| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| Constant | -3.624 | 3.678 | | -.985 | .327 |
| English Sound Pronunciation | .270 | .055 | .374 | 4.960 | .000 |
| English Pseudo-Word Reading | .828 | .114 | .584 | 7.270 | .000 |
| Spanish Letter Reading | .096 | .077 | .090 | 1.245 | .217 |
| Spanish Word Reading | .437 | .427 | .083 | 1.024 | .309 |
| Spanish Pseudo-Word Reading | -.413 | .247 | -.142 | -1.673 | .098 |

Source: Own elaboration

2.3. Comparison between pupils' actual age and the Age Reference Scale in both schools

Jolly Phonics provided the Age Reference Scale, which allowed the researcher to determine the English reading age achieved by pupils at the end of the study. The chronological age of the pupils from all treatment groups in School 1 and School 2 was 7.1 years old at the end of the research. Following the information provided by the Age Reference Scale, the English reading age which the participating pupils attained at the end of the implementation of the method was 5.7 years old (Table 17). It means that there was only a difference of 16 months between a Spanish and a native English child regarding the English reading level acquired at the end of the implementation of the method.

It can also be noticed that each group of the School 2 achieved a different level. Groups A and B attained the same level and it may be explained as they had the same teacher using the same content in both of them. However, groups C and D attained different levels with a great difference between them. In this case, the fact of having the same teacher may have not influenced. The reason may be related to the fact that in the middle of the school year, the

teacher became ill and a new teacher arrived for around two months. Still, it was the same teacher for both groups but maybe the use of *Jolly Phonics* was different in each of them, probably due to the fact that this teacher had no previous training on *Jolly Phonics*. Thus, she may have not been so systematic in both groups.

Table 17 Comparison of the actual age and the Age Reference Scale of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools

| | Actual age | English reading age | Sign. |
|---|------------|--|---------|
| Treatment groups A, B, C, D (School 2) | 7.1 | Group A: 5.6 Group B: 5.6 Group C: 5.9 Group D: 5.5 | 0.001** |
| Treatment group A (School 1) | 7.1 | Group A: 5.7 | 0.001** |

Source: Own elaboration ** p<0.05

2.4. Difficulties found regarding the type of sound and activities learnt during the *Jolly Phonics* implementation

These results are related to the difficulties which the participating Spanish children found when pronouncing specific English sounds and doing some activities.

After analysing both schools through the cluster analysis, it was found two types of grouping (Table 18). The first one corresponded to the School 2 with only one student from School 1. The second grouping corresponded completely to School 1. In these two groupings it could also be appreciated two or three levels of clusters which joined students with similar learning levels. Clusters were, then, organised in terms of pupils' learning level.

The first grouping comprised two levels of clusters:

The first level of the first grouping presented cluster 1 which contained 23 pupils whose means were equal or close to the maximum score in all groups of sounds. In this case, there were only pupils from School 2 and just one student from School 1. Cluster 2 joined to this first one as

they were 5 more pupils who also attained high scores, except for the exercise 1 of group 4 of sounds (/eɪ/, /dʒ/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, /i:/, /o:/).

The second level of the first grouping presented two clusters, 6 (with 9 pupils) and 7 (with 9 pupils), whose means were below the first level of the clusters already commented. The most difficult problem found for these pupils was related to group 7 as the spelling <er> was introduced and probably, strong /ɜ:/ and weak forms /ə/, of this spelling could have been confused.

Regarding the second grouping, three levels of clusters were detected which all belong to the pupils of School 1:

The first level of this grouping corresponded to clusters 3 (with 5 pupils) and 5 (with 7 pupils). This level represented the pupils who achieved higher scores in the state school. However, this level was below the pupil from School 1 which was found in the first grouping mentioned before. So, the first level of this second grouping is below the level of the cluster 1 of the first grouping.

In this first level of the second grouping, pupils attained high scores in all activities except for the third exercise 1 of group 3 (drawing a picture from a written and listened word), exercise 1 in group 4 (recognizing diphthongs) and exercise 2 in group 5 (matching pictures to written words). It may seem that this level could be close to the second level of the first grouping. Cluster 4 included two more pupils from School 1 which presented similar results to the pupils from clusters 3 and 5.

The second level of this second grouping included cluster 8 (with 2 pupils) and cluster 9 (with 5 pupils). This group of pupils presented scores below the means in the exercises of groups 3, 5, 6, and 7. So, this level of clusters presented a lower level of learning in comparison with the first level of this second grouping.

Finally, the third level of this second grouping of clusters belonged to 4 pupils from School 1. Three of them presented learning problems since the very beginning of the implementation of *Jolly Phonics*. These problems were related to sight, attention and motivation problems. The

other student was taking the first year of Primary Education again and presented reading problems in Spanish and English.

Thus, in general, School 2, the first grouping, presented more uniform results with only four clusters which joined into two in a second level. Only one student from School 1 achieved the level of the first cluster of School 2. In these two levels of clusters, it could be noticeable that the most frequent group of sounds were groups number 4 (/eɪ/, /dʒ/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, /i:/, /o:/) and 7 (/k/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ju:/, /ɜ:/, /a:/) which appeared to be the most difficult ones as most errors were found among them. Group number 5 (/z/, /w/, /ŋ/, /v/, /ʊ/, /u:/) followed them in terms of difficulty.

In the case of School 1, the second grouping, results were more diverse but with some coincidences with respect to the results found in School 2. First, clusters 4 from School 1 and 7 from School 2 revealed similar problems with the same group of sounds.

Regarding the best pupils (which were found in clusters 1 and 2 for both schools), they were the ones with less errors, being similar for both schools. In addition, group number 4 (/eɪ/, /dʒ/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, /i:/, /o:/) appeared in almost all clusters. According to that, this group may be detected as one of the most complicated ones.

Furthermore, in School 1, clusters 3 and 8 were similar in terms that they presented errors in the same groups of sounds. The difference was that pupils from cluster 8 revealed problems in all types of activities, which may be related to a complete lack of control of the sounds whereas the errors committed by pupils from cluster 3 depended on the type of activity.

To sum up, groups 4, 5 and 7 seemed to be the most frequent ones in this analysis which reveal the difficulty of acquiring these sounds.

Regarding the type of activities, it can be noticed in Table 18 that the most frequent ones were related to listening to and matching diphthongs to pictures (activity 4.1.) matching pictures to written words (activity 5.2.), writing the complete words and drawing pictures about them (activities 7.1. and 7.2).

Table 18. Cluster analysis

| 1 level Cluster | 2 level Cluster | Group | Activity | School | Number of pupils |
|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| 1 | 1 | x | x | SCHOOL 1 + 1 SCHOOL 2 | 23 |
| 2 | | 4 | 4.1 | SCHOOL 1 | 5 |
| 6 | 2 | 7 | All | SCHOOL 1 | 9 |
| 7 | | 2, 4, 5 | 2.1, 4.2, 5.1 | SCHOOL 1 | 9 |
| 3 | 3 | 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 | 3.1, 3.3, 4.1, 4.2, 5.2, 6.2, 7.1 | SCHOOL 2 | 5 |
| 5 | | 3, 4, 5 | 3.3, 4.1, 5.2 | SCHOOL 2 | 7 |
| 4 | 4 | 2, 4, 5 | 2.1, 2.3, 4.1, 5.2 | SCHOOL 2 | 2 |
| 8 | 5 | 3, 4, 5, 6 y 7 | All | SCHOOL 2 | 2 |
| 9 | | 3, 5, 6, 7 | 3.3, 5.2, 6.2, 7.1, 7.2 | SCHOOL 2 | 5 |
| 10 | 6 | 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 | 2.3, 6.2, 4, 5, 7 Complete | SCHOOL 2 | 3 |
| 11 | | All | All | SCHOOL 2 | 1 |

Source: Own elaboration

2.5. Sounds which can be transferred from Spanish to English

In order to know if some sounds can be transferred between languages, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for one independent sample was calculated.

To do so, a selection of sounds was identified regarding the highest number of errors committed ($\leq 80\%$ errors). These sounds corresponded to the vowels contained in the following words: *mug, cup, paint, rain, pie, sea, queen, cloud, boy, rescue, mixer, bus, sun, train, goat, tie, brain, bed, chop, bone, star, pond*. There was also a selection of isolated sounds related to the following letters: $\langle ou, ue, unvoiced th, ai, p, n, qu, ar \rangle$.

As it can be noticed in Table 19, there were statistically significant differences between sounds with higher level of difficulty. Such differences worked differently depending on the sound.

The sounds which could not transfer were probably the ones which were more difficult for pupils.

Table 19. Kolgomorov-Smirnov test. Transference capability

| | Transference capability |
|---|-------------------------|
| N | 29 |
| Mean | 2.14 |
| Standard Deviation | 0.74 |
| Extreme maximum differences (Absolute) | 0.23 |
| Extreme maximum differences (Positive) | 0.23 |
| Extreme maximum differences (Negative) | -0.22 |
| Test statistics | 0.23 |
| Sig. (Bil) | 0.00 |

Source: Own elaboration

In relation to that, the following Table 20 was created in order to analyse the transference capability of the sounds selected, according to the difficulty found and the literature review presented in chapter 1. As it can be seen the sounds /i:/, /a:/, /e/ /k/, /p/ and /n/ are characterised by having a high level of transference; /ʌ/, /ju:/, /z:/, /əʊ/, /v/, /θ/ have a low level of transference; and /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/ would depend on the point of articulation of the sounds in each language.

Table 20. Level of transference of difficult sounds

| Errors (< o = 80% errors) | High level of transference | Low level of transference | Transference depending on the point of articulation |
|---|---|--|--|
| MUG | | X | |
| CUP | | X | |
| PAINT | | | X |
| RAIN | | | X |
| PIE | | | X |

| Errors ($< o = 80\%$ errors) | High level of transference | Low level of transference | Transference depending on the point of articulation |
|---|---|--------------------------------------|--|
| SEA | X (sound transferred, problem in alternative spelling for <ee>) | | |
| QUEEN | X | | |
| CLOUD | | | X |
| BOY | | | X |
| RESCUE | | X | |
| MIXER | | X | |
| BUS | | X | |
| SUN | | X | |
| TRAIN | | | X |
| GOAT | | X | |
| TIE | | | X |
| BRAIN | | | X |
| BED | X | | |
| CHOP | | X | |
| BONE | | X | |
| STAR | X | | |
| POND | | X | |
| OU | | | X |
| UE | | X | |
| TH | | X | |
| AI | | | X |
| P | X | | |
| N | X | | |
| QU | X | | |
| AR | X | | |

Source: Own elaboration

3. FINDINGS RELATED TO CONTEXTUAL ELEMENTS

These findings correspond to the following specific objectives:

1. To determine the teaching context of each school (teaching methods, resources and activities used in the classroom) in Childhood and Primary Education, contrasting with teachers' opinions.
2. To identify teachers' opinions of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.
3. To determine the family environment regarding Spanish and English reading practices carried out at home in both schools.
4. To identify parents' opinions of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.

3.1. Classroom environments

3.1.1. Classroom observations in both schools at the end of Early Childhood Education contrasting with teachers' opinions

3.1.1.1. School 1

First and with regard to resources available in each school, the classrooms in School 1 (Figure 35) presented reading books in a small library, posters on the wall, textbooks from a publishing house and photocopies from other published materials. Classrooms belonging to the Early Childhood Education period were characterized by the fact that teachers did not make use of audiovisual material or the Internet. Activities were mainly focused on the academic curriculum.



Figure 35. Early Childhood Education classroom. School 1

Regarding the teaching method used in this school to teach how to read in Spanish, teachers followed the synthetic alphabetic method, characterized by presenting first the letter names to, later, join them to vowels or consonants and form syllables. It could be confirmed with the use of materials from a publishing house containing the letter names (Figure 36).



Figure 36. Publishing house's materials to work on letters.

Considering the interview with the teacher belonging to the Early Childhood Education period of this school, she justified the use of this method due to the lack of training courses focused on other types of methods. Furthermore, her interest in learning new methods was noticeable. In the following quotation she mentioned that if children learn first the letter name, they could not read properly because this is not the real sound. On the contrary, she says that if children learn a sound, they would learn better:

La logopeda nos dio un curso y nos proporcionó muchas cosas para niños con problemas, y lecturas. Es verdad que el niño dice ‘be’ pero el sonido no es ese. Nos dijo que no, que no le enseñáramos el nombre de la letra, sino el sonido. No estaba mal, pero tiene su razón de ser. Si aprende el nombre de la letra, lee mal. Si el niño aprende el sonido con un gesto lo adquiere mejor (...) Yo lo voy a probar este año porque me ha convencido (...) (Interview to the teacher of Early Childhood Education in School 1).

3.1.1.2. School 2

In the case of School 2, regarding classroom resources, similarities could be found, such as posters on the wall (Figure 38). Their teaching material was designed and adapted by themselves in order to attend children’s needs and interests. In this case, classrooms belonging to the Early Childhood Education period presented audiovisual material and teachers used the Internet, as webpages or blogs. Furthermore, activities were based on the development of phonological awareness (Figure 37), reading fluency, vocabulary and reading comprehension, by using activities related to real experiences.



Figure 37. Example of activity used to work on phonological awareness. Source: www.aulapt.org.



Figure 38. Classroom in School 2

The interest of teachers in pupils' learning could be clearly noticed in the following quote, in which she explained that her main aim was focused on the fact that all pupils can read by equating different reading elements as phonological awareness, fluency, vocabulary and reading comprehension in each daily lesson:

(...) mi objetivo final: conseguir que todos mis niños lean, intento equilibrar los diferentes componentes de la lectura, la conciencia fonémica, la fonética, la fluidez, el vocabulario y la comprensión en la enseñanza diaria. (Interview to teacher 1 in School 2)

In this school, the teaching method used to teach how to read in Spanish during the Early Childhood Education period was the synthetic phonic method, complemented with activities characteristic of the global method, such as letter sorting with pictures, spelling, games to identify objects which start with a specific letter or word chaining.

The following table displays the qualitative elements of both schools.

Table 21. Joint display of qualitative data from both schools

| | School 1 | School 2 |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| Teaching method | Synthetic method: alphabetic complemented with spelling and sound activities. | Synthetic method: phonic complemented with activities of the global method. |
| Teaching resources | Publishing houses' books and photocopies | Material created by the teachers and adapted to pupils |
| Activities | Based on the curriculum and the publishing houses. | Based on real experiences and adapted to pupils. |

Source: Own elaboration.

3.1.2. Classroom observations in both schools during the implementation of *Jolly Phonics* in the first year of Primary Education

The results obtained in a Cluster analysis for the observation checklist revealed five clusters, which was complemented with the analysis of diaries written after each session. The first one contained the observations in which the phonemes corresponding to <oo, th, v, ee, or, z, w, oa, ai> were worked. These observations were presented together in this cluster because they did not contain writing exercises but they also had in common the scarce use of games with words.

The researcher's diary revealed a type of game with words which were used in some of these sessions. The researcher showed a flashcard to pupils who, after sounding out each sound, had to think of other words which contained one specific sound:

Hoy el repaso lo he hecho de manera diferente, les he mostrado algunas tarjetas para que dijeran los sonidos y, a su vez, les pedía una palabra que contuviera ese sonido. (Observation 32 (corresponding to <th>), 13th March, 2018, School 1)

The second cluster gathered the phonemes corresponding to <y, x, ie, ch, sh, e, ck> and in that specific order. They had in common no writing exercises and no use of games with words.

Cluster 3 contained the observations corresponding to the work of <h, r, l, f, n, ng, j, o>. In this case, all these observations presented no writing exercises but they included activities related to games with words or sounding out words.

It could be confirmed in the diary and photos (Figure 39) where the researcher specified the use of activities related to counting the number of sounds in words, identifying the position of a sound and sounding out words:

A continuación, le presenté la ‘flashcard’ que contenía la palabra ‘frog’ para identificar el número de letras y sonidos, así como la posición del sonido del día. Continué presentándoles una nueva palabra ‘blending’, ‘flag’ repasando igualmente cada sonido y pronunciándola completamente. (Observation 17 (corresponding to <f>), 1st February, 2018, School 1).



Figure 39. Identifying and counting sounds in words

Cluster 4 forms the observations corresponding to the work of <m, d, g, u, b>, which all included activities related to writing.

In this case, photos taken in the classroom (Figure 40) and diaries revealed the use of writing activities. The researcher carried out a group activity in which a sound or a word was pronounced and pupils had to write them down:

Para terminar la sesión [...] realicé un juego por grupos. Repartí un folio en blanco. Al principio pronuncié sonidos que reconocieron y escribieron correctamente. A continuación,

pronuncié las palabras “man, ant, frog” que, para mi sorpresa, consiguieron escribir. Aunque tuvieron más problemas con ‘frog’, a través del reconocimiento de los sonidos individuales, pudieron escribirla. (Observation 18 (corresponding to), 2nd February, 2018, School 1).



Figure 40. Working on writing in groups

Finally, Cluster 5 included the observations corresponding to the work of <s, a, t, i, p>, which presented no writing activities, no games with words, no activities of identifying sounds, no production of words and no activities related to sounding out words.

In these observations, it could be noticed that no complex activities were used as pupils were getting in contact for the first time with English phonics and all activities were new for them. Due to that, as the researcher mentioned in her diary, more explanation was needed as many of them could not understand what they had to do:

Posteriormente, les mostré la flashcard con la imagen del sol para indicarles que también esa palabra poseía ese sonido y vimos que se encontraba en primera posición. Esto les costó más trabajo de entender. [...] Esto les costó más trabajo por lo que tuve que ir mesa a mesa comprobando y explicando de nuevo, usando el español en algunos casos. (Observation 1 (corresponding to <s>), 24th November, 2017, School 1).

In the case of the private school, School 2, the analysis revealed four clusters.

The first cluster gathered the observations in which pupils worked <f, ai, ee, or> since there were no games and no dictations to practise. These may be due to the fact that <f> was the first time it was taught and the others were characterised by having alternative spellings, which could be problematic for children to understand. Through the diaries it was possible to understand that there was no time for extra games or dictations as it seems that children found this one difficult to understand because of the alternative spellings: ‘los niños muestran que es difícil entender que un sonido se puede escribir de varias formas.’ (Observation 6 (corresponding to <ai>), 7th February, 2018, School 2).

Cluster two joined observations corresponding to the work of <ck, ch>, revision of groups 1 and 2 of sounds) and revision of tricky words. This cluster was characterised by observations which focused on oral activities with no dictations of sounds or words: ‘Posteriormente pide a un alumno que vaya a la pizarra [...] señala una palabra y los demás pronuncian’ (Observation 2 (corresponding to <ck>), 28th November, 2017, School 2).

The third cluster corresponded to <u> and the revision of tricky words. They were characterised by the use of games to practise sounds in words and the use of spelling activities, probably due to the complexity in both cases. The diary revealed this use of games:

Les explica que van a hacer un juego con palitos que contienen palabras escritas. Cada uno coge un palito y tiene que leerlo y si es correcto se quedan el palo. Gana el que más palitos haya conseguido. Lo harán en grupos en las mesas. (Observation 3 (corresponding to revision of tricky words), 10th January, 2018, School 2).

Finally, cluster four refers to revisions of group number 4, the alternative spellings and <z>. Both revisions were characterised by a group activity in which pupils had to draw pictures containing the sounds of group 4 in order to classify them into the different spellings: ‘Individualmente debían realizar dibujos que contengan algún sonido para, posteriormente, pegarlos en algún árbol’ (Observation 8 (corresponding to revision of group 4), 5th March, 2018, School 2).

So, there were no other activities, such as songs or sounding out words, which were used in the other clusters. In the case of <z>, the sound was taught for the first time. In this case, it may be thought that it should have been included in cluster 1. The difference is that it coincided with these other revision observations of cluster 4 in that there were no other activities worked in the session, just working on the sound in their workbooks. Cluster one included blending activities, which is not the case for this cluster.

To sum up, a descriptive analysis allowed the researcher to understand the frequency which each activity was used in each school (Table 22). It seems that School 1 was more systematic in the use of activities. This school always used the activity related to the identification of sounds in words (100%) but also with a high frequency of use, this school worked on activities such as relating sounds to actions, songs, flashcards, listening to sounds after introducing them, blending, word boxes, identifying sounds in written words and the use of books and worksheets (80-100%). In the case of School 2, the use of activities depended on the session as they had more time to practise English, they did not probably systematize the use of activities for every session. The activities mostly used were: relating sounds to actions, use of word boxes, identifying sounds in written words, production of words containing the sounds worked and the use of workbooks (60-80%).

The less frequent activities coincided in both schools in the case of dictations of sounds or words and the use of puppets (<40%). This may be due to the fact that *Jolly Phonics* is mainly focused on pre-reading skills and writing is a skill which appears less during the first year of Primary Education in English. Both schools also coincided in the use of games with words containing the sounds (40-60%) and production of sounds containing the sounds (60-80%) as they are activities which can be practised to review sounds in a different way.

Table 22. Frequency of use of activities in each school

| | <40% | 40-60% | 60-80% | 80-100% | 100% |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------|----------|
| Relating sounds to actions | | | School 2 | School 1 | |
| Songs | | School 2 | | School 1 | |
| Flashcards | | School 2 | | School 1 | |
| Games to practise sounds | School 2 | | School 1 | | |
| Use of the pencil | | School 2 | School 1 | | |
| Listening to sounds after their introduction | | School 2 | | School 1 | |
| Games with words containing the sounds | | School 1 School 2 | | | |
| Writing sounds or words | School 1 | School 2 | | | |
| Dictation of sounds | School 1 School 2 | | | | |
| Dictation of words | School 1 School 2 | | | | |
| Blending | | School 2 | | School 1 | |
| Word boxes | | | School 2 | School 1 | |
| Identifying sounds in spoken words | | | School 2 | | School 1 |
| Identifying sounds in written words | | | School 2 | School 1 | |
| Production of words containing the sounds | | | School 1 School 2 | | |
| Counting the number of sounds in words | School 2 | | School 1 | | |
| Sounding out words | | School 2 | School 1 | | |
| Use of the pupils' book | School 2 | | | School 1 | |
| Use of worksheets | School 2 | | | School 1 | |
| Use of pupils' workbooks | School 1 | | School 2 | | |
| Use of puppets | School 1 School 2 | | | | |
| Individual and group activities | | School 2 | | | School 1 |

Source: Own elaboration.

Furthermore, the Mann Whitney U Test was calculated in order to compare observations carried out in both schools. In the case of School 1, statistically significant differences were found in the use of books (0.001), which were used daily; the use of worksheets (0.001), as they were also used daily; and the type of classroom grouping (0.013). School 1 daily carried out activities in group (Figure 41) and individually (See Quotation from Observation 9 below and Figure 42).

Continué la clase repasando palabras ‘blending’. En este caso fui sacando algunos alumnos para que lo hicieran de manera individual. De esta manera los alumnos estaban más pendientes y participativos, recordando los sonidos y palabras. (Observation 9 (corresponding to <h>), 12th January, 2018, School 1).



Figure 41. Group activities



Figure 42. Individual activities

In the case of School 2, statistically significant differences were found in the use of workbooks (0.002), as this school daily used them instead of worksheets. Regarding classroom grouping, School 2 carried out activities which were performed as group activities half of the sessions and individual activities during the other half of the sessions.

An interesting difference among schools was related to the space and the desks' arrangement. School 2 (Figure 43) kept a place for reading on the floor in the same way as when they were in Early Childhood Education. Desks were also placed in a way that children could sit down and work in groups. However, in School 1 (Figure 44) desks were placed in a way that all children were sitting down in pairs and looking directly to the board. In some cases, this arrangement changed in order to place them in groups but it was scarcely done. In School 1 there was no place to work on the floor as in Early Childhood Education. It was a problem for the researcher since all activities had to be carried out with children sitting down on their chairs and there was not enough space to move around the classroom.



Figure 43. Classroom in Primary Education. School 2



Figure 44. Classroom in Primary Education. School 1

3.1.3. Teachers' opinions of *Jolly Phonics*.

With regard to the analysis of the interviews, it seemed that there were five important categories which helped to understand the teachers' opinions of *Jolly Phonics*: learning, motivation, transference of reading skills, success of the method and improvements of the method. Among 'learning', sub-patterns were created which were related to teacher's learning, pupils learning of phonological awareness, pupil's learning of vocabulary, helping struggling readers and important moments of the learning process. Among 'motivation', attention, enthusiasm and participation were found. It is important to mention that the interview taken in School 1 was

carried out in Spanish whereas the interview taken in School 2 was performed in English as both participating teachers were native speakers and felt more comfortable speaking in English.

The first category was related to “learning”. The teacher from School 1 said that being part of this research was an opportunity for her to learn new methodologies in order to improve the education of her pupils: ‘para mí era una oportunidad de aprender nuevas metodologías’ (Teacher’s interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018). In contrast, teachers from School 2 did not consider this as an opportunity for learning as they were already using the method. It was related to the fact that the school wanted to participate in the research and find out what their pupils’ results were.

Furthermore, the teacher from School 1 also emphasized ‘learning’ with regard to children and she mentioned that it was the most important aspect of the method. She said that her pupils learnt how to read in English with no previous knowledge of English reading skills: ‘De no saber nada de inglés escrito, ahora he visto que la mayoría ya empiezan a leer palabras y muchos de ellos leen frases’ (Teacher’s interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018). She also mentioned that the children learnt to develop their phonological awareness and vocabulary in an easy, rapid and ludic way with no much effort in the learning process: ‘aprenden casi sin darse cuenta, sin esfuerzo, van aprendiendo los sonidos con facilidad, a través de juegos, historias y canciones, y luego, de repente están leyendo palabras y frases, lo que les proporciona mucha satisfacción’ (Teacher’s interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018). It was an aspect also mentioned by the teachers in the private school: ‘that’s very motivating for teachers when children don’t even know they are learning. They are having fun’ (Interview, teacher 1, School 2, 4th June 2018).

The increase of vocabulary was possible thanks to the recurrent way of using it along the method. The teacher from School 1 said that vocabulary was not presented around a specific topic but all vocabulary was repeated in all sessions. This favoured children’s better acquisition. However, she mentioned that the other method which she was using in the control group was not so successful since children did not retain vocabulary and were not able to read anything: ‘El otro método se centra en el aprendizaje de vocabulario por campos semánticos y

estructuras gramaticales, sin embargo, una vez se cambia de campo semántico, el ya aprendido se usa muy poco y el alumnado lo acaba olvidando' (Teacher's interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018).

In the case of the teachers from School 2, apart from referring to the 'learning' through phonological awareness acquisition, one of them mentioned that it is a method which could also help struggling readers: 'it is an extra help for the weaker children' (Interview, teacher 2, School 2, 4th June 2018). They also said this method is just different but it helps teachers and pupils because it is very systematic: 'it is very structured and it helps us a lot' (Interview, teacher 2, School 2, 4th June 2018); 'you haven't got to think what to do next week' (Interview, teacher 1, School 2, 4th June 2018).

In addition, 'learning' was related to the fact that the teacher from School 1 related it to the most important moment during the method, which she referred to as 'the first time that a student read a whole sentence in English with no problem'. There is a moment in the quotation referring to 'laugh' as if, even at the moment of the interview, she could not believe what her pupils had achieved.

Para mí el más impresionante fue cuando leyeron una frase, (laugh) la primera vez que Nicolás leyó la frase aquella y yo dije "¿Cómo? ¿Esto está pasando de verdad?". Sí, la verdad que es alucinante, ver que al principio no saben leer absolutamente nada y de repente te leen una frase en inglés bien pronunciada, es impresionante. (Teacher's interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018).

The second category may be related to 'motivation'. The teacher from School 1 said that pupils did not reduce their motivation throughout the whole year. They always wanted to participate and paid a lot of attention. She mentioned that pupils were always eager for learning more: 'Durante todo el curso el alumnado no ha perdido la motivación en ningún momento, en todo momento han estado muy atentos y participativos, con muchas ganas de seguir aprendiendo' (Teacher's interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018). It coincided with teachers in School 2: 'For me, one of the most important thing is the enthusiasm. If children feel enthusiastic and

motivated, they learn' (Interview, teacher 1, School 2, 4th June 2018); 'They look forward to knowing the new sound' (Interview, teacher 2, School 2, 4th June 2018).

The third category was related to the 'transference of reading strategies in the teaching-learning process'. The teacher from School 1 said to have noticed that her pupils were using their literacy skills learnt in English in order to learn Spanish during the Spanish lessons: 'En español hay transferencia de este método, el alumnado, además de trabajar los fonemas que son iguales en los dos idiomas en ambas clases, adquiere una serie de habilidades y estrategias que sirven para lectura en ambos idiomas' (Teacher's interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018). She also mentioned that she was trying to use some ideas to introduce phonics in the Spanish lesson. However, in the other school, the teachers said to be careful so as not to mix English with Spanish: 'we don't want them to confuse their Spanish phonics with the English' (Interview, teacher 2, School 2, 4th June 2018) but they also mentioned there could be a transference among reading skills: [...] 'there are certain sounds which are the same in Spanish and you don't need to work on them that much' (Interview, teacher 1, School 2, 4th June 2018).

All these three ideas presented above could be summed up as the 'method's success', the fourth category, which, in summary, includes teacher's learning of phonics, pupils' development of phonological awareness and vocabulary, motivation and transference of reading skills. This reinforced the quantitative data presented in the section before which referred to the high level of phonological awareness and vocabulary acquired by pupils from the treatment group in contrast with the control group.

Finally, as the fifth category, the teacher from School 1 mentioned possible improvements of the method in order to be used in the following years of Primary Education. Specifically, she said that the method, as being designed by and for English speakers to be used in an English context, it did not include much about communicative skills. So, this is something which she considered necessary to be included if this method is used in a Spanish school where English is only used inside classrooms: 'Yo introduciría situaciones comunicativas' (Teacher's interview. School 1, 23rd May, 2018).

In the case of teachers from School 2, they mentioned that the method also needed to be adapted as it was being used in Spain with 6-7-year-old children and there were some things which were too childish for them considering that the method is designed for 5-year-old English children:

the one thing I would say in the negative side is that the yellow books have a lot of colouring in them and can be tedious for this age group because, generally, the *Jolly Phonics* in other countries would start earlier and so, we decided that not specially to colour that much and write more sentences or word with the sounds that we are working. So, you have to adapt a bit. (Interview, teacher 2, School 2, 4th June 2018).

The teacher from School 1 concluded by emphasising the positive aspects of *Jolly Phonics* and her intention to continue using it. Teachers in School 2, when asked if they would continue using the method, they answered: ‘Definitely yes’ (Interview, teacher 1 and 2. School 2, 4th June 2018).

3.2. Family environment

3.2.1. English and Spanish reading practices at home

With regard to the English and Spanish reading practices developed in the family environment, the results from Mann-Witney U test presented in Table 23 show that item 1, item 2, item 4, item 7 and item 8 revealed statistically significant differences between both schools ($p < 0,05$). These differences were in favour of School 2 whose mid-ranges (item 1: 26.31; item 2: 27.06; item 4: 25.78; item 7: 28.81; item 8: 26.28) were higher than those found in School 1.

Table 23. Mid-ranges according to schools

| | School | N | Mid-ranges |
|--------------------------------------|----------|----|------------|
| 1. Do you have books at home? | School 1 | 25 | 17.60 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 26.31** |
| | School 1 | 25 | 17.12 |

| | School | N | Mid-ranges |
|--|----------|----|------------|
| 2. Do you usually read newspapers or books in front of your children? | School 2 | 16 | 27.06** |
| 3. Do your children read reading notebooks at home? | School 1 | 25 | 21.08 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 20.88 |
| 4. Do your children read reading books at home? | School 1 | 25 | 17.94 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 25.78** |
| 5. Do you practise share reading with your children? | School 1 | 25 | 19.68 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 23.06 |
| 6. Do your children like to read on their own? | School 1 | 25 | 21.48 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 20.25 |
| 7. Do you read English books? | School 1 | 25 | 16.00 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 28.81** |
| 8. Do you read English books with your children? | School 1 | 25 | 17.62 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 26.28** |
| 9. Do your children watch TV in English? | School 1 | 25 | 18.62 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 24.72 |
| 10. Do you use the Internet to practise reading with your children? | School 1 | 25 | 21.98 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 19.47 |
| 11. Do you use the Internet to practise English with your children? | School 1 | 25 | 18.86 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 24.34 |
| 12. Do your children attend English extracurricular lessons? | School 1 | 25 | 20.74 |
| | School 2 | 16 | 21.41 |

Source: Own elaboration ** $p < 0.05$.

Analysis was also carried out in terms of parents' age. In this case, statistically significant differences were found in item 2, in parents ($n=33$) who were 40-45 years old, whose mid-range was 20.18, item 6 (Mid-range: 25.42) and 7 (Mid-range: 25.17) regarding parents who were more than 45 years old ($p < 0,05$).

Regarding parents' education, there were statistically significant differences in item 7 (Mid-range: 19.67) in favour of the parents who received university studies. This may be due to the fact that reading in English is very important in any university degree.

Considering parents' type of job, there were statistically significant differences in item 2 (Mid-range: 19.79) regarding parents whose job was related to mid-level technicians and in the item 7 (Mid-range: 19.43) regarding parents whose job was related to the level of expert or executive ($p < 0,05$).

Finally, with regard to parents' sex, statistically significant differences were only found in item 1 (Mid-range: 22.06) in favour of women ($p < 0,05$).

3.2.2. Parents' opinions of *Jolly Phonics*

By descriptively analysing the questionnaires' responses by parents in both schools, it can be noticed that there were 115 parents who participated in the questionnaire. Considering who normally helped the pupils to do English tasks at home, it revealed that normally the mother was the one in charge of doing it. Mothers seemed to dedicate more time to help their children in completing English tasks and it coincided with the fact that mothers were normally the ones with English level, although they said to be a basic level of English (certified in some cases).

Regarding the frequency of activities, as it could be noticed in Table 24, most of the activities were practised at home by a high number of pupils either once (reading individual sounds; singing sounds' songs; reading words; reading sentences) or twice per week (singing English songs; listening to English songs; reading in English). However, there is also a high number of pupils who did not practise anything at all at home (listening sounds' songs, watching sounds' videos; using books with stickers; telling tales in English; watching films in English).

If each school is taken separately, it could be noticed that, in the case of School 1, the highest frequency of activities practised once per week is found in reading individual sounds; listening to sounds' songs; watching sounds' videos; singing sounds' songs, reading words; singing and listening to English songs.

In the case of School 2, the highest frequency of activities practised once per week is found in reading individual sounds; reading words; reading sentences; singing and listening to English songs; watching films in English; and reading in English.

It is important to highlight that parents from School 1 were encouraged to practise at home more activities related to the method. In the case of School 2, children were not demanded to do homework at home with parents as the school promotes children's autonomy. Probably due to that, parents from School 2 focused more on practising English through other ways, as watching films in English.

Table 24. Descriptive results of the frequency of activities carried out at home

| | | Zero times per week | Once per week | Twice per week | Three times per week | Four times per week | Five times per week |
|--|-----------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| Reading individual sounds | N | 25 | 29* | 15 | 7 | 3 | 4 |
| | School 1 | 5 | 9* | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| | School 2 | 20* | 20* | 12 | 5 | 2 | 3 |
| Listening to sounds' songs | N | 40* | 21 | 12 | 6 | 2 | 2 |
| | School 1 | 3 | 7* | 7* | 4 | 1 | - |
| | School 2 | 37* | 14 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Watching sounds' videos | N | 44* | 15 | 11 | 6 | 1 | - |
| | School 1 | 4 | 7* | 5 | 4 | - | - |
| | School 2 | 40 | 8 | 6 | 2 | 1 | - |
| Singing sounds' songs | N | 25 | 27* | 13 | 11 | 7 | 2 |
| | School 1 | 3 | 9* | 6 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| | School 2 | 22* | 18 | 7 | 10 | 5 | 1 |
| Reading words | N | 11 | 30* | 26 | 14 | 7 | 4 |
| | School 1 | 5 | 8* | 4 | 4 | 1 | - |
| | School 2 | 6 | 22* | 22* | 10 | 6 | 4 |
| Reading sentences | N | 18 | 26* | 25 | 10 | 5 | 4 |
| | School 1 | 8* | 6 | 4 | 2 | - | - |

| | | Zero times per week | Once per week | Twice per week | Three times per week | Four times per week | Five times per week |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|
| | School 2 | 10 | 20 | 21* | 8 | 5 | 4 |
| Singing English songs | N | 10 | 24 | 25* | 12 | 6 | 12 |
| | School 1 | 2 | 6* | 6* | 3 | 1 | 2 |
| | School 2 | 8 | 18 | 19* | 9 | 5 | 10 |
| Books with stickers | N | 36* | 13 | 11 | 6 | 1 | 2 |
| | School 1 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 2 | - | 1 |
| | School 2 | 28 | 10 | 9 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Telling tales in English | N | 31* | 18 | 10 | 12 | 3 | 3 |
| | School 1 | 9* | 2 | 2 | 3 | - | - |
| | School 2 | 22* | 16 | 8 | 9 | 3 | 3 |
| Listening to English songs | N | 11 | 16 | 20* | 18 | 7 | 18 |
| | School 1 | 1 | 7* | 6 | 6 | 2 | 1 |
| | School 2 | 10 | 9 | 14* | 12 | 5 | 17 |
| Watching films in English | N | 27* | 24 | 17 | 8 | 2 | 10 |
| | School 1 | 11* | 3 | 1 | 2 | - | - |
| | School 2 | 16 | 21* | 16 | 6 | 2 | 10 |
| Reading in English | N | 11 | 21 | 24* | 21 | 1 | 6 |
| | School 1 | 7* | 3 | 2 | 4 | - | - |
| | School 2 | 4 | 18 | 22* | 17 | 1 | 6 |

Source: own elaboration. Note: *High frequency

The Students t-test revealed non-statistically significant differences between boys and girls. However, it revealed statistically significant differences regarding the type of school (Table 25). In the case of School 1, statistically significant differences were found in listening to the method's songs (0.001); watching videos about the sounds (0.001). In the case of School 2, statistically significant differences were found in reading sentences in English (0.01); watching films in English (0.006); reading in English (0.007); parents' opinions of children's ability to

read words in English (0.03); and parents' opinions of children' ability to read sentences in English (0.001). These results could confirm the fact that parents from each school focused on different activities depending on the teachers' demands.

Furthermore, although there were non-statistically significant differences (0.10) regarding the English level and certification of the person who normally helped the child, it was interesting to find that parents from School 2 had, in general, more English level and in some cases a certified English level.

Regarding parents' opinions of children's achievement, most of them agreed that their children were able to recognise individual sounds and actions (n=90); to read words in English (n=93); to read short sentences in English (n=74); singing songs of the method (n=89); and they were motivated with stickers at classroom (n=75). Finally, they agreed on the fact that the method was good for the development of English. Only one disagreed and another one was not sure. The rest was missing data (Figure 45).

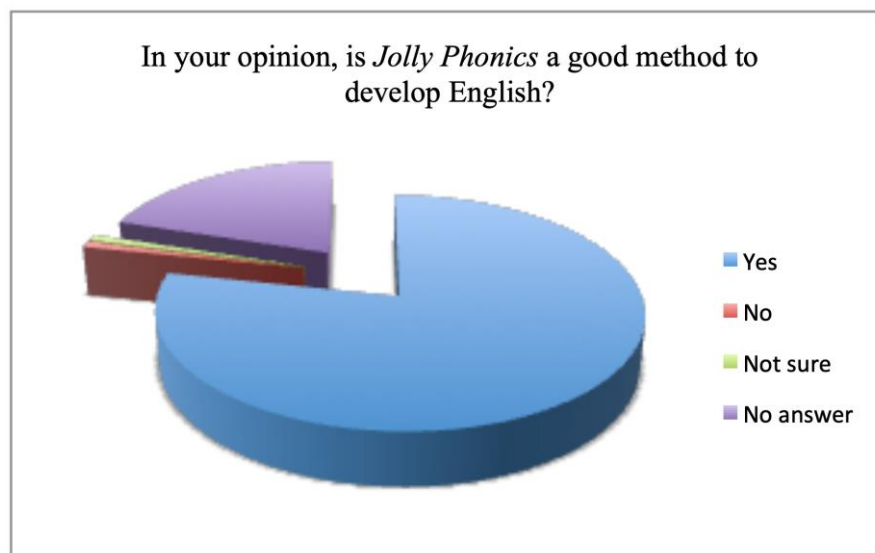


Figure 45. Parents' opinions of *Jolly Phonics*

Table 25. Students' t-test between schools

| | School | Mean | Standard Dev. |
|---|---------------|---------------|----------------------|
| How many people help your child to do English tasks? | School 1 | 3.36 | 2.158 |
| | School 2 | 3.18 | 1.905 |
| Who spends more time helping your child to do English tasks? | School 1 | 1.68 | 1.626 |
| | School 2 | 2.09 | 1.637 |
| The person who helps your child, what level of English does he/she have? | School 1 | 1.68 | 1.626 |
| | School 2 | 1.59 | 1.086 |
| English level and certification of the person who normally helps your child. | School 1 | 4.08 | 7.756 |
| | School 2 | 6.99 | 6.121 |
| Frequency of reading individual sounds at home. | School 1 | 1.43 | 1.363 |
| | School 2 | 1.32 | 1.352 |
| Frequency of listening to the sounds' songs at home. | School 1 | 1.68** | 1.086 |
| | School 2 | .72 | 1.199 |
| Frequency of watching videos about sounds at home. | School 1 | 1.45** | 1.050 |
| | School 2 | .53 | .947 |
| Frequency of singing the methods' songs at home. | School 1 | 1.68 | 1.323 |
| | School 2 | 1.38 | 1.396 |
| Frequency of reading words at home. | School 1 | 1.45 | 1.184 |
| | School 2 | 2.00 | 1.297 |
| Frequency of reading sentences at home. | School 1 | 1.00 | 1.026 |
| | School 2 | 1.85** | 1.352 |
| Frequency of singing English songs at home. | School 1 | 2.05 | 1.432 |
| | School 2 | 2.22 | 1.561 |
| Frequency of using books with stickers at home. | School 1 | 1.13 | 1.500 |
| | School 2 | .92 | 1.222 |
| Frequency of telling stories in English at home. | School 1 | .94 | 1.237 |
| | School 2 | 1.41 | 1.476 |
| Frequency of listening to English songs at home. | School 1 | 2.17 | 1.230 |
| | School 2 | 2.66 | 1.763 |

| | School | Mean | Standard Dev. |
|---|----------|---------------|---------------|
| Frequency of watching films in English at home. | School 1 | .65 | 1.057 |
| | School 2 | 1.82** | 1.633 |
| Frequency of reading in English at home. | School 1 | 1.19 | 1.276 |
| | School 2 | 2.16** | 1.265 |
| In your opinion, is your child able to recognise individual sounds in English (indicating the sound and the action)? | School 1 | .96 | .209 |
| | School 2 | 1.00 | .237 |
| In your opinion, is your child able to read words in English? | School 1 | .83 | .381 |
| | School 2 | .96** | .196 |
| In your opinion, is your child able to read sentences in English? | School 1 | .42 | .504 |
| | School 2 | .89** | .316 |
| In your opinion, is your child able to sing songs in English? | School 1 | .83 | .381 |
| | School 2 | .93 | .253 |
| In your opinion, is your child motivated when receiving a sticker in the English lesson? | School 1 | .88 | .338 |
| | School 2 | .86 | .353 |
| In your opinion, is <i>Jolly Phonics</i> a good method to develop English? | School 1 | 1.00 | .000 |
| | School 2 | 1.01 | .273 |

Source: own elaboration.

4. THE *QUANT* AND *qual* INTEGRATION

The following two tables are intended to offer a final review of all the information obtained.

Table 26 shows the integration of both *QUANT* and *qual* components with results obtained at the end of Early Childhood Education. As it could be noticed pupils from both schools differed in the Spanish pre-test. School 2 scored higher in phonological awareness and word and pseudo-word reading but achieved low correlations between these variables. The reason can be seen in the *qual* component since pupils from School 2 already received phonics instruction during Early Childhood Education through a phonics method combined with the global one. This allowed pupils to be situated in a lexical route. On the contrary, School 1 did not receive any phonics, teaching with an alphabetic method complemented with other activities, which situated them in a non-lexical route.

In addition to the teaching method, pupils from School 2, as opposed to School 1, seemed to be surrounded by a home environment which encouraged to create reading habits and their teachers were using materials and activities created and adapted to their interests, based on real experiences.

Table 26. Joint display of *QUANT* and *qual* components (Early Childhood Education)

| | | School 1 | School 2 |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| <i>QUANT</i> component | Reading predictors in pre-test | PA below the mean Similar naming scores W and PWR below the mean | PA above the mean Similar naming scores W and PWR above the mean |
| | Correlations | High correlation between PA and W, PWR (non-lexical route) | Low correlation between PA and W, PWR (lexical route) |
| | Literacy practices at home | No so many books at home, parents do not normally read in front of their children, children do not normally read reading | Lots of books at home, parents usually read in front of their children, children usually read reading books, |

| | | School 1 | School 2 |
|--------------------------|--|---|---|
| | | books, parents do not read in English with their children. | parents usually read in English with their children. |
| <i>qual</i> component | Introduction to phonics in English and Spanish in Early Childhood Education | No | Yes |
| | Reading teaching method to teach Spanish in Early Childhood Education | Synthetic method: alphabetic complemented with spelling and sound activities. | Synthetic method: phonic complemented with activities of the global method. |
| | Teaching resources for Spanish | Publishing houses' books and photocopies | Material created by the teachers and adapted to pupils |
| | Type of activities for Spanish | Based on the curriculum and the publishing houses. | Based on real experiences and adapted to pupils. |

Source: own elaboration.

Table 27 presents the integration of both components regarding Primary Education. In this case, it can be appreciated that, in the case of Spanish, both schools improved from pre-test to post-test. The difference was that School 2 improved more the reading variables whereas School 1 improved phonological awareness and the reading variables. The reason is that School 1 received *Jolly Phonics* for the first time, which could have influenced their phonological awareness in Spanish as it can be seen in the correlations between English word-reading and Spanish pseudo-word reading. School 2 also presented correlations but, in this case, between English and Spanish word-reading. This means that transference between languages can occur.

Moreover, the difference between schools is that pupils from School 2 seemed to improve more the reading level and their correlations were at the level of word-reading, which means that they had a more advance development of reading (lexical route). Phonics was influencing since

the period of Early Childhood Education. In the case of School 1, pupils received phonics for the first time in Primary Education in English, which seemed to have influenced their phonological awareness in Spanish as well. The number of hours dedicated to English seemed to have an impact but they also received some phonics in Early Childhood Education. In addition, parents in School 2 seemed to work with more real materials at home which could have also influenced their knowledge of English.

After the implementation of *Jolly Phonics*, both schools seemed to achieve a similar English reading level which can be related to the systematic use of the method by both schools with the proper material. This is confirmed by teachers and parents' opinions of the method, who said that pupils improved phonological awareness and reading skills, and they could notice the transference between languages. This *qual* information reinforced the QUANT component.

Table 27. Joint display of QUANT and *qual* components (Primary Education)

| | | School 1 | School 2 |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| QUANT component | Spanish pre-test – post-test | PA and WR, PWR presented higher differential growth in the experimental group | WR and PWR presented higher differential growth in all experimental groups |
| | Correlations between English and Spanish | Correlation between English WR and Spanish PWR. (Transference between languages). | Correlation between English WR and Spanish WR. (Transference between languages). |
| | English reading level achieved according to <i>Jolly Phonics</i> | Actual age: 7.1 Experimental group's English reading age: 5.8 | Actual age: 7.1 Experimental groups' English reading age: 5.6; 5.6; 5.9; 5.5 |
| | English at home | Activities were related to the <i>Jolly Phonics</i> method. | Activities were related to the practice of English through films or songs. |

| | | School 1 | School 2 |
|--------------------------|--|---|--|
| <i>qual</i> component | Teaching resources for English in Primary Education | <i>Jolly Phonics</i> : teachers' handbook, pupils' finger books, black and white pupils' books and workbooks, first year readers, flashcards, songs, puppets. | <i>Jolly Phonics</i> : teachers' handbook, pupils' finger books and workbooks, storybooks, flashcards, songs. |
| | Type of activities for English | High frequency of oral activities over written ones in the experimental group. | High frequency of oral activities over written ones in the experimental group. |
| | Hours of <i>Jolly Phonics</i> /week | 2 hours and 30 minutes | 4 hours |
| | Hours of English in other subjects | 5 hours 25 minutes | 8 hours |
| | English at home | Parents are encouraged to practise <i>Jolly Phonics</i> at home. | Children are demanded to do English tasks on their own. Parents promote other English activities, as watching films. |
| | Teachers opinions of <i>Jolly Phonics</i> | The method enables teachers and pupils' learning, motivation, transference of reading skills. Some adaptations are necessary. | |
| | Parents' opinions of <i>Jolly Phonics</i> | The method was good for their children's development of English. | |

Source: own elaboration.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This last chapter includes the discussion of the research and how the results are related to the literature presented in chapter two. Discussion details answer the main research question and objective as well as the specific objectives of the study. Limitations are stated with suggestions of future research and implications of the study. This is the chapter which includes the contribution to the advancement of knowledge.

1. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMERGENT LITERACY SKILLS AND RELEVANT CONCLUSIONS

The first objective of the study was related to the identification of factors which could require more attention in the early literacy process of Spanish pupils and which variable could predict best Spanish reading skills. For this objective, ALE1 was used as *pre-test* in both schools.

Findings presented through the regression analysis revealed that phonological awareness, letter and pseudo-word reading are factors which influence word reading. These variables can also predict almost 80% of the variability observed in word reading. Contrary to that, image, colour and number naming and speed naming lack this predictive capability.

This analysis also showed that activities based on phonological awareness, letter and pseudo-word reading were the most difficult ones for pupils as opposed to the activities related to naming and speed naming. This may be the reason why these activities showed less variability among pupils, which could also explain the little predictive capability which these activities present. However, the high difficulty found in phonological awareness, letter and pseudo-word reading activities enabled identifying individual differences among all pupils, which allow to present them as variables with good predictive capability of word reading. They seem to be the variables which require more attention in the early years.

These results coincide with the ones found by Ehri (1987), Suárez-Coalla et al. (2013), Batson-Magnuson (2017), Kenner et al. (2017), Bellocchi et al. (2017) and Stanley, Petscher & Catts (2018) who mention that phonological awareness can have an influence on later reading skills; or Jiménez & Ortiz (2000, 2007) who specifically talk about the relationship between phonological awareness and word and pseudo-word reading. It may also be possible to agree with Parrilla et al. (2004) or McIlraith (2018) on the fact that phonological awareness can be the strongest reading predictor together with pseudo-word reading.

Results also showed that picture naming had a scarce capability of prediction. So, although the predictive capability was not so strong as phonological awareness or pseudo-word reading, this variable also seems to have some influence on word-reading. These findings may be related to

what authors as Metsala (2010), Jolliffe & Waugh (2015), Nouwens et al. (2017), Swanson, Orosco & Kudo (2017) mention since vocabulary seems also to be related to later reading skills.

Furthermore, high correlations between phonological awareness and letter, word and pseudo-word reading were found, which showed the relationship between these variables and how one can influence the other. The correlation between phonological awareness and letter reading may confirm some authors' commentaries related to the idea that phonological awareness and letter recognition may be related to the development of reading skills (Edyburn et al., 2017; Hill, 2017; Jiménez & Ortiz, 2000, 2007; Jiménez & O'Shanahan, 2010).

Regarding the second objective, which was based on the levels achieved by the participating pupils from both schools in phonological awareness, naming, speed naming, and word and pseudo-word reading, results from *ALEI pre-test* showed statistically significant differences in the case of School 2, specifically in the activities of phonological awareness, letter, word and pseudo-word reading. This was probably related to the fact that this school had been teaching phonics since Early Childhood Education, which means that it could have influenced pupils' development of these variables. However, in the case of School 1, these variables presented very low scores probably related to the fact that they had not been receiving any phonics in Early Childhood Education and their reading development was not so uniform. Furthermore, in both schools, the variables regarding naming presented similar scores, probably due to the fact that the activities related to these variables were easier to perform since the process to name things seems to require less effort than the process of decoding.

More specifically, an important difference needs to be highlighted between both participating schools. According to the mentioned *pre-test* measures, School 1 seemed to show higher correlations between phonological awareness and letter, word and pseudo-word reading whereas School 2 presented lower correlations between these variables. The reason may be related to the teaching method used in each school. School 1 was using an alphabetic method with exercises focused on syllables or spelling which complemented it, whereas pupils from School 2 were receiving phonics instruction with exercises from the global method in the period of Early Childhood Education. So, it may be possible to say that pupils from School 2

had already acquired phonological awareness and they were not dependent on it in order to be able to decode. So, following Coltheart (1985) and Cuetos (2008), these pupils were situated in a lexical route. In the case of pupils from School 1, they seemed to start developing some phonological awareness and, due to that, they needed this knowledge in order to be able to read words and pseudo-words. These pupils were in a non-lexical route of development. So, it seems that both synthetic methods were effective in terms of developing reading skills. However, it may be possible to say that, although both schools were using a synthetic method to teach pupils of the same age, the combination of a synthetic phonics method with a global method, which was used by School 2, seemed to help more pupils' development of literacy skills in Spanish.

With regard to the third objective, which focused on the development of emergent literacy skills in Spanish and English (phonological awareness, naming and reading) of pupils in School 1 from *pre-test to post-test*, findings revealed that the treatment group presented a higher level in phonological awareness and word and pseudo-word reading in *post-test*, whereas the control group attained higher means in the variables related to naming and speed naming.

Related to that, it is important to highlight that both treatment and control groups were receiving instruction in Spanish through the same type of method during the first year of Primary Education, the synthetic syllabic method, and they achieved similar scores in the *pre-test*. Then, the only difference found between both groups was the implementation of the English *Jolly Phonics* method. It seems that only the treatment group achieved higher differential growth in phonological awareness and reading variables. So, it may be noticed that *Jolly Phonics* seems to be influencing their mother tongue, with a higher development of these pre-reading skills. The naming variables improved from pre-test to post-test. However, the differential growth was not significant, probably related to the fact the *Jolly Phonics* method had a greater impact on the other variables. The opposite happened in the control group, which had no implementation of *Jolly Phonics*.

Then, it may be said that the biliteracy process of these pupils did not present detrimental consequences since they showed gains not only in their second language, as commented below,

but also in their mother tongue. These coincide with authors as Parsons & Liddy (2016), Birke et al. (2017) and Spies et al. (2018), whose studies reveal that children learning two languages do not present negative consequences in their first or second languages.

It may also be interesting to mention that authors as August & Shanahan, 2009; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Durán, et al., 2010, Westerveld (2014), Unsworth et al. (2015) also talk about the fact that no negative consequences appear during the biliteracy process. These authors also mention the creation of cognates in both languages. Although, this is something which has not been analysed in this doctoral thesis, these pupils would probably have started creating cognates in English and Spanish. So, this may be interesting to analyse in future research.

When considering emergent English literacy skills of both groups of School 1, results from the *English Reading Predictor pre-test* revealed that pupils from both treatment and control groups had homogeneous level of English at the beginning of the study, that it is, before the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method. However, the *post-test* means for English phonological awareness and naming were higher in the treatment group. So, it may be said that the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method helped to develop emergent literacy skills (phonological awareness and naming) of Spanish pupils who had not received any input related to English literacy skills before. In the case of the control group, the improvement was almost non-existent. These variables did not improve as they were being taught through a different method which was not focused on phonics. These outcomes are aligned with authors as Stuart (1999), Callinan & Van der Zee (2010), Ekpo et al. (2010), Inaja et al. (2012), Eshiet (2016), Zaidi et al. (2016), Asonze (s.f.) whose studies reveal that all the treatment groups, using *Jolly Phonics*, achieved higher and significant means in all variables than the control groups.

Considering the fourth objective, regarding the development of emergent Spanish literacy skills (phonological awareness; picture, colour, number, and letter naming; speed naming; and word and pseudo-word reading) of the participating pupils from School 2, results from ALE1 *pre-test to post-test* revealed that pupils were following a good development of reading skills. Phonological awareness presented a small differential growth from pre-test to post-test in comparison with word and pseudo-word reading, which revealed a higher differential growth.

This confirms what the pre-test already pointed out, that it is, that their development of reading skills was well established in a lexical route where phonological awareness development is not so significant in comparison to the higher development found in word and pseudo-word reading, which may point to a higher increase of their lexical storage (Cuetos, 2008, Coltheart, 1985). The use of phonics in English and Spanish since Early Childhood Education was helping them to have a more advanced level of reading development. Considering that naming variables did not reveal significant differences may be related to the fact that these activities were easier to perform for them, as results from *pre-test* already suggested. The instruction through a phonics and global method in Spanish together with the *Jolly Phonics* method used to teach English literacy seemed to be influencing the development of these pupils' literacy skills in Spanish, in the same way that this method was influencing the pupils from the treatment group of School 1.

These last interpretations referring to the third and fourth objectives introduced the outcomes that the *Jolly Phonics* method was influencing the development of pupils' literacy skills in English and Spanish. After that, the method was analysed more carefully whose interpretations are included in the next section which covers the discussion related to the analysis of the *Jolly Phonics* method.

2. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATED TO METHODS FOR TEACHING READING AND RELEVANT CONCLUSIONS

The fifth objective was based on the development of errors committed in the *English Reading Predictors Test* from *pre-test* to *post-test* in both treatment and control groups of School 1, after the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method.

Results revealed that the errors committed by pupils in the experimental group significantly decreased in the *post-test*, not only in the items related to phonological awareness but also in the items of naming, especially in those words presented through the *Jolly Phonics* method since the very beginning. It may suggest that *Jolly Phonics* is not only effective for the development of phonological awareness but also in the acquisition of vocabulary.

In the case of the control group, who received English instruction through a different method which was not focused on phonics, did not present a good acquisition of vocabulary. This method was based on lists of vocabulary which pupils needed to learn through memorization. These findings coincide with authors as Pinto et al (2016) and Márquez (2013) since the type of method used to develop emergent literacy skills is important. Furthermore, the outcomes point out that the use of phonics to teach English literacy seems to be appropriate even in a Spanish context. Then, it is possible to agree with authors such as Johnston & Watson (2005), Dixon (2010), McArthur et al. (2012) and Nasrawi & Al-Jamal (2017) who mention that phonics is effective for the development of English literacy skills in the early years.

This research presents results that showed that pupils were acquiring vocabulary in a proper way which revealed that *Jolly Phonics* makes a recurrent use of it. This fact is confirmed through the teacher's interview who recognised such recurrent use of vocabulary in *Jolly Phonics*, which was not the case of the method she was using in the control group, according to her.

Jolly Phonics is the first stage of a complete programme for teaching literacy in English. This first stage helps pupils to acquire emergent literacy skills, such as phonological awareness and vocabulary, which prepares them for later reading comprehension skills. From the results

regarding naming, it may be possible to suggest that apart from phonological awareness, vocabulary could also be one of the key elements which could influence later reading comprehension skills.

Then, it may be suggested that apart from the method itself, it may depend on how teachers use it. As Ariati et al. (2018) say it is important to have a good planning and be systematic in order to be able to adapt things and include aspects according to children's needs. So, probably the way the method was being used also influenced the results. This will be discussed in the third section of the present chapter when results from the interviews and observations are discussed.

Furthermore, and answering the debate created by some authors (Weinberger, 1996; Stuart, 2006; Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015) regarding what to teach first, letter sounds or letter names, through this research it may be possible to say that teaching the letter sounds first has developed phonological awareness in a relatively rapid process. So, it may be suggested that teaching letter sounds first may be beneficial for Spanish pupils. Letter names could be introduced later so that children do not get confused.

The sixth specific objective of the present study focused on determining possible correlations between Spanish letter, word and pseudo-word reading and English sound pronunciation, word and pseudo-word reading in both schools.

In the case of School 1 the outcomes presented clear correlations between English word reading and Spanish pseudo-word reading, which confirms the fact that transference between these two languages is possible. This is even more emphasised through the regression coefficients, which showed that English pseudo-word reading and Spanish pseudo-word reading can predict English word reading. So, the learning of phonological awareness in English is influencing children in reading English and Spanish pseudo-words, which seems to predict the ability of reading words in English. This analysis and results followed the ones found in Kremin et al. (2016) whose study also focused on regression analysis for Spanish and English.

In the case of School 2, correlations were higher between English word reading and Spanish word reading. This is reinforced with the regression coefficients which showed that the ability

to pronounce English sounds and to read pseudo-words can predict English word reading. Thus, phonological awareness gains importance as the strongest variable to influence reading skills. This is related to the idea mentioned by authors as Solari et al. (2014), Wawire & Kim (2018). More specifically, these outcomes revealed that phonological awareness in English can help to read words and pseudo-words in Spanish which is similar to the outcomes presented by Zhao et al. (2015) who say that phonological awareness help to develop from one language to the other.

The correlations between both languages in both schools may confirm that there may be transference between the emergent literacy skills learnt in English and Spanish. It could also be noticed in the previous results regarding the fact that the treatment group of School 1 improved their Spanish phonological awareness with no phonics method for Spanish. These outcomes are aligned with the *Interdependence Hypothesis* of Cummins (2001). However, this is not aligned with Abrams (2000) who says that the dominant language, the first, is the one which influences the other. The results revealed, then, that English, the second language, can also influence Spanish, pupils' first language. Then, these findings corroborate what Reyes (2006) mentions, that it is, the *bidirectional* capacity of language transference. These results may also align with authors who mention that the literacy skills which are learnt in one language can transfer and have an impact on the other (Sparks & Ganschow, 1993; Brisbois, 1995; Baker, 2011; Recio & León, 2015; Fernández Corbacho, 2016; Yamashita & Shiotsu, 2017).

Thus, these correlations may confirm that transference can happen between Spanish, a transparent language, and English, an opaque language. This fact corroborates the ones found by Niolaki & Masterson (2012) about the transference between transparent and opaque languages and answers part of the main research question and objective of the thesis regarding the transference between Spanish and English.

Furthermore, the difference found in the correlations between School 1 (English word reading and Spanish pseudo-word reading) and School 2 (English word reading and Spanish word reading), apart from indicating the importance of phonological awareness in the development

of these reading variables and the transference between these two languages, it determined that pupils from School 2 were reading in a more advanced level. Probably they were presenting more comprehension skills when reading as their correlations were at the level of words and not at the level of pseudo-words. So, following the routes mentioned by Cuetos (2008) and Coltheart (1985), these pupils may also be situated in a lexical route in the English language. This may be related to the type of immersion they had in their school since they received a total of 12 hours of English in a day. This is aligned with the fact that pupils receiving bilingual education or English immersion may have better results (Bialystok et al., 2005; Páez, Tabors, & López, 2007; Lorenzo, et al., 2009; Hopewell & Butvilofsky, 2016; Lin et al., 2018). In addition, it corroborates that having a huge quantity of time exposed to language is also beneficial (Unsworth et al., 2015; Verhoeven, 2005).

Regarding the seventh specific objective of the study, it focused on identifying the English reading age achieved by all pupils from treatment groups at the end of the research and comparing this age to their actual age.

The data obtained regarding reading in English were analysed by using the Age Reference Scale provided by *Jolly Phonics*. The actual age of the pupils from both schools at the end of the research was seven years old. The *Jolly Phonics* assessment revealed the English reading level acquired at the end of one-year implementation of the method. The results presented that these pupils attained a linguistic level in English similar to an English child of 5.7 years old, which means that *Jolly Phonics* clearly helps to improve children's levels of reading at a relatively rapid pace.

According to these results, it may be said that phonics is effective for the development of English literacy skills as authors such as Johnston & Watson (2005), Dixon (2010), McArthur et al. (2012) and Nasrawi & Al-Jamal (2017) stated.

More specifically and answering the main research question and objective, it is possible to say that *Jolly Phonics* is also effective to teach English literacy to Spanish pupils of 6-7 years old since results showed that, without any previous knowledge of English literacy skills, the

participating pupils achieved an English reading age of just sixteenth months of difference from their actual age, with respect to children whose first language is English. So, it may align with Zaidi et al. (2016) who mention the effective aspects of the method.

It would, then, be interesting to suggest that introducing English phonics in the early years may be beneficial since comparisons and transferences between languages can occur (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Pinter, 2006).

However, it is important to mention that following some authors' commentaries (Cummins, 2001; Tabours and Snow; 2002; Oller & Eilers; 2002; Pinter; 2006; Saracho, 2017), it would be better to introduce English literacy when children have a foundation of Spanish literacy skills. Then, introducing *Jolly Phonics* when pupils are 6-7 years old may seem appropriate.

Regarding the eighth and ninth objectives of the study referring to the difficulties found by Spanish pupils in pronouncing some English sounds and doing some activities, the clusters' results revealed that pupils found group number 4 (/eɪ/, /dʒ/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, /i:/, /o:/) as the most difficult one to acquire, which coincides with Zaidi et al. (2016). Furthermore, the outcomes presented that groups 5 (/z/, /w/, /ŋ/, /v/, /ʊ/, /u:/) and 7 (/k/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ju:/, /ɜ:/, /a:/) also followed group 4 in difficulty.

Answering the question about why these groups are more difficult, it may be said that group 4 presents diagraphs which could be harder to understand for Spanish pupils. The reason suggests that children have to produce a sound from two different joined letters, which they have previously learnt separately as different sounds. This difficulty is also found in the case of group 7 where different diagraphs also appear. In addition, group 5 includes sounds which are not found in Spanish as /z/, /w/, /ŋ/, /v/, /dʒ/, and may be more difficult to articulate. Groups 5 and 7 also include long and short vowels which could be difficult to produce as Spanish do not have a length quality for vowels.

More specifically, the sounds /i:/, /o:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ɜ:/, /a:/, which are present in the three difficult groups commented above, are short and long vowels, which are considered to be problematic

for Spanish speakers because this vowel quality does not exist in Spanish. These outcomes corroborate the results found by Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982), Gleason (2012) and Kelly (2000).

Regarding diphthongs, /eɪ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ju:/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, all of them are closing in English and in Spanish. However, the point of articulation is different as Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) mention. These authors say that the first element in /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/ may be more difficult to pronounce and recognise for Spanish pupils because they are opener than their Spanish counterparts. These results do not concur with Gleason (2012) since the author considers /əʊ/ not too problematic because it may be similar to the Spanish diphthong.

Regarding the type of activities carried out in English, the outcomes revealed that the most difficult ones for pupils to do were: listening to and matching diphthongs to pictures (Figure 46), matching pictures to written words (Figure 47), writing the complete words and drawing pictures about them (through dictation). So, it seems that the activities in which pupils have to listen first in order to write are the most difficult ones. This is related to the type of sounds presented above since they need to understand first what sound they are listening to and, then, recall what the spelling is for it. It is a double process which the pupils may have not developed in a short period of implementation of the method. This is aligned to what Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) mention about *encoding* as being more difficult than *encoding*.

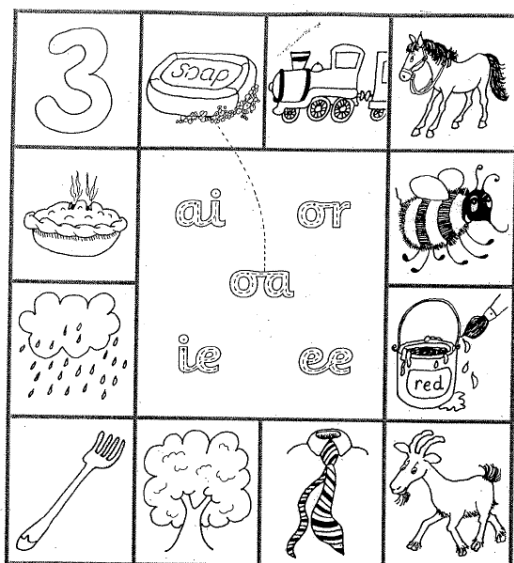


Figure 46. Activity 4.1 Matching sounds to pictures

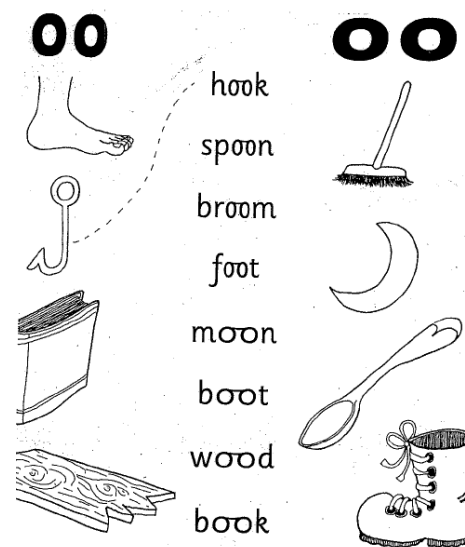


Figure 47. Activity 5.2. Matching words to pictures

More information about the type of activities worked in the classroom during the implementation of *Jolly Phonics* and their degree of difficulty can be found in the next section regarding the eleventh objective which focused on the activities analysed through observations.

Regarding the tenth objective related to the identification of sounds which could be more transferable from Spanish to English, the outcomes revealed that the sounds which seem to be more difficult coincide with the fact that are less transferable and sounds which are more transferable seem to be easier to acquire.

The sounds /i:/, /a:/, /e/ /k/, /p/ and /n/ seem to have a high level of transference. According to Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982), Spanish pure vowels /i, e/ can be similar to English /i, e/. However, as these authors state, English /e/ is opener; and /i/ is not so close as in Spanish; /a:/ may be a bit opener than Spanish case; and /k/ could also transfer without aspiration. Although some differences appear, it seems they can be transferred more easily. /n/ is similar in both languages although it can also be difficult to pronounce in final positions since, as Mott (2011) mentions, Spanish Andalusian learners do normally eliminate final sounds in some Spanish words. /p, k/ could be considered easy and transferable as the only difference is aspiration, as stated by Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982).

The findings revealed that /ʌ/, /ju:/, /ɜ:/, /əʊ/, /ɒ/, /θ/ present a low level of transference. As the literature presents, some sounds are more difficult and then less transferable. This is the case of English /ʌ/ which, according to Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982), is not so open than Spanish /a/ and is considered to be one of the most difficult sounds (Kelly, 2000). However, in this case, this sound could also be a problem related to accent, as Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) mention. This may be due to the fact each teacher in School 2 was from different places (Ireland, England) and the researcher had also a different accent in School 1, who was also the person carrying out the final tests in both schools. This may have been a source of confusion for pupils from School 2.

The case of /θ/, according to Mott (2011), could be related to the fact that consonant clusters as /θr/ do not appear in Spanish. /ju:/ may be difficult because Spanish does not have

semivowels or length quality, which relates to what Mott (2011) says. In addition, Spanish diphthong <iu> does not happen in final position which may be another reason of why this English diphthong may be difficult for Spanish learners. /ɒ/ may be a bit opener than the Spanish case. In the case of /əʊ/, although Gleason (2012) mentions it as not too problematic, it seems to be difficult for the participating pupils, probably because the point of articulation is different from the Spanish diphthong. In addition, in most cases, Spanish diphthong <ou> is found in compound words as ‘estadounidense’. /ɜ:/, apart from being a long vowel which, as mentioned before, is a quality that Spanish vowels do not present, it is a central vowel in English, as Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) say. It is, then, difficult to pronounce and recognise for Spanish learners because Spanish do not have central vowels.

There are other sounds which can be transferred depending on the point of articulation. This is the case of diphthongs as /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /aʊ/, /aɪ/. In the case of /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/ could be more difficult to transfer because the first elements are opener than their Spanish counterparts (Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982). The case of /aʊ/, /aɪ/ could be less problematic because they are not as open as the ones before and, so, a bit more similar to the Spanish ones.

Now, it may be interesting to have a look back at Figure 6, Figure 7, Figure 8 and Figure 9 in which suggestions in order to help to pronounce these problematic sounds are provided quoting Kelly (2000).

3. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS RELATED TO CONTEXTUAL ELEMENTS AND RELEVANT CONCLUSIONS

The eleventh specific objective of the present research focused on determining the teaching context of each school (teaching methods, resources and activities used in the classroom) in Childhood and Primary Education, contrasting with teachers' opinions.

As previously discussed in objective 2, pupils from School 2 in Early Childhood Education presented high phonological awareness scores but low correlations between this variable and word reading. The contrary happened in School 1, which suggested to be related to the teaching method used in Early Childhood Education in each school, which situated them in lexical and non-lexical routes of development.

It was possible to understand this after carrying out teachers' observations and interviews. School 2 was using a combination of phonic and global methods which seems to be more effective than the use of the alphabetic method combined with other extra activities used in School 1. As previously commented, pupils from School 2 were located in a superior level of reading development where the lexical storage predominate over phonological awareness which is a process that has already been automatized. It seems that this may have a positive effect in the development of Spanish literacy skills. The teacher from School 2 confirmed these results since she said to have combined activities of phonological awareness with activities from the global method to help her pupils develop reading skills.

Furthermore, this could also be related to the type of activities and resources used in this school. Teachers confirmed they normally create new activities adapted to the different needs and interests of their pupils and try to relate them to real experiences so that children are more enthusiastic and motivated. This fact allows pupils develop reading skills through communicative tasks, real interactions and a positive environment inside the classroom, whereas School 1 was just focused on carrying out activities suggested by the teaching curriculum and the ones provided by the publishing houses. In this case, it is possible to agree with authors such as Freinet (1974), Beecher & Makin (2002), Montessori (2006), Norling et al. (2015), Datta (2007), Bigas (2002) and Browne (2001) on the idea that activities related to

real experiences and interactions are beneficial. This idea is also aligned with González Álvarez (2003) on the fact that materials could be adapted to children's needs and interests.

In addition, School 2 seemed to integrate different environments when activities based on real experiences or interactions are included. It may be possible to agree with Neuman (2000) and Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) on the fact that it is important in order to provide a better learning development for children who are in the process of acquiring first literacy skills. In addition, according to these, it may not be possible to agree with Campbell et al. (2011) who say that phonics isolates children from personal experiences since it may depend on the teacher and how the method is integrated with other activities created by them in order to attend pupils' need.

Then, to sum up, it seems that teaching methods, the type of activities and resources used in the classroom can influence the development of children's literacy skills.

In the case of the observations carried out in Primary Education during the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method, five clusters were identified, which seemed to be related to the difficulty of each sound.

In the case of School 1, it can be noticed that Clusters 1, 2, 3 and 5 were related to activities in which no writing appeared. This cluster analysis seemed to be more specific and joined the observations with the same type of activities. Probably Cluster 5 included a smaller number of activities because they were the first group of sounds and pupils were getting in contact for the first time with English sounds and the *Jolly Phonics* method. So, this seems to be the introduction of the method when pupils are not still able to join sounds and work with them through different activities. Cluster 3 included the group of sounds presented around the middle of the implementation. So, at that moment, pupils were more used to the method, they knew more sounds and, so, more different activities were possible to be included. Cluster 1 and 2 included less activities related to writing since the sounds which were worked in these sessions were digraphs or had a higher difficulty for pupils. Some of the letter sounds presented in these two clusters coincided with the results related to the clusters of sounds which seemed to be the most difficult ones for pupils, more specifically <oo>, <v>, <ee>, <z>, <w>, <oa>, <ai>,

<ie> and <ck>, which appeared in the most difficult groups of sounds number 4 (Zaidi et al, 2016) and 5. So, more practice was necessary and less activities related to games or writing could be included in these sessions. Finally, Cluster 4 was the one which included writing activities, probably because the sounds worked in these sessions were easier for pupils and they got enough time to practise writing.

In the case of School 2, four clusters were identified. Cluster 1 was related to the first introduction of sounds, which suggests that activities were not so focused on games or dictations which could be more related to revision activities. Cluster 2 referred to observations in which only oral activities were worked. Cluster 3 included activities which were mainly focused on games and sounding out words, probably because these observations were mainly revisions of previous sessions. Finally, Cluster 4 included activities focused on drawing as there were sessions to practice sounds through pictures and games.

To sum up, both schools differentiate observations from oral to writing activities. In both cases, there seems to be a high frequency of oral activities, which may suggest the difficulty found in writing activities. It is also related to the fact that *Jolly Phonics* is the first stage of a reading and writing programme.

Furthermore, statistically significant differences were found in terms of the teaching materials used in each school. School 2 used more workbooks whereas School 1 used more pupils' books and worksheets. So, although different materials were used, all of them belonged to the *Jolly Phonics* method. The results seem to point out that *Jolly Phonics* materials are appropriate, something important for the development of literacy skills (Browne, 2001; Fons, 2002; Ekpo et al., 2010; Baker, 2011; Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015; Wright & Peltier, 2016). In addition, the method includes games, songs or stories, which according to Datta (2007), Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) and Englezou & Fragkouli (2014) are important to support the literacy development process.

Finally, classroom grouping was also statistically significant in favour of School 1 where group and individual activities were constantly mixed. In the case of School 2, they always started with group activities and then, individual ones. Classroom areas were also different in each

school. As opposed to School 2, School 1 did not have enough space to move around the desks or areas to work on reading. This aspect seems to be important in order to be able to develop group activities properly and to support the literacy development (Browne, 2001; Bigas, 2002; Datta, 2007; Jolliffe & Waugh, 2015; Sastre-Gómez et al., 2017). Then, it is possible to agree with Neuman (2000) on the fact that classrooms need to be large and clear in order to enable working adequately.

So, although different materials were used, all of them were from *Jolly Phonics*. This together with different classroom grouping used in each school seemed not to have affected pupils' results as children from both schools achieved similar scores, that is, an English reading age close to six years old.

Teachers were also different in each school, native and non-native teachers. However, it has neither affected the results. As Schagen & Shamsan (2007) mentions: *There is no evidence to suggest that the effect of Jolly Phonics varied according to the teacher involved* (p. 10). All teachers agree to have followed the systematicity suggested by the method. So, it may have been related to how the method was implemented and its systematicity. So, it is possible to agree with Ariati et al. (2018) on the fact that systematicity is important in order to success in the teaching-learning process.

The fact that the groups from School 2 achieved different scores may be related to the fact that in the middle of the implementation one teacher became ill and a new teacher arrived, who had no training in *Jolly Phonics*. This could probably have affected these results and confirms that *Jolly Phonics* is effective when there is systematicity and, then, it may be said that teacher training is important.

In addition, although results showed that pupils from each school were situated in different routes of development (lexical and non-lexical) which could be related to the methods used in the previous school years and how English was used in each school, it is important to mention that pupils from both schools achieved similar scores of reading in English through the *Jolly Phonics* method. Then, it may be possible to say that no school differences were found in terms of their socioeconomic contexts regarding this teaching method.

So, although SES can influence children's development of reading skills (Oller & Eilers, 2002; Eilers, Oller & Lewis, 2002; Escobar & Meneses, 2014 Arafat, Korat, Aram, & Saiegh-Haddad, 2017), the results presented are in line with Hus (2001), Johnston & Watson (2005), Ferguson et al. (2011) and Dixon, Schagen & Seedhouse (2011), who mention that *Jolly Phonics* can work in different SES contexts. So, it may suggest that a good use of a teaching method could support children's development of literacy skills even if they belong to low, middle or high SES.

The twelfth specific objective of the present study was to identify teachers' opinions of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.

The teachers' interviews revealed five aspects which they considered important during the implementation of the method. These aspects were: learning, motivation, transference of reading skills, success of the method and improvements of the method.

Teachers agreed that this research was useful for them to learn a new methodology and improve their English phonics knowledge. This is related to the responses that Eshiet (2016) received by different teachers as most of them agreed to have joined the research to improve on their teaching methods and to be exposed to this type of phonics method.

However, teachers in the present research also mentioned this method is good for children's development of phonological awareness and vocabulary and for children who present reading problems as teachers interviewed by Moodie-Reid (2016), who reported good results for struggling readers.

In addition, teachers emphasised important moments when some children read in English for the first time or identified some sounds in spoken words. All teachers agreed that motivation, attention, enthusiasm and participation were the most important aspects they found in children's learning with this method as they were always eager to participate in every lesson and learn more. The responses received by Eshiet (2016) are similar to these. Teachers agree that the method helps pupils 'easily identify sounds' and they 'are eager to learn more' (pp. 27-

28). They also said that pupils learn in such a fun way that they do not even realise they are learning.

Teachers also mentioned that some reading skills can be transferred to their mother tongue as they noticed children were using some strategies to learn some letter sounds even in Spanish. However, other teachers considered that this aspect should be taken with care as not to confuse them with each phonological system. This idea, however, is not found by teachers interviewed by Eshiet (2016) as the present research seems to be the first one considering *Jolly Phonics* in Spain.

So, in general, all teachers agreed that the method is successful for the development of literacy skills in English for Spanish learners and they will definitely continue using it, which supports the results found in relation to the effectiveness of the method, which also supports the answer to the main research question and objective. This is in line with Eshiet's responses (2016) as teachers agreed to go on using the method with their pupils.

One of the teachers interview by this author even suggested: 'In my opinion I think *Jolly Phonics* should be accepted nationwide if not internationally *Jolly Phonics* all the way.' (Eshiet, 2016, p. 29). So, they also realised that *Jolly Phonics* could be a good option to teach English literacy in contexts where English is not the first language. Teachers from the present study suggested to include more communicative activities due to the fact that the method does not include them. The reason may be related to the fact that this method was designed to teach children from English speaking countries how to read and write and communicative aspects are expected to be found in other school subjects or in other contexts. In this sense, it is possible to agree on the fact that communicative tasks are important in learners' development (Datta, 2007) if the method is used in countries where English is not a first language.

The thirteenth specific objective of this doctoral thesis focused on determining the family environment regarding Spanish and English reading practices carried out at home.

Considering the responses obtained in the parents' questionnaire about literacy practices at home (*'Cuestionario sobre la lectura en el contexto familiar'*), it seems that having books at

home, reading in front of children and children reading on their own at home are aspects which may be directly related to the development of literacy skills. This is the case of School 2, whose parents seemed to be more involved in the literacy practices developed at home.

This coincides with results presented by Hannon (1995), Weinberger (1996), Harris, et al. (2007), Van Bergen et al. (2017), Wood et al. (2018) and Wiescholek et al. (2018). In addition, it may be possible to agree with Alston-Abel & Berninger (2018) who say that home literacy practices correlate with a good achievement of school literacy which, in some way, relates with Vygotsky (1978) with regard to the idea that parents and children should work in collaboration so that they learn to do it on their own in the future, and with Datta (2007) who also talks about the benefits of adult guidance in the early literacy process. Hannon (1995) also mentions that the adult functions as a model for children in order to develop reading routines at home.

Then, the social factor and practices may provide better results in children's development of literacy (Bigas, 2002; Beecher & Makin, 2002; Pinto et al., 2012; Theodotou, 2017; Grimm et al., 2018).

Results also showed that parents who were between 40 and 45 years old and those who had a mid-level technician job usually read more newspapers or books in front of children and those who were more than 45 years old and had university studies and an expertise job read more in English at home. So, it may suggest that the age and type of job and studies received may relate to a more involvement in the development of literacy skills at home.

However, something important which maybe both schools lack is that there should be more emphasis on home-school collaboration to support literacy development (Adams,1990; Weinberger, 1996; Wright & Peltier, 2016). Then, according to that, it may be possible to agree with authors such as Neuman (2000), Padak & Rasinski (2006), Feiler et al. (2008), Baker (2011) and Caesar & Nelson (2014) since it may be a good option to introduce elements from home into the classroom so that children connect both environments and make learning more realistic and enthusiastic. As these authors mention, it may also be beneficial to create programmes to support parents and help them on how to work literacy at home but also programmes which enable parents to participate in the school's literacy programmes.

Finally, the last specific objective of this doctoral thesis was based on identifying parents' opinions of *Jolly Phonics* in both schools.

Parents' questionnaire revealed that mothers are normally the ones who helped their children with the English tasks. They also seem to have a basic level of English, certified or not. This may be related to what is mentioned in ESCL: 'In the case of Spain, the 'Parental knowledge of the foreign language' is below that of all eleven countries except Poland...' (ESCL, p39.)

Most activities were practised at home just once per week, although there were many cases which they did not have practise at all. Although not many activities were carried out at home, parents seemed to agree that their children were able to recognise individual sounds and actions, to read words and short sentences in English, to sing the songs of the method and they were motivated with stickers in the lesson.

Some differences were found between schools, as parents' responses from School 1 revealed to have practised activities related to the method. In the case of School 2 parents' responses say that they practised English with different activities not related to the method as listening to English songs or watching English films.

These results could be understood after carrying out teachers' interviews which made it possible to relate these outcomes to the fact that children from School 1 were more encouraged to use the videos and songs of the method at home whereas children from School 2 were not normally demanded to do homework with their parents and, so, spent more time watching films in English or reading in English. It seems important to mention that, according to the ESCL: 'In reference to 'Contact with English through the communication media', France obtained the lowest average (1.3) followed by Spain (1.4) and Poland (1.8). The rest of the countries present over two points of average on a scale of 0 (never) to 4 (several times a week)' (ESCL, p39.). Then, it may be possible to suggest that more input from communication media in English could be beneficial for developing English literacy skills.

To sum up, it may be possible to say that practices at home are different depending on the school, teacher's role and parents' level of English and involvement with their children. In

addition, this may be due to the lack of collaboration between parents and teachers. It could be a good idea to share their opinions in order to work together (Wright & Peltier, 2016; Beecher & Makin, 2002; Theodotou, 2017). So, it is possible to agree with Jolliffe & Waugh (2015) on the idea that parents need to understand the *Jolly Phonics* method in order to be able to help at home. Developing programmes which explain the method and suggest parents what they could practise at home seems also necessary in order to support children's literacy development in English.

Finally, although parents might not have received enough information about the method, almost all of them consider it to be good for the development of English, as they could probably see that their children were improving. This is parents' most important answer which relates and confirms all the results presented in this doctoral thesis, which closes our discussion session.

4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

During this longitudinal research, some limitations were encountered during the implementation of the *Jolly Phonics* method.

The first limitation was related to the use of an English method in a Spanish school context. It is important to take into account that *Jolly Phonics* is a method which was designed to teach English literacy in English speaking countries. Due to that, it may be implied that communicative tasks are not the focus of the method since communication in English is part of everyday school environment and children need to use English, their first language, in order to communicate. Thus, *Jolly Phonics* is only focused on teaching children how to read and write in English. Using this method in a Spanish learning context may have some limitations because Spanish learners would learn how to read and write in English during the lesson but communicative tasks may be needed to be included in the instruction since there is no English communication outside the classroom context. Then, adaptation of the method would be desirable in order to be properly used in Spanish schools. Future research could be carried out with the introduction of communicative tasks where not only reading is assessed but also the communicative level achieved. *Jolly Phonics* does seem to work on vocabulary. So, future research could also be focused on how pupils can create cognates in both languages.

Since *Jolly Phonics* is a first stage for teaching emergent literacy skills to pupils and preparing them for later reading comprehension skills, it might seem interesting to analyse what level of reading comprehension would be achieved in the following years of *Jolly Grammar* (continuation of *Jolly Phonics*). This could, then, answer the criticism made by authors such as Bowey (2000) about the lack of comprehension skills in phonics.

The second limitation was related to the time of English lessons in Spanish schools. It is an important aspect since English lessons in Spain, during the first year of Primary Education, normally take two hours and a half per week (45 minutes per session for a three-session week or one hour and fifteen minutes for a two-session week). *Jolly Phonics* informs that a new sound should be taught every day of the week during nine weeks or at least three sounds per

week. Less than that could be detrimental. Considering that pupils are learning in a Spanish learning context with that tight time for English, it seems necessary to teach three sounds per week. This could be carried out in this research because the school agreed to have 45 minutes per session for a three-session week. Although this could be done, it was very difficult to accomplish all the objectives of the method since the 45 minutes were not real. In the end, the researcher counted only with 35-40 minutes per session because it was the last period of the school day and children had to tidy up and prepare for going home. So, it was not possible to practise too much at the end of each session. Neither was it possible to include communicative tasks to complement the method. Probably, if English lessons in Spain took longer in the week, children would have had more opportunities to practise and retain best the knowledge and, obviously, communicative tasks could be included. However, this is an aspect which could only be solved if the Spanish government agreed in order to increase the time dedicated to English in bilingual Spanish primary schools. Future research could be performed with more time for English in state schools.

Finally, the third limitation was related to the scarce participation of parents in the School 2 in the first questionnaire about literacy practices at home. Although some results could be obtained, it would have been desirable to receive more answers in order to have a broader conclusion. Future research could be carried out with a wider sample regarding literacy practices at home.

5. FINAL CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The phonics method seems to be well-established in the English speaking countries. Furthermore, *Jolly Phonics* has been used around the world to teach English literacy as a second language. It may seem that phonics has not received enough value in English instruction in the Spanish teaching curriculum. This doctoral thesis suggests that there should be more focus on pronunciation in the English lessons and that it may be appropriate to use *Jolly Phonics* in Spanish primary schools. This is due to the results obtained since the participating sample significantly developed their level of English literacy skills. In addition, it also contributed to the increase of Spanish literacy skills as it seems they could be transferred to their first language.

Thus, answering the main research question of the study, it may be said that this phonics method certainly helps to improve emergent English literacy skills of Spanish pupils, transferring them into their mother tongue. Moreover, the fact that their English literacy skills were developing in the early years with a reading age close to six, may involve the improvement of pupils' reading and comprehension scores in subsequent years. It can also be an answer to the current concern of the Spanish government since Spanish pupils presented low scores in English reading in the last years as it can be read in different European reports: *Progress in International Reading Literacy Study* (PIRLS, 2016) and the *European Survey on Language Competences* (ESLC, 2012). In such a way, this would also allow pupils improve their scores in the other school subjects which are taught in English in the case of Bilingual and CLIL schools. Therefore, this implication is related to curriculum design and the national school policy since the present doctoral thesis intends to encourage Spanish schools and government to include *Jolly Phonics* in their curriculum with the only purpose of improving our Spanish bilingual programmes.

This research has presented a great quantity of literature which suggests that the introduction of the L2 literacy should be done once children achieve a proper foundation in the mother tongue. Then, as Spanish children are in the process of learning how to read in Spanish when they are 5 years old, it was suggested to start implementing *Jolly Phonics* in the first year of

Primary Education, that it is, when children are 6-7 years old, as it can be seen in the suggested programme presented in this thesis (See previous Figure 13). This implication is related to the programme evaluation since from the results presented it is possible to suggest that introducing it at this time seems to be beneficial for acquiring both languages as children are capable of making comparisons between them and, probably, would influence the transference of skills between languages.

This study also provides new data to the literature, considering the development of biliteracy skills, the transference between a transparent and an opaque language, the use of English phonics in Spain and the influence of the school and family environment on children's biliteracy process.

Finally, if it were decided to use the method in Spanish schools, an important aspect would need to be considered. This aspect is related to teacher training because they need to understand not only phonics methods and the use of the specific *Jolly Phonics* method but also every difficult aspect which the teaching of pronunciation may present for Spanish learners. This doctoral thesis also presents these aspects in order to offer the most difficult aspects which Spanish pupils may encounter. The literature provided also gives suggestions for teachers to help their pupils.

Another implication of this study is related to parental engagement. As suggested in the discussion of this research, it may be beneficial to include programmes for parents, which could help parents to support children's literacy process at home and to understand the phonics method. In this way they would be able to give the appropriate help in the home environment. These programmes could also have some type of follow up so that they could feel integrated in the school's literacy process and continue supporting their children during the whole school year. Different resources could be created as fliers, parents' information booklets, mobile applications or web platforms so that they can access to the information when they need it, download extra material to help their children or to contact experts to ask questions. These suggestions would also help the development of children's literacy. These ideas would also be beneficial in order to promote the extramural learning. With the adaptation suggested in order

to include communicative tasks in the phonics method and the suggestion of creating programmes which allow parents and teachers to collaborate would enable the integration of other contexts in the classroom.

Finally, the dissemination of the results is an important aspect of the study. It is now possible to say that some of the results obtained in the School 2 were published by a Spanish newspaper. In addition, the results obtained in this doctoral thesis were presented in the V International Conference of Bilingual Education in Schools in Badajoz (Spain) during October of 2018, the III and IV International Conference of Bilingual Education in Córdoba (Spain) during November of 2017 and 2018. These presentations seemed to have a good success since some managers from teachers' training centres were interested in the PhD student to give training sessions of *Jolly Phonics* to teachers from Seville and Extremadura. In addition, during the researcher's stay at the University of Bath, some seminars and workshops were given in relation to the thesis and *Jolly Phonics*. Currently, more training sessions have been asked due to the positive results obtained through the already presented doctoral thesis.

SUMMARY OF THESIS IN SPANISH

1. Introducción

La presente tesis doctoral trata de investigar el desarrollo de la alfabetización bilingüe en español e inglés en edades tempranas. Los últimos informes europeos de PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study 2016) y PISA (Program for International Student Assessment, 2015) muestran el nivel bajo que los estudiantes españoles presentan en lectura tanto en inglés como en español. Por ello, el análisis de las habilidades lectoras en edades tempranas resulta importante.

La revisión de la literatura presentada permite establecer una base teórica a la investigación llevada a cabo y relacionarla con estudios previos que se han centrado en temas similares en los últimos años. Esta literatura se centra en los predictores de la lectura, la posible transferencia entre dos lenguas, los aspectos a considerar en una alfabetización bilingüe temprana, los métodos de lectura y la influencia del contexto de instrucción y familiar en el proceso de la alfabetización bilingüe.

2. Resumen de la revisión de la literatura

Numerosos estudios aportan resultados que apoyan el hecho de que la conciencia fonológica y el vocabulario son los factores que más influyen en el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras (Jiménez & Ortiz, 2000, 2007; Metsala, 2010; Stanley, Petscher & Catts, 2018), pudiendo funcionar como predictores tanto en la primera como en la segunda lengua estudiada (Scarpino, Lawrence, Davison & Hammer, 2017; Bowyer-Crane, Fricke, Shaefer, Lerva, & Hhulme, 2017).

De esta forma, las mencionadas habilidades lectoras emergentes de conciencia fonológica y vocabulario que se adquieren en la lengua materna pueden beneficiar el aprendizaje de la segunda lengua (Fernández Corbacho, 2016; Yamashita & Shiotsu, 2017) ya que, tal y como mencionan Kuo, Ramírez, de Marín, Kim & Unal-Geer (2017), estas habilidades se pueden transferir sin afectar a la primera lengua. Por el contrario, estos factores pueden beneficiar al desarrollo de la lectura de palabras y la comprensión en ambas lenguas y permite la creación de cognados entre las lenguas (Unsworth, Persson, Prins & De Bot, 2015).

Por todo esto, la forma en la que se enseña la conciencia fonológica y el vocabulario es importante para un desarrollo apropiado de la alfabetización del alumnado (Márquez, 2013). Numerosos estudios apuestan por la enseñanza temprana de la conciencia fonológica ya que puede favorecer el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras de manera dinámica y eficaz (Schoaga, Akintola & Isiwat OKPOR, 2017). Esta conciencia permite al alumnado ser capaz de leer cualquier palabra o pseudopalabra siguiendo las reglas fonéticas de las lenguas. De este modo, el correcto desarrollo de la conciencia fonológica y, por tanto, de las consecuentes habilidades lectoras dependerá de factores como el tipo de método de lectura elegido para su enseñanza. No obstante, el desarrollo alfabetizador es diferente en cada niño y no necesariamente sigue el orden de fases de desarrollo (etapas logográfica, alfabética y ortográfica) propuesto por Frith (1986), que puedan situarlos en una ruta léxica o subléxica (Coltheart, 1985; Cuetos, 2008).

Los métodos de lectura han sido cuestionados a lo largo de la historia en relación a si los sintéticos o analíticos son más apropiados para la enseñanza de la lectura. Este debate no solamente se ha originado en España para la enseñanza de la lectura en español, sino también en el Reino Unido, para la enseñanza de la lectura en inglés. En el caso de España, el currículum de Educación Primaria (Orden de 27 de marzo de 2015) no hace referencia a ningún método concreto para el desarrollo de la alfabetización. Sin embargo, sí menciona que el profesorado debe ser capaz de decidir el tipo de método más adecuado para el alumnado siempre y cuando promueva estilos y ritmos de aprendizajes diferentes, el trabajo autónomo y grupal, la participación activa, la lectura crítica y referencias a experiencias reales, entre otros. La única referencia se realiza al método fónico en relación al alumnado de menor edad para el desarrollo de la lectura a través de la interpretación de sonidos de las sílabas. En el caso del currículum inglés (Primary Framework for literacy and mathematics, 2006), el gobierno ya ha aprobado el método sintético fónico como el más apropiado para el desarrollo de habilidades de alfabetización en edades tempranas.

A pesar de las críticas del método fónico sobre la falta de elementos de comprensión lectora (Hannon, 1995), en la mayoría de los casos analizados, los métodos sintéticos y fónicos se han considerado buenos para el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras ya que la conciencia fonológica aparece de forma temprana en el desarrollo del lenguaje (Nasrawi & Al-Jamal, 2017; Dussling,

2018). En el caso del español, el método Micho, y en el caso del inglés el método *Jolly Phonics*, se han considerado positivos presentando resultados significativos en los grupos experimentales de distintos estudios (Stuart, 1999; Ekpo, Udosen, Afangideh, Ekukinam & Ikorok, 2010).

Además, los estudios anteriormente mencionados han revelado que el método fónico es la mejor opción para enseñar inglés como primera lengua. Sin embargo, sería necesario considerar este método en el caso de su enseñanza como segunda lengua, como es en el caso de España, donde el alumnado se enfrenta a esta lengua en edades tempranas al mismo tiempo que están aprendiendo a leer en su lengua materna.

Por tanto, la cuestión de la alfabetización bilingüe en edades tempranas planteó a la doctoranda la pregunta sobre si el método fónico sería también el más adecuado para aprender a leer en ambas lenguas casi al mismo tiempo. De hecho, aunque la lectura en español se entiende como prioridad en cualquier instrucción de enseñanza española, esto no ha ocurrido, y podría cuestionarse la conveniencia de que ocurra, en el caso del inglés al mismo tiempo que se aprende a leer en la primera lengua. Además, el alumnado español presenta problemas de lectura y comprensión en los años posteriores, que se acentúa cuando tienen que estudiar en inglés otras asignaturas curriculares como por ejemplo ciencias sociales. Sin embargo, la realidad es que el sistema educativo español considera necesario el aprendizaje de la segunda lengua desde edades tempranas y aunque se indica que la lectura deba introducirse en el primer ciclo, en los centros educativos en alumnos de menor edad, los materiales con los que se trabaja en estos ciclos no contemplan un método específico para la enseñanza de la lectura en la segunda lengua, ni tienen en consideración el método que se está utilizando en la primera lengua.

Además, el alumnado tiene que enfrentarse a la comprensión de textos en inglés para poder funcionar en diferentes áreas de la lengua ya que se imparten varias asignaturas en inglés para las que necesitan la lectura en este idioma, lo que lleva a plantearse el siguiente interrogante: ¿por qué las escuelas bilingües de España insisten en un bilingüismo sin enseñar cómo aprender a leer en inglés si es una lengua necesaria para el estudio de otras asignaturas? De este modo,

el uso de un método de lectura para el inglés podría ser una solución que permita al alumnado entender inglés en cualquier asignatura.

Por tanto, esta tesis se plantea: ¿sería el método fónico efectivo para el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras en inglés como segunda lengua en edades tempranas?

Para ello, en este estudio se ha analizado el desarrollo de habilidades de alfabetización temprana, tomando la conciencia fonológica como la variable principal en ambas lenguas además de la denominación y lectura en ambas lenguas (español e inglés). Se ha llevado a cabo, además, una intervención con un método sintético fónico (*Jolly Phonics*), centrada en el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras en inglés como segunda lengua.

Por otra parte, el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras no solamente se puede ver afectado por los métodos de enseñanza usados, sino también por el contexto familiar (Van Bergen, Van Zuijen, Bishop & de Jong, 2017; Alston-Abel & Berninger, 2018). Por lo que en este estudio dicho contexto también se ha analizado para determinar la influencia del mismo en el desarrollo del lenguaje del alumnado.

Para concluir, resulta sorprendente afirmar que esta tesis pueda ser el primer estudio experimental que se haya llevado a cabo en España considerando el método *Jolly Phonics*. El uso de dicho método podría ser una solución a los problemas planteados anteriormente y para las demandas que la ley española plantea sobre el plurilingüismo. Además, podría aumentar la media española en cuanto al nivel de lectura en inglés en las pruebas de PIRLS (2016) o ESLC (2012).

3. Objetivos de la investigación

Tanto la literatura presentada como los problemas de lectura planteados por los informes europeos, permitió establecer el objetivo principal de la tesis. Dicho objetivo se basa en determinar la efectividad e influencia del método *Jolly Phonics* en el proceso de alfabetización bilingüe del alumnado español e identificar posibles transferencias entre las lenguas.

El estudio, además, planteó los siguientes objetivos específicos:

1. Identificar los factores que requieren más atención durante el proceso de alfabetización temprana y determinar qué variable predice mejor las habilidades lectoras en español en ambos centros participantes.
2. Comparar los niveles de conciencia fonológica, denominación, velocidad en denominación y lectura de letras, palabras y pseudopalabras en español que adquiere el alumnado al inicio del estudio en ambos centros participantes.
3. Comparar los niveles del alumnado participante en el centro público teniendo en cuenta la conciencia fonológica, denominación, velocidad en denominación y lectura de letras, palabras y pseudopalabras en inglés y español al inicio y final del estudio.
4. Comparar los niveles del alumnado participante en el centro privado teniendo en cuenta la conciencia fonológica, denominación, velocidad en denominación y lectura de letras, palabras y pseudopalabras en español al inicio y final del estudio.
5. Comparar el número de errores cometidos por el alumnado del centro público al inicio y al final del estudio en el test de inglés (*English Reading Predictors Test*), teniendo en cuenta la conciencia fonológica y la denominación.
6. Determinar correlaciones entre la lectura de letras, palabras y pseudopalabras en inglés y español en ambos centros.
7. Identificar el nivel de lectura en inglés que adquiere el alumnado participante en los grupos experimentales al final del estudio y compararlo con su edad actual.
8. Identificar los sonidos ingleses más difíciles de pronunciar por el alumnado español.
9. Identificar el tipo de actividades más difíciles de realizar por el alumnado participante.
10. Identificar una posible transferencia de sonidos entre el español y el inglés.
11. Determinar el contexto de instrucción de cada centro (métodos de lectura, recursos y actividades usados en el aula) en Educación Infantil y Educación Primaria y contrastarlo con la opinión del profesorado.

12. Identificar las percepciones del profesorado de ambos centros acerca del método *Jolly Phonics*.

13. Determinar el contexto familiar de ambos centros teniendo en cuenta las prácticas lectoras en español e inglés realizadas en el hogar.

14. Identificar las opiniones de los padres de ambos centros acerca del método *Jolly Phonics*.

4. Diseño de investigación

El diseño del estudio siguió el método paralelo mixto en el que se recogió información cuantitativa (pre-tests y post-tests, cuestionarios) y cualitativa (observaciones diarias, diarios de campo y entrevistas semiestructuradas).

La muestra contó con 142 alumnos de 5 a 7 años que cursaban Educación Infantil y Primaria en dos centros de Sevilla, uno público (centro 1) y otro privado (centro 2).

El estudio presentó diseños diferentes para cada colegio de acuerdo a sus características. El centro 1 siguió un diseño experimental con pre-test – post-test, mientras que el centro 2 se centró en un diseño con cuatro grupos experimentales. El tratamiento fue la implementación del método *Jolly Phonics* durante un curso escolar, el primer año de Educación Primaria. La intervención se pudo realizar en el grupo experimental del centro 1 por la propia doctoranda, que permitió contrastar resultados con el grupo control, mientras que en el centro 2 la intervención la realizó el propio profesorado debido a que el método *Jolly Phonics* ya estaba siendo usado. Esto permitió realizar observaciones semanales en este centro.

Los datos cuantitativos se analizaron a través de distintos análisis descriptivos, de regresión, correlación, comparación y de clústeres jerárquicos, mientras que los datos cualitativos se tuvieron en cuenta a través de un análisis textual de la información, donde se crearon categorías y códigos para su posterior interpretación.

5. Resultados y discusión

Los resultados serán presentados en función de los objetivos junto a la discusión y conclusión correspondiente.

En respuesta al objetivo 1:

Los resultados de regresión mostraron que la conciencia fonológica y la lectura de letras y pseudo-palabras pueden predecir la lectura de palabras en español. Estos resultados coinciden con autores como Jiménez & Ortiz (2000, 2007). La conciencia fonológica y la lectura de pseudo-palabras en inglés y español pueden predecir la lectura de palabras en inglés, resultados similares a los obtenidos en el estudio realizado por Kremin, Arredondo, Hsu, Satterfield & Kovelman (2016), que muestra cómo las lenguas se influyen en el proceso de alfabetización temprana.

En respuesta al objetivo 2:

Teniendo en cuenta las habilidades de alfabetización en español, el alumnado de cada centro obtuvo puntuaciones diferentes, lo que les situó en distintas fases del desarrollo lector. El alumnado del centro 1 se encontraba en una ruta subléxica en la que la lectura dependía de su conciencia fonológica, mientras que el alumnado del centro 2 ya había automatizado este uso de conciencia fonológica y estaban leyendo a través de la ruta léxica, es decir, haciendo uso del léxico ya interiorizado (Cuetos, 2008; Coltheart, 1985).

En respuesta a los objetivos 11 y 13:

En relación a los resultados anteriores, se puede responder a los objetivos 11 y 13. Las entrevistas al profesorado revelaron que cada centro hacía uso de un método de lectura diferente y que podía estar influyendo en dichos resultados. Así, el centro 2, que hacía uso de un método fónico combinado con un método global, junto a la creación y adaptación de las actividades a las necesidades del alumnado, así como la frecuencia alta de prácticas lectoras en el contexto familiar, parecen ser efectivos para el desarrollo de las habilidades lectoras en español. Esto

coincide con autores como Beecher & Makin (2002) que indican el uso positivo de actividades adaptadas y basadas en experiencias reales.

En respuesta a los objetivos 3, 4 y 5:

En el caso del centro 1, los resultados mostraron que, tras la implementación del método *Jolly Phonics*, el alumnado del grupo experimental consiguió un nivel más alto en cuanto a la conciencia fonológica y la denominación en inglés, mientras que la mejora del grupo control en ambas variables fue casi inexistente. El hecho de que la denominación fuera más alta en el grupo experimental sugiere que el método estaba haciendo uso recurrente del vocabulario que permitió su mejor adquisición y la aparición de habilidades iniciales de comprensión. Estos resultados contrastan con la idea de Hannon (1995) sobre la falta de habilidades de comprensión en el método fónico, algo que se podría corroborar en un futuro análisis del método en años siguientes.

Cabe destacar que ambos grupos del centro 1 recibieron la misma instrucción para la lectura en español, es decir, haciendo uso del método silábico. Sin embargo, los resultados mostraron que el grupo experimental consiguió una puntuación mayor en el caso de las variables de conciencia fonológica y lectura en español, lo que parece indicar que el método *Jolly Phonics* también estaba influenciando positivamente a las habilidades lectoras de español.

En respuesta al objetivo 7:

Los resultados del test final para evaluar el nivel de lectura conseguido en inglés tras la implementación de *Jolly Phonics*, mostró que el alumnado de los grupos experimentales, cuya edad cronológica al final del estudio era de 7 años, consiguieron un nivel de lectura en inglés semejante al obtenido por niños nativos de 5.8 años.

Los resultados obtenidos del método *Jolly Phonics* coinciden con los de autores como Stuart (1999) o Ekpo, Udosen, Afangideh, Ekukinam & Ikorok (2010), quienes presentan los positivos resultados de grupos experimentales usando *Jolly Phonics*.

En respuesta a los objetivos 6, 8, 9 y 10:

Además, los resultados mostraron que las habilidades de alfabetización se pueden transferir entre las dos lenguas analizadas, inglés y español, lo que confirma la transferencia entre las lenguas (Kremin et al., 2016; Reyes, 2016). También se observa que existen ciertos sonidos que se pueden transferir del español al inglés, facilitando la adquisición de la lengua inglesa, coincidiendo con autores como Finch & Ortiz-Lira (1982) o Mott (2011). En relación a la dificultad de los sonidos y del tipo de actividades realizadas, los alumnos muestran mayor dificultad en el cuarto grupo de sonidos (/eɪ/, /dʒ/, /əʊ/, /aɪ/, /i:/, /o:/) del método que contiene diptongos y vocales largas y en aquellas actividades que implican escuchar palabras para, posteriormente, escribirlas y realizar un dibujo, donde se muestra que tienen que procesar lo que reciben para ser capaz de reproducirlo a través de la escritura y el dibujo.

En respuesta a los objetivos 12 y 14:

Finalmente, los resultados obtenidos de la recogida de datos cuantitativos se pueden confirmar con los datos cualitativos de las entrevistas realizadas a padres y profesorado, quienes estaban de acuerdo en que el método *Jolly Phonics* es efectivo para el desarrollo de habilidades lectoras en inglés en el alumnado español. Estos resultados coinciden con los obtenidos por Eshiet (2016) acerca de las opiniones del profesorado.

6. Conclusiones finales, limitaciones e implicaciones del estudio

En conclusión y respondiendo a la pregunta de investigación y objetivo principal del estudio, se puede afirmar que el método *Jolly Phonics* es efectivo para el desarrollo de las habilidades lectoras en inglés del alumnado español en edades tempranas. El método ha favorecido, además, la mejora de dichas habilidades en su lengua materna, indicando la existencia de transferencia entre estas habilidades, así como de ciertos sonidos similares entre ambas lenguas. Dichos resultados se refuerzan con las opiniones de padres y profesorado quienes reconocen la efectividad del método y apuestan por su uso en las edades posteriores del alumnado participante.

Este estudio ha presentado ciertas limitaciones a lo largo de su desarrollo. Entre ellas, cabe destacar el uso de un método diseñado para la enseñanza del inglés como primera lengua.

Debido a que el alumnado español no se encuentra inmerso en un contexto de lengua inglesa fuera de la escuela, se cree oportuna la adaptación del método para su uso en las aulas españolas. Otras limitaciones se refieren a la escasa participación de los padres del centro en los cuestionarios relacionados con las prácticas lectoras realizadas en el contexto familiar y el escaso número de horas de enseñanza del inglés en los centros españoles que dificultó el logro de los objetivos establecidos por el método.

Para concluir, la presente tesis doctoral sugiere implicaciones importantes para el desarrollo de las habilidades lectoras en inglés y en español, entre ellas, la positiva adecuación del método *Jolly Phonics* para ser usado en los colegios de primaria de España. Su uso implicaría la mejora de las habilidades lectoras en inglés del alumnado, así como la mejora de las medias de lectura y comprensión del alumnado en los informes europeos; la creación de programas de formación para profesorado y padres; el aporte de nuevos datos a la literatura; y la difusión de los resultados positivos presentados en esta tesis doctoral a través de congresos y publicación de artículos.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I. Agreement documents' information

Proyecto de Tesis Doctoral
Alfabetización y Bilingüismo
Sara Isabel Rendón Romero

Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación
Universidad de Sevilla

INFORMACIÓN PARA CENTROS PARTICIPANTES

El proyecto “**Alfabetización y Bilingüismo**” ha sido aprobado por la Comisión de Doctorado de Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación de la Universidad de Sevilla para la realización de tesis doctoral, cuya ejecución se realizará entre 2016 y 2019. Será llevado a cabo por la doctoranda Sara Isabel Rendón Romero junto a Macarena Navarro Pablo y Eduardo García Jiménez como directores de tesis.

El estudio se centra en la preocupación por la alfabetización temprana de los alumnos en español y en inglés, los factores que les influyen a avanzar a unos más que a otros y las metodologías usadas durante las etapas de Educación Infantil donde comienza a desarrollarse la lectura (etapa 5-6 años) y de Educación Primaria donde comienza a desarrollarse la lectura y la escritura (etapa 6-7 años) recurriendo para ello a una estrategia de intervención basada en el estudio de habilidades del alumno en la lectura y escritura del español, como primera lengua, L1, y del inglés, como segunda lengua, L2; el contexto socio-cultural y familiar del alumnado, la formación del profesorado y el uso de las metodologías y recursos para la enseñanza-aprendizaje.

Los **objetivos** planteados son:

- Analizar y describir las habilidades orales del alumnado con respecto a ambas lenguas y su relación con el aprendizaje de la lectura y escritura.
- Conocer cómo influye el contexto socio-cultural del alumnado en el aprendizaje de dichas habilidades.
- Identificar las estrategias metodológicas y actividades usadas para la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la lectura y escritura tanto en la primera lengua (español, L1) como en la segunda lengua (inglés, L2).
- Proponer y ofrecer posibles mejoras a través de actividades y de una estrategia metodológica adaptadas a los procesos de alfabetización en ambas lenguas.

El proyecto aborda una metodología quasi-experimental en el que participarán entre dos y cuatro centros diferentes de la provincia de Sevilla. Cada centro, con el previo acuerdo, podrá contar con dos grupos de estudio, uno experimental y otro

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de control. Este trabajo se percibe como un proceso colaborador y cooperativo para la detección de dificultades encontradas y ofrecer posibles mejoras metodológicas y contextuales de la enseñanza de la lectura y escritura de las lenguas y, por tanto, conseguir mejores resultados en edades posteriores del alumnado en estas habilidades. Así, consideramos que éste será un estudio que, además, contribuirá a la práctica educativa y a la formación del profesorado y, por tanto, optimizará las tareas de enseñanza-aprendizaje de las habilidades de lectura y escritura en español y en inglés.

La participación de los centros en este proyecto **supone**:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| <p>Curso 2016-2017</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Facilitar a la doctoranda el acceso al centro permitiéndole el conocimiento de las metodologías que se están empleando. Se llevará a cabo en el tercer trimestre del curso 2016-17 y supondrá: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ La participación activa en sus clases de Infantil como ayuda a los alumnos y al profesorado. Esta participación se realizará durante un día completo, al menos una vez en semana. ▪ La realización de entrevistas o conversaciones grupales e individuales al profesorado de lenguas (L1 y L2) sobre la práctica de la lectura y la escritura. ▪ La realización de pruebas* grupales e individuales a los alumnos para comprobar el desarrollo léxico, la base oral y la influencia familiar. ▪ Consensuar con el equipo del centro y la doctoranda las conclusiones del diagnóstico para el análisis. En su caso, realizar una evaluación inicial en función del diagnóstico previo. |
| <p>Curso 2017-2018</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Facilitar a la doctoranda de nuevo acceso al centro en los mismos grupos, ahora en Educación Primaria (6-7 años), para el estudio de la evolución: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Nueva participación de ayuda en las aulas. ▪ Se volverán a aplicar instrumentos, tales como entrevistas, conversaciones con profesorado y alumnado. - Las pruebas servirán para el análisis de la evolución del alumnado en las habilidades de lectura y escritura en ambos idiomas (L1 y L2), la influencia del contexto y las metodologías usadas. - Intervención, en su caso, con el método “Jolly Phonics” (previo diseño de actividades con el equipo del centro). Evaluación de la intervención. - La doctoranda proporcionará los resultados del alumnado así como un informe del estudio con los efectos de la intervención. |
| <p>Curso 2018-2019</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - En el caso de haber hecho uso de una alternativa metodológica propuesta por la doctoranda a lo largo del curso, se entregará un cuestionario al profesorado para conocer su grado de satisfacción al respecto (positiva, neutra o negativa). |

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***EL CENTRO DEBE SABER QUE:**

- La investigación estará sujeta a la máxima **confidencialidad**. Podrá optarse por el derecho de anonimato en aquellos casos que el centro y la doctoranda consideren oportuno. Todos los datos proporcionados y obtenidos en el análisis del centro serán recogidos exclusivamente en un fichero del equipo investigador. Su única finalidad será la del análisis estadístico. El nombre del centro podrá aparecer en documentos con el previo acuerdo y autorización del mismo.

- Todos los instrumentos para la recogida de datos de la investigación se utilizarán con el **acuerdo previo** del centro.

El centro y el profesorado recibirán como contrapartidas:

- Informe sobre la situación en la que se encuentra el proceso de enseñanza y aprendizaje de la lectura y escritura del español y del inglés del centro.

- Informe sobre las habilidades y situación del alumnado y los factores contextuales influyentes.

- Informe de evaluación de la intervención.

Appendix II. Agreement document to sign**COMPROMISO DE PARTICIPACIÓN**

El Colegio _____ de Sevilla, tras ser informado sobre el proyecto '**Alfabetización y Bilingüismo**'², aprobado en 2016 como proyecto de tesis doctoral por la Comisión de Doctorado de la Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación de la Universidad de Sevilla, expresa su

COMPROMISO a participar en las tareas previstas para los cursos de 2016-2017 a 2018-2019 y facilitar el desarrollo de las mismas, de acuerdo con lo expresado en el documento adjunto sobre 'Información para centros participantes'. Dicha participación no supondrá ningún coste económico para el centro.

² The title of the project changed during the second year of the doctoral programme. The previous title is kept in this case in order to show the real documents schools received for the first time.

Appendix III. Information for parents

INFORMACIÓN PARA FAMILIAS

Alfabetización y Bilingüismo es un proyecto aprobado por la Universidad de Sevilla como tesis doctoral que se realizará en el _____ durante los años 2017 y 2018.

El principal objetivo es **ofrecer posibles mejoras** al centro para una mejor **eficacia del aprendizaje** de sus alumnos.

Durante el tercer trimestre del presente curso 2016/2017, el proyecto se ha centrado en los alumnos del último curso de **Educación Infantil** debido a que es el momento en el que comienzan a trabajar la **lectura** y el **inglés** como segunda lengua. En el presente curso, se tendrán en cuenta a los mismos alumnos y al nuevo alumnado, ahora cursando el primer curso de **Educación Primaria** con el fin de estudiar su **evolución** y conocer cómo se introducen en la **escritura**. Será en este curso cuando se propondrán posibles mejoras para el desarrollo del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de los alumnos.

Para ello, trataré de **conocer qué dificultades** individuales y grupales tienen los alumnos en el aprendizaje de la lectura y escritura de su lengua materna y de la segunda lengua, **cuáles son los factores** que pueden influirles, teniendo en cuenta las actividades realizadas en clase y casa con respecto a la lectura y escritura del español y del inglés.

Este proyecto busca **la naturalidad y el confort** de los alumnos y del profesorado, por lo que un día a la semana estaré junto a la profesora **ayudando** en las tareas diarias de clase. Así, el único objetivo será el de **participar y servir de apoyo** en las actividades para conocerlos y trabajar juntos.

Además, de manera esporádica se realizarán **pruebas individuales y grupales** a los alumnos para conocer sus capacidades en cuanto a la lectura y escritura del español y del inglés. Todas estas pruebas serán siempre realizadas **bajo la supervisión** de los directores de tesis y con la **aprobación del colegio** y de su **profesorado**.

Se tendrá en cuenta la **confidencialidad** y el derecho al **anonimato**, por lo que las pruebas que se realicen y los resultados obtenidos serán proporcionados solo al profesorado para que puedan valorar la mejora del alumnado y los datos que para la propuesta de mejora serán **siempre anónimos**.

Al finalizar el estudio, se propondrá una nueva reunión con las familias para **informar de los resultados y las posibles mejoras** que se llevarán a cabo, siempre teniendo en cuenta que se realizarán con el objetivo de **mejorar la eficacia y el rendimiento del aprendizaje de los alumnos**.

Agradeciéndoles su tiempo y colaboración, les mando un cordial saludo,

Sara Rendón

Estudiante de Doctorado

Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Universidad de Sevilla

En el documento anterior se informa sobre el Proyecto de Investigación que la doctoranda Sara Rendón está llevando a cabo en la Universidad de Sevilla.

Tal y como se indica, los datos recabados son confidenciales y la utilización será utilizada únicamente con fines de investigación, para los que se solicita

AUTORIZACIÓN FAMILIAR

_____ como padre/madre/tutor/a legal y

_____ como padre/madre/tutor/a legal

de _____,

conformidad

expreso mi: _____ con la participación de mi hijo/a en dicho proceso.

disconformidad

En Sevilla, a _____ de _____ 201

Fdo:

Fdo:

N.I.F:

N.I.F:

Appendix IV. Questionnaire about literacy practices at home

‘Cuestionario sobre la lectura en el contexto familiar’

| DATOS IDENTIFICATIVOS | | Edad: | Sexo: | H | M |
|-----------------------|--|-------|-------|---|---|
| Estudios: | | | | | |
| Puesto de trabajo: | | | | | |

A continuación, puede observar una serie de preguntas acerca de las **prácticas de lectura** en español y en inglés que realiza tanto usted como su hijo/a en casa. Lea cada pregunta atentamente y responda indicando del **0 al 4** el valor que mejor describa la **frecuencia** con la que realiza cada actividad:

| Marque con una X su respuesta | Nada 0 | Poco 1 | Algo 2 | Mucho 3 | Bastante 4 |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|---------------|
| ¿Tienen libros en casa? | | | | | |
| ¿Suele leer el periódico o libros delante de su hijo/a? | | | | | |
| ¿Su hijo/a lee cartillas de lectura en casa? | | | | | |
| ¿Su hijo/a lee libros de lectura en casa? | | | | | |
| ¿Realiza lectura compartida con su hijo/a? | | | | | |
| ¿A su hijo/a le gusta leer solo/a? | | | | | |
| ¿Lee usted libros en inglés? | | | | | |
| ¿Lee libros en inglés con su hijo/a? | | | | | |
| ¿Su hijo/a ve la televisión en inglés? | | | | | |
| ¿Usa internet para realizar lecturas con su hijo/a? | | | | | |
| ¿Usa internet (juegos, canciones...) con contenido en inglés para su hijo/a? | | | | | |
| ¿Su hijo/a asiste a clases extraescolares de inglés? | | | | | |

Appendix V. Observation template and teacher interview used in Early Childhood Education

A. Plantilla de observación: español.

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|-----------|--|
| Fecha | | Nº | |
| Lugar | | | |
| Entorno | | | |
| Momento y tiempo del día | | | |
| Nº de alumnos y adultos | | | |
| Edad | | | |
| Género | | | |
| Objetivo | | | |
| Observación | | | |
| Sesión (Actividades): | | | |
| Metodología usada: | | | |
| Material colgado: | | | |
| Material impreso: | | | |
| Material audiovisual: | | | |
| Espacios: | | | |

B. Preguntas para el profesorado:

- 1- ¿Qué titulación o titulaciones tiene? ¿Qué opina de la formación general recibida?
- 2- ¿Qué nivel de inglés tiene?
- 3- ¿Cuántos años de experiencia docente tiene?
- 4- ¿La programación se ha planificado entre todo el profesorado del ciclo? ¿Qué opina de la programación en cuanto a contenido y estructura?
- 5- ¿Qué tipo de material usa? ¿auténtico, adaptado, original, libros, internet...? ¿Qué editorial? ¿Considera que el material de clase es apropiado para la enseñanza que realiza?
- 6- ¿Cómo promueve la práctica de lectura en casa?

- 7- ¿Realiza una evaluación al inicio del curso, de manera continua o al final del curso?
- 8- ¿Con qué frecuencia realiza reuniones y tutorías con las familias? ¿Con qué objetivo?
- 9- ¿Qué método de lectoescritura utiliza? (ascendente (fónico, silábico, alfabético) o descendente (global, léxico o integral)) ¿Cuántas horas dedica a las prácticas de lectura en clase?

Appendix VI. Questionnaire about *Jolly Phonics*

Nombre y apellidos del alumno/a:

1. ¿Cuántas personas ayudan normalmente al niño/a con las tareas de inglés? Marque con una **X** tantas como sea necesario:

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------|
| Madre | <input type="checkbox"/> | Padre | <input type="checkbox"/> | Hermano/a | <input type="checkbox"/> | Abuelo/a | <input type="checkbox"/> | Otro | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|-------|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------|

2. ¿Quién le dedica más tiempo a ayudar con las tareas de inglés?

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------|
| Madre | <input type="checkbox"/> | Padre | <input type="checkbox"/> | Hermano/a | <input type="checkbox"/> | Abuelo/a | <input type="checkbox"/> | Otro | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|-------|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|------|--------------------------|

3. ¿Qué personas de las que ayudan al niño/a tienen conocimientos de inglés? Marque en cada caso con una **X** el conocimiento de inglés e indique, en su caso, si estuviese acreditado:

| | Básico | Intermedio | Avanzado | Acreditado con: | | | | | |
|------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | | | | A1 | A2 | B1 | B2 | C1 | C2 |
| Madre | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Padre | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Hermano/a | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Abuelo/a | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Otro | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

4. ¿Qué actividades del método de inglés *Jolly Phonics* ha hecho en casa y con qué frecuencia?

| | 0 días /semana | 1 día /semana | 2 días /semana | 3 días /semana | 4 días /semana | 5 días /semana |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Leer los sonidos individuales. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Escuchar canciones sobre los sonidos. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ver los vídeos sobre los sonidos. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Cantar canciones. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Leer palabras. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Leer frases. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. ¿Qué actividades en inglés le gusta realizar a su hijo/a en casa, aunque no sea del método *Jolly Phonics*? Señale con una **X**

| | 0 días /semana | 1 día /semana | 2 días /semana | 3 días /semana | 4 días /semana | 5 días /semana |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Cantar canciones en inglés | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Utilizar libros con pegatinas | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Contar cuentos en inglés | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Escuchar canciones en inglés | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ver películas en inglés | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Leer en inglés | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

6. En su opinión, su hijo/a es capaz de...

Marque con una **X** la opción que considere oportuna...

| | SÍ | NO |
|--|-----------|-----------|
| Reconocer sonidos en inglés (indicando el sonido y el gesto) | | |
| Leer palabras en inglés | | |
| Leer frases en inglés | | |
| Cantar canciones en inglés | | |
| Se ha sentido motivado al recibir pegatinas en la clase de inglés | | |

7. En su opinión...

Marque con una **X** la opción que considere oportuna...

| | SÍ | NO |
|--|-----------|-----------|
| ...el método es bueno para avanzar en el conocimiento del inglés | | |
| Otros comentarios o sugerencias... | | |

Appendix VII. Observation template used in Primary Education. Adapted from (Lloyd & Wernham, 2013)

| | | |
|------------------------------|--|---|
| Datos identificativos | | |
| Fecha | <input type="text"/> | Semana <input type="text"/> Hora <input type="text"/> Sonido <input type="text"/> |
| Centro | <input type="text"/> | Profesor/a <input type="text"/> |
| Grabación | | |
| Audio | <input type="text"/> | Vídeo <input type="text"/> Nada <input type="text"/> |
| Actividades | Presentación del sonido con acciones | <input type="text"/> |
| | Uso de canciones | <input type="text"/> |
| | Uso de Flashcards | <input type="text"/> |
| | Uso de juegos para consolidar sonido | <input type="text"/> |
| | Uso del material colgado para referirse al sonido | <input type="text"/> |
| | Uso de lápiz | <input type="text"/> |
| | Práctica de escritura al aire | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de escuchar el sonido tras su presentación | <input type="text"/> |
| | Uso de juegos con palabras | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de práctica de escritura de sonido | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de práctica de escritura de palabras | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de práctica de escritura de frases simples | <input type="text"/> |
| | Dictado de sonidos | <input type="text"/> |
| | Dictado de palabras | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de letras minúsculas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de letras mayúsculas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios con palabras con letras combinadas (blending) | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios con la caja de palabras (Word boxes) | <input type="text"/> |
| | Practicar sonidos a diferentes tonos | <input type="text"/> |
| | Identificación de sonidos en palabras pronunciadas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Identificación de sonidos en palabras escritas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Producción de palabras que contengan el sonido | <input type="text"/> |
| | Ejercicios de contar sonidos de una palabra | <input type="text"/> |
| | Deletreo de palabras simples | <input type="text"/> |
| | Deletreo de palabras complejas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Escritura de nombre propio | <input type="text"/> |
| | Dictado de frases simples | <input type="text"/> |
| | Dictado de frases con palabras complejas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Juegos con pizarra digital | <input type="text"/> |
| Materiales | Libro de sonidos | <input type="text"/> |
| | Cuadernillo del alumno | <input type="text"/> |
| | Fichas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Póster | <input type="text"/> |
| | Flashcards | <input type="text"/> |
| | Marionetas | <input type="text"/> |
| | Software de pizarra digital | <input type="text"/> |
| | Canciones | <input type="text"/> |
| | Tarjetas de sonidos | <input type="text"/> |
| Agrupación | | |
| Grupo | <input type="text"/> | Individual <input type="text"/> Pareja <input type="text"/> |

Appendix VIII. Teachers' interview about *Jolly Phonics*

Entrevista al profesorado sobre el método Jolly Phonics. Taken from Eshiet (2016, pp. 22-23).

1) ¿Por qué quisiste participar en nuestro estudio sobre el método *Jolly Phonics*? / *Why did you want to take part in the research about Jolly Phonics?*

1) ¿Qué impacto crees que la implementación del método ha tenido en: / *What impact do you feel this method had on:*

...el alumnado/as que han participado? / *Pupils who took part?*

...en el profesorado participante? / *Teachers who took part?*

...en el colegio en general? / *the school as a whole?*

2) ¿Cuál ha sido el momento más interesante o impresionante que has vivido durante la implementación del método? / *What was the most interesting or impressive moment that you witnessed during the implementation of the method?*

3) ¿Qué crees que puede mejorarse con respecto a la implementación? / *What do you feel could be done to improve the method?*

4) ¿Hay algo más que quieras comentarnos? / *Is there anything else you would like to tell us about?*

5) ¿Has notado cambios en los/as alumnos/as participantes en la implementación? ¿Cuáles? / *Did you notice any changes in your pupils who took part in the method? If yes, please describe them.*

6) ¿Ha contribuido el método en el modo en el que enseñas habilidades lectoras en tu clase de inglés actualmente? ¿Y en español? ¿Cómo? / *Did the method make any difference to the way that you teach reading skills in your class? If yes, what differences?*

7) ¿Continuarás usando el método con tus alumnos/as en el futuro? / *Will you continue to use phonics with your pupils in the future?*

Appendix IX. ALE1 (González & Cuestos, 2008) adapted. Used for pre-test and post-test.

A) WHOLE GROUP ACTIVITIES

PROCESAMIENTO FONOLÓGICO

1. HACER RIMAS:

¿Qué palabra rima con...? Escríbela:

| | | | |
|--------|--|--|--|
| Melón | | | |
| Color | | | |
| Pelota | | | |
| Pera | | | |
| Maleta | | | |

2. BUSCAR SONIDOS:

Rodea la opción correcta:

¿Qué palabra empieza con el sonido...?

| | | | |
|-----|-----------|------------|----------|
| /l/ | 1 ducha | 2 ruta | 3 luna |
| /r/ | 1 danza | 2 risa | 3 barril |
| /m/ | 1 camión | 2 mañana | 3 número |
| /k/ | 1 cuchara | 2 garganta | 3 figura |
| /g/ | 1 juguete | 2 bigote | 3 cajita |

3. BUSCAR SONIDOS:

Rodea la opción correcta:

¿Qué palabra termina con el sonido...?

| | | | |
|-----|------------|-----------|------------|
| /z/ | 1 actriz | 2 zumo | 3 azul |
| /r/ | 1 catedral | 2 colchón | 3 borrador |
| /s/ | 1 calcetín | 2 lápiz | 3 ciempiés |
| /l/ | 1 cristal | 2 parchís | 3 palomar |
| /z/ | 1 majestad | 2 feliz | 3 machacar |

4. QUITAR SÍLABAS:

Subraya lo que queda de la palabra si quitamos la sílaba:

- 1) Paloma
- 2) Arañazo
- 3) Manopla
- 4) Paciencia
- 5) Cuchilla

5. QUITAR SONIDOS:

Subraya lo que queda de la palabra si quitamos el sonido:

| | |
|-----|----------|
| /c/ | 1) Caño |
| /r/ | 2) Barba |
| /s/ | 3) Casco |
| /g/ | 4) Gasa |
| /r/ | 5) Rata |

6. DECIR NOMBRES SIN EL SONIDO INICIAL:

¿Si quitamos el sonido... qué queda? Subraya lo que queda:

- | | |
|-------------|------------|
| 1) BOMBILLA | 4) TIJERAS |
| 2) FRESA | 5) COPA |
| 3) PELOTA | |

7. DECIR NOMBRES SIN EL SONIDO FINAL:

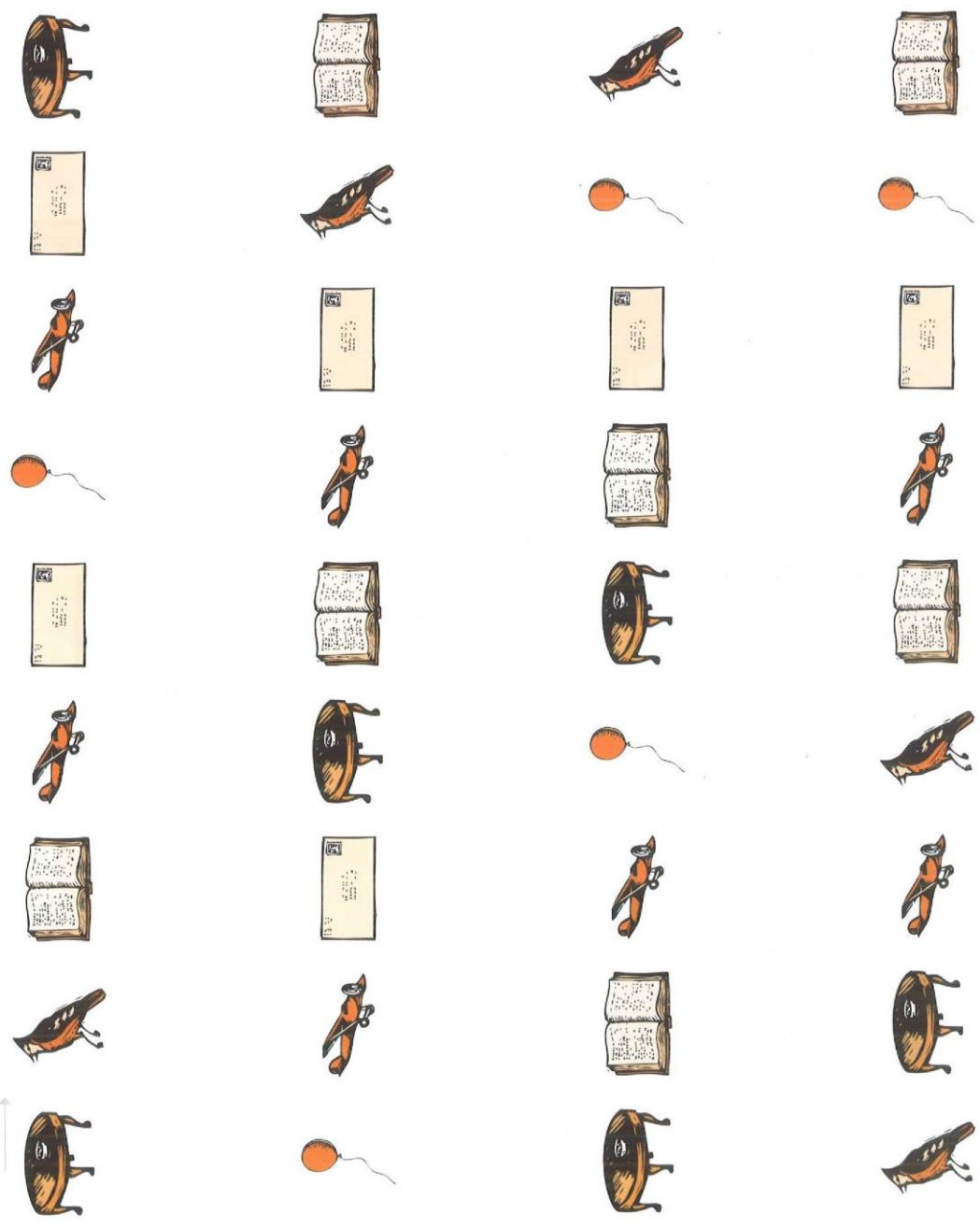
¿Si quitamos el sonido... qué queda? Subraya lo que queda:

- | | |
|----------|-----------|
| 1) RATÓN | 4) SOL |
| 2) LÁPIZ | 5) CAMIÓN |
| 3) PEZ | |

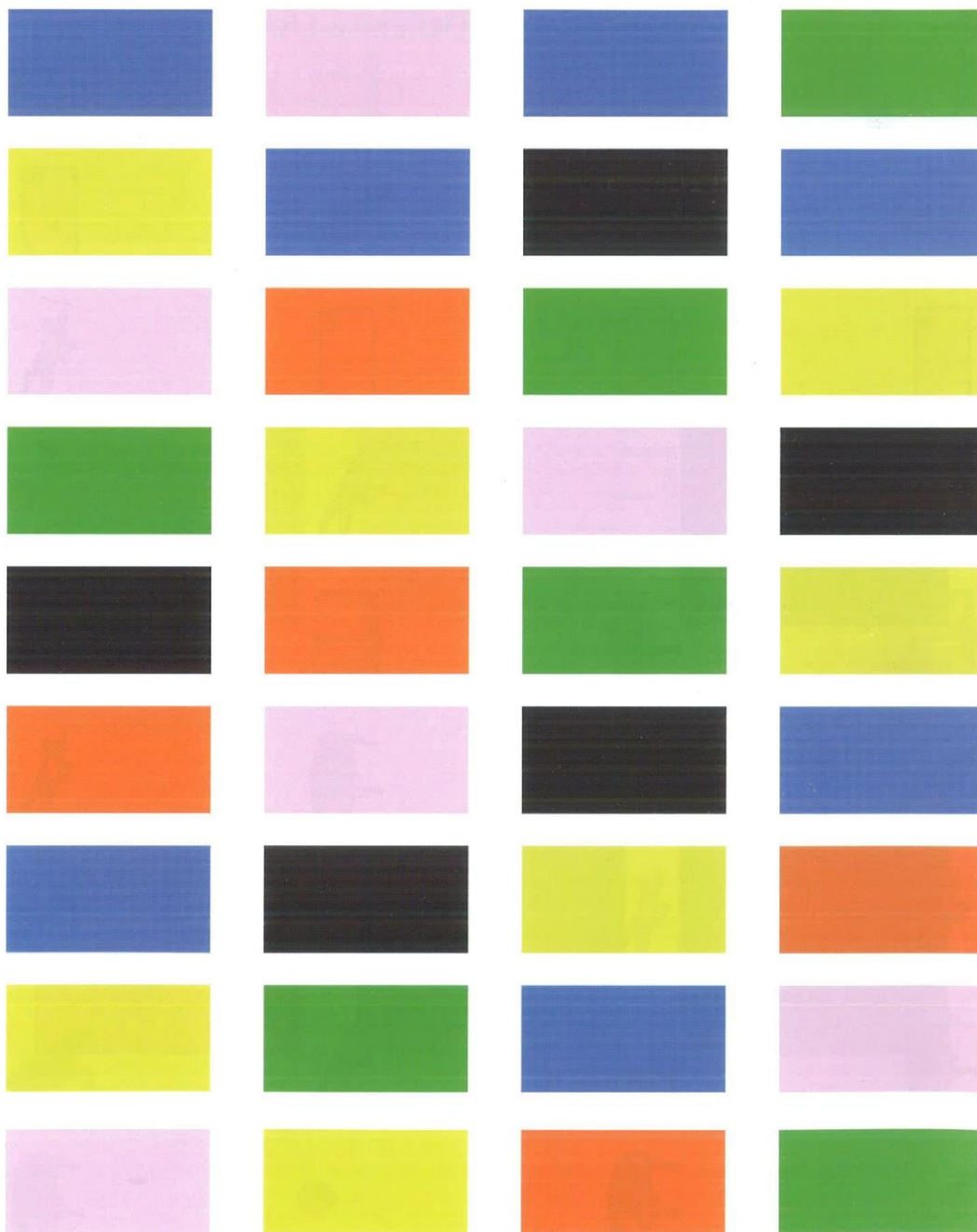
B) INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITIES

22 ACTIVIDADES PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DE LA LECTURA Y DE LA ESCRITURA
VELOCIDAD EN DENOMINACIÓN DE DIBUJOS

• Ahora esta lámina



• Ahora los colores de esta lámina



2 7 5 2 7 4 5 3 8

8 2 3 5 3 8 4 7 2

4 8 4 7 2 4 3 5 7

3 7 2 7 4 5 8 3 5

f m s e n s m d f
n d m n e m d e f
d n f s e m d e n
s d e f m f n s m

LECTURA DE PALABRAS:

REINA

GLOTÓN

SABLE

CUENTO

ARTISTA

LECTURA DE PSEUDOPALABRAS:

TEINA

GLOFÓN

RABLE

FUENTO

RATISTA

Appendix X. EGRA test (Research Triangle Institute, RTI International, 2009). Sections 6 and 7 used as post-test to complement ALE1

Sección 6. Lectura en voz alta de un pasaje

[Muestre al estudiante el pasaje en la última página del formulario plastificado. Diga:]

Aquí tienes una conversación para que la leas. Quiero que te imagines que le estás leyendo la historia a tus amigos o hermanos. Léela en voz alta.

¿Entiendes lo que vamos a hacer? Cuando te diga ‘comienza’, lee lo mejor que puedas. Después de un ratito voy a decir ‘alto’ para que te detengas. Pon tu dedo debajo de la primera palabra. ¿Listo(a)?

Comienza por favor.



Active el cronómetro cuando el niño (a) comience a leer. Es importante que marque las palabras incorrectas CLARAMENTE con una barra diagonal. Tome como correctas las auto-correcciones. Si ya ha marcado la auto-corrección como incorrecta, rodee la palabra con un círculo y continúe. **Permanezca en silencio**, excepto si el estudiante duda por 3 segundos, léale la palabra, indique la siguiente palabra y diga ‘**Por favor, sigue leyendo**’. Marque la palabra que le dijo como incorrecta. Si el estudiante no respeta las tildes en las palabras acentuadas, esas palabras serán consideradas también incorrectas. Si no hubo problemas, después de un minuto diga ‘alto’. Marque con un corchete (|) la última palabra intentada antes de que usted dijera ‘alto’.

DETENGA AL ESTUDIANTE A LOS 60 SEGUNDOS Y MARQUE CON UN CORCHETE (|) LA PALABRA DONDE DEJÓ DE LEER.

| | |
|---|----|
| ENCUENTRO CON LOS AMIGOS. | 4 |
| Pablo caminaba rumbo al colegio. | 9 |
| Estaba contento, aunque un poco preocupado. | 15 |
| En el camino iba pensando. ¿Cómo estarán mis compañeros? | 24 |
| ¿Quién será mi profesora? ¿Cómo me irá este año? | 33 |
| Mientras se hacía estas preguntas, casi sin darse cuenta, | 42 |
| llegó al colegio. | 45 |
| Una vez en el patio, sus compañeros lo vieron y corrieron | 56 |
| a saludarlo. Al encontrarse entre amigos, olvidó sus | 64 |
| preocupaciones. | 65 |
| Todos hablaban al mismo tiempo, haciendo muchas preguntas y | 74 |
| tratando de contar lo que había hecho durante las | 83 |
| vacaciones. | 84 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Mientras conversaban alegremente, sonó la campana | 90 |
| llamándolos a clase. | 93 |
| Al entrar a la sala de tercero, tuvieron la agradable sorpresa | 104 |
| de ver a la señorita Marcela, su profesora del año anterior, que | 116 |
| los esperaba sonriente. | 119 |

Anotar el tiempo indicado en el cronómetro si el niño leyó en menos de 1 minuto:

| |
|--|
| |
| |

Anotar total de palabras leídas :

| |
|--|
| |
|--|

Sección 7. Lectura y comprensión de un pasaje

[Muestre al estudiante el pasaje en la última página del formulario plastificado. Diga:]

Aquí tienes un cuento para que lo leas. Quiero que lo leas en voz alta. Cuando termines, te haré unas preguntas sobre el cuento.

¿Entiendes lo que vamos a hacer? Cuando te diga ‘comienza’, lee el cuento lo más rápido y lo mejor que puedas. Después de un ratito voy a decir ‘alto’ para que te detengas. Pon tu dedo debajo de la primera palabra. ¿Listo(a)? Comienza por favor.

Cuando termine de leer el estudiante, dígame: **Ahora te voy a hacer unas preguntitas sobre el cuento que has leído, ¿listo/a?** Después de leer cada pregunta, dé al estudiante un máximo de 15 segundos para responder. Marque la casilla adecuada a la respuesta.



Active el cronómetro cuando el niño (a) comience a leer. Es importante que marque las palabras incorrectas CLARAMENTE con una barra diagonal. Tome como correctas las auto-correcciones. Si ya ha marcado la auto-corrección como incorrecta, rodee la palabra con un círculo y continúe. **Permanezca en silencio**, excepto si el estudiante duda por 3 segundos, léale la palabra, indique la siguiente palabra y diga ‘**Por favor, sigue leyendo**’. Marque la palabra que le dijo como incorrecta. Si el estudiante no respeta las tildes en las palabras acentuadas, esas palabras serán consideradas también incorrectas. Después de un minuto diga ‘alto’. Marque con un corchete (]) la última palabra intentada antes de que usted dijera ‘alto’.

DETENGA AL ESTUDIANTE A LOS 60 SEGUNDOS Y MARQUE CON UN CORCHETE (]) LA PALABRA DONDE DEJÓ DE LEER. HAGA LAS PREGUNTAS INMEDIATAMENTE DESPUÉS.

| | Pregunta | Respuesta esperada | Correcto | Incorrecto | Rehusó responder |
|---|--|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| María tiene una gata. La gata es negra y gorda. Le gusta jugar y brincar | 4 10 15 6.1 ¿Quién tiene una gata? | [María/la niña] | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Un día, María no pudo encontrar a la gata. María y su mamá la buscaron por toda la casa. | 24 34 6.3 ¿Qué le pasó a la gata de María? | [Se perdió, tuvo gatitos] | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| La gata estaba debajo de la cama. La gata tuvo tres gatitos. | 41 46 6.4 ¿Dónde estaba la gata de María? | [Debajo de la cama] | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| La mamá de María le dice – Yo también voy a tener un bebé. Vas a tener un hermanito. | 64 6.5 ¿Qué le dijo la mamá a María? | [Que va a tener un bebé/niño/cipote, María va a tener un hermanito] | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Anotar el tiempo indicado en el cronómetro si el niño leyó en menos de 1 minuto:

Anotar total de palabras leídas :

| |
|--|
| |
| |

Appendix XI. The English Reading Predictors Test used for pre-test and post-test

CONCIENCIA FONOLÓGICA Y DENOMINACIÓN

1- (CONTIENE SONIDO) MARCA CON UNA X EL LUGAR DEL SONIDO....:







2- (SONIDO INICIAL) MARCA CON UNA X EL LUGAR DEL SONIDO....:







3-(SONIDO FINAL) MARCA CON UNA X EL LUGAR DEL SONIDO....:







4-DÍ EL NOMBRE DE TODOS LOS OBJETOS QUE VES.

Appendix XII. Final assessment of *Jolly Phonics* with record sheets (Colin & Kate, 2012)

Letter Sounds and Tricky Words Test Colour Side 1

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----|---|----|----|---|---|----|----|----|-----|
| → | s | i | p | n | a | t | h | r | d | ck↓ |
| er | | | | | | | | | | e |
| qu | | | | | | | | | | m |
| ar | | | | | | | | | | u |
| ou | | | | | | | | | | f |
| ue | | | | | | | | | | o |
| oi | | | | | | | | | | b |
| th | | | | | | | | | | l |
| y | | | | | | | | | | g |
| sh | | | | | | | | | | oa |
| th | | | | | | | | | | ee |
| x | | | | | | | | | | j |
| ↑ | ch | v | ng | oo | z | w | oo | ie | or | ai← |

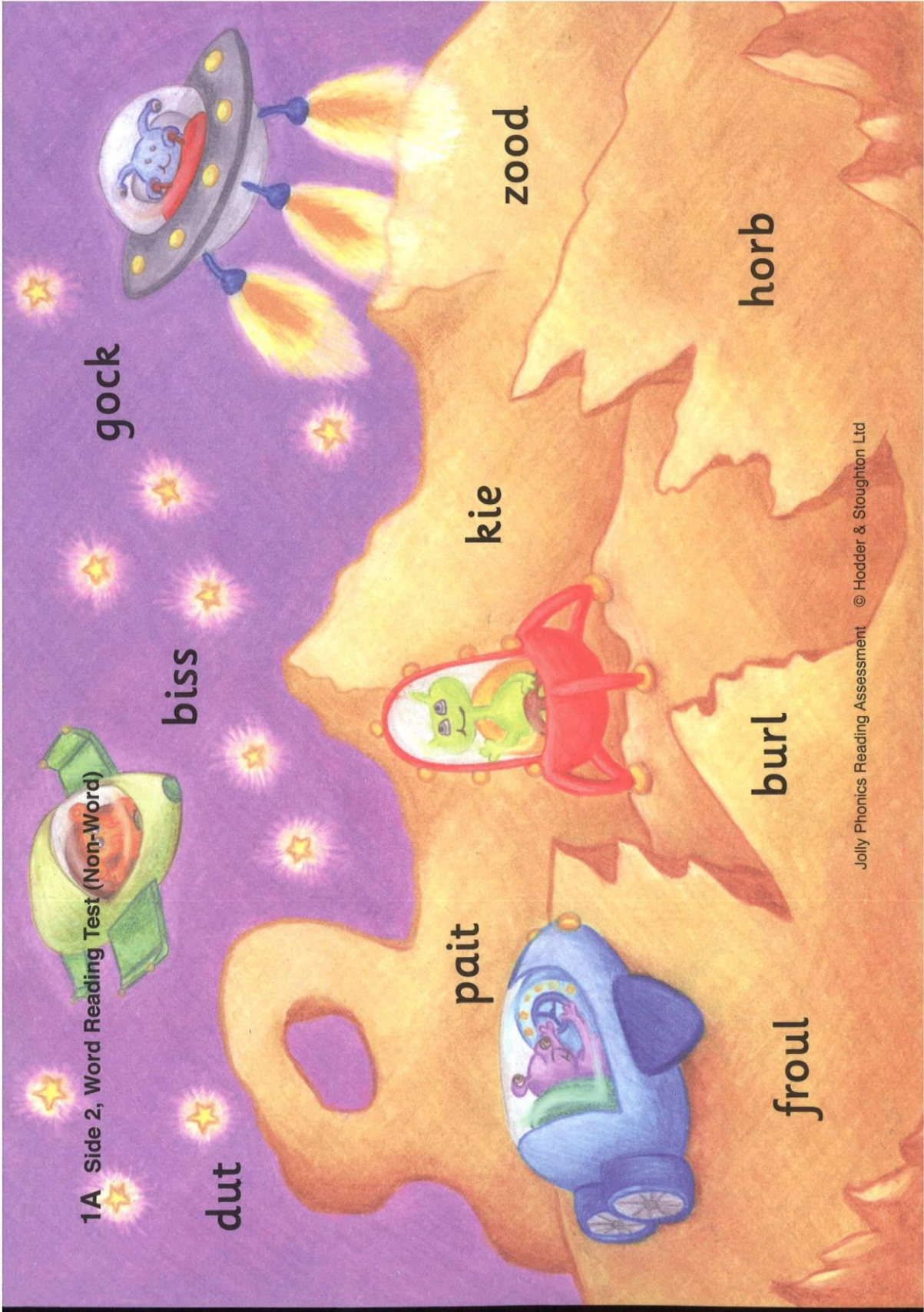
Jolly Phonics Reading Assessment © Hodder & Stoughton Ltd

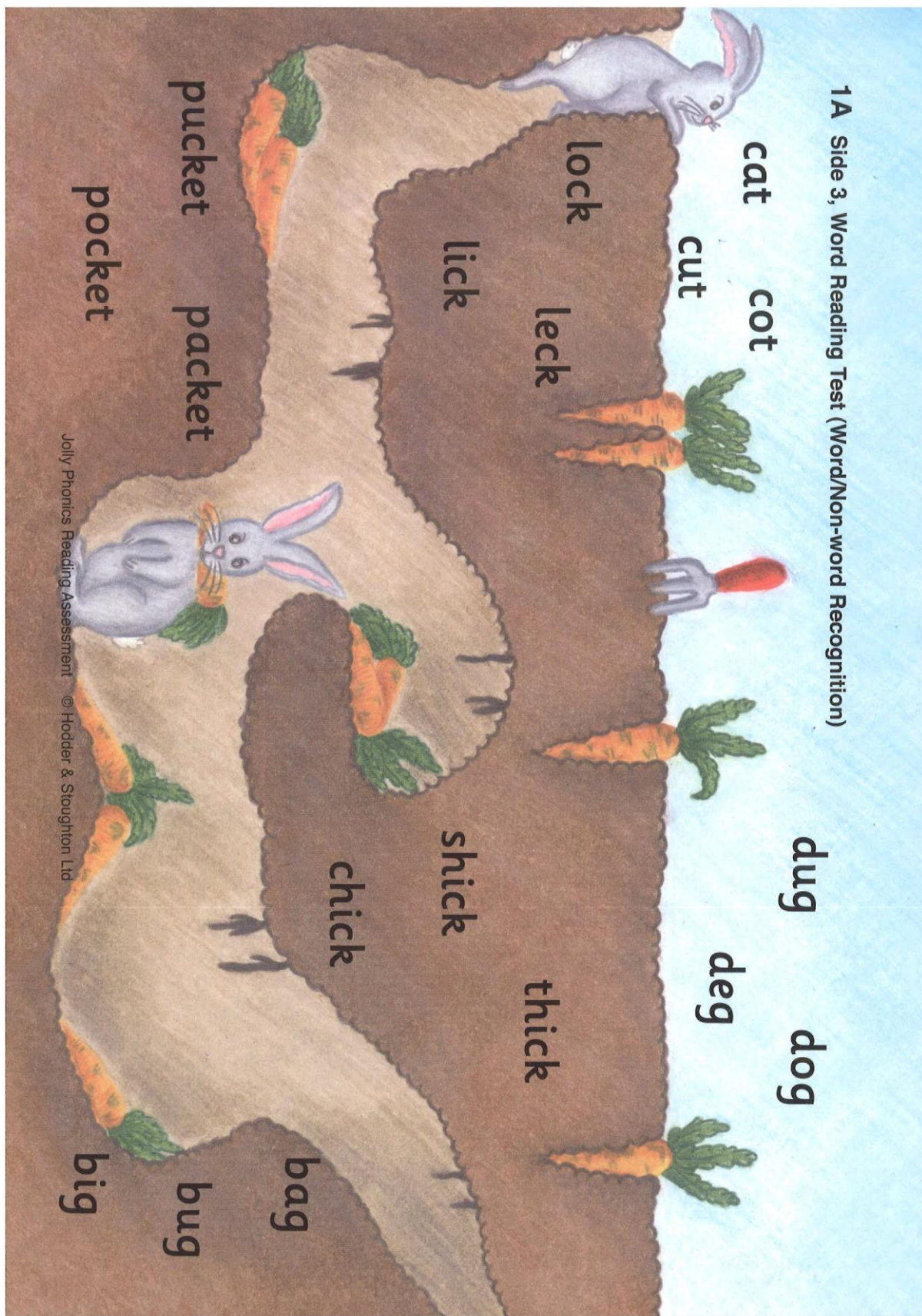
Letter Sounds and Tricky Words Test Colour Side 2

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-----|
| → | ea | ur | au | y ↓ | | |
| ay | down | little | old | when | i-e | |
| | any | what | only | | | |
| u-e | where | which | many | who | why | ew |
| | because | more | before | other | | |
| oy | were | want | should | saw | would | al |
| | two | could | right | put | | |
| a-e | does | made | their | four | goes | o-e |
| ↑ | igh | aw | ir | ow ← | | |

Jolly Phonics Reading Assessment © Hodder & Stoughton Ltd







1A Side 4, Word Reading Test (Word/Non-word Recognition)

loud
load
laid

peel
pail
pool

butter
botter
better

tool
toal
tail

paint
pernt
point

shart
shout
sheet

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1A Side 5, Sentence Reading Test

Is the cat sad?



Did the dog and the duck sit on a sack?



Has the king got a fish?





Pupil Record Sheet

Reading Test 1A Page 1

Master Record Page

| | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|
| Name | | School | |
| Date of birth | Chronological age: years months | Gender: M / F | Class/Year group |
| Test date | Administered by | Home language (if not English) | |
| Other relevant information | | | |

| WORD READING | |
|--|-----------------|
| Single Word Reading | /17 |
| Non-word Reading | /9 |
| Word/Non-word Recognition | /24 |
| Word Reading Total | /50 |
| Word Reading Age (see manual page 10) | years months |
| Standardised Score (see manual pages 20 and 21) | |

| SENTENCE READING | explanation | |
|-------------------------------------|---|-----------------|
| Number of words read (by number) | number of 5th word incorrect* | /50 |
| Sentence Reading Age | age given by number below 5th word read incorrectly | years months |
| Standardised Score | see manual pages 22 and 23 | |
| Reading Comprehension Total | only asked if no more than 2 errors made in reading sentence | /10 |

Pupil Record Sheet

Reading Test 1A Page 2

Word Reading Record Page

Read the advice on administering the Word Reading Test on page 7 in the manual. Select the Single Word Reading, Non-word Reading and Word/Non-word Recognition coloured sheets. Start by asking the child to read the words on the Single Word Reading Sheet, Side 1. Write the number of words read correctly in the Total column on this sheet. Progress to the Non-word reading, which is on the other side of the coloured sheet. Ensure that the child understands that these words have no meaning and must be worked out by blending the letter sounds. Lastly ask the child to look at the first group of words on the coloured Word/Non-word Recognition sheet. Explain that there are groups of 3 words and that the child should point to the word that has been called out, after looking at all the words. The words to call out are on this sheet, with the non-words being written in italics. Count the words recognised correctly, record the total and transfer that to page 1, the Master Record Page.

| SINGLE WORD READING | | ✓, x, or 0 |
|---------------------|--|------------|
| it | | |
| dip | | |
| pot | | |
| hat | | |
| sick | | |
| puff | | |
| fuss | | |
| chop | | |
| ship | | |
| card | | |
| tie | | |
| boil | | |
| hammer | | |
| market | | |
| croak | | |
| think | | |
| shout | | |
| TOTAL | | /17 |

| NON-WORD READING | | ✓, x, or 0 |
|------------------|--|------------|
| <i>dut</i> | | |
| <i>biss</i> | | |
| <i>gock</i> | | |
| <i>pait</i> | | |
| <i>kie</i> | | |
| <i>zood</i> | | |
| <i>froul</i> | | |
| <i>burl</i> | | |
| <i>horb</i> | | |
| TOTAL | | /9 |

| WORD / NON-WORD RECOGNITION | | ✓ or x |
|-----------------------------|--|------------|
| cat | | |
| cut | | |
| dug | | |
| <i>deg</i> | | |
| lick | | |
| <i>leck</i> | | |
| chick | | |
| <i>shick</i> | | |
| pocket | | |
| <i>pucket</i> | | |
| big | | |
| bug | | |
| peel | | |
| pail | | |
| tool | | |
| <i>toal</i> | | |
| load | | |
| laid | | |
| better | | |
| <i>botter</i> | | |
| point | | |
| <i>pernt</i> | | |
| sheet | | |
| <i>shart</i> | | |
| TOTAL | | /24 |

Pupil Record Sheet

Reading Test 1A Page 3

Sentence Reading and Reading Comprehension Record Page

Ask the child to read the sentences on the coloured Sentence Reading sheet 1A, Sides 5 and 6. Record word reading errors as the child reads the sentences. Put a ring round the 5th error word. In that box, under the word, is the Reading Age of the child and to the left of the word is the number that is used for obtaining the Standardised Score. Write the results on to page 1, the Master Record Page. The words in grey boxes, which have no numbers in them, are not counted for marking or scoring. Children may read to the end but this will not be included in the results. Follow the test advice on pages 8-9 of the manual and only ask the comprehension question if the pupil makes no more than 2 errors.

| SENTENCE READING | | | | | | | | | | READING COMPREHENSION | | | | Enter ✓, ✗, or 0 |
|------------------|----|-------|------|--------|----|--------|------|----------|----|-----------------------|---|--|----|---------------------|
| 1 | 1 | Is | 2 | the | 3 | cat | 4 | sad? | | | What do you think? Is it? | No | 1 | |
| 2 | 5 | Did | <4.3 | the | 6 | dog | <4.3 | and | 7 | <4.3 | Look at the picture. Do you think they did? | No | 2 | |
| 3 | 13 | Has | 4.3 | the | 8 | duck | <4.3 | sit | 9 | <4.3 | Look at the picture. Has he? | No | 3 | |
| 4 | 17 | My | 4.7 | sister | 18 | is | 4.8 | waiting | 19 | 4.9 | Who is waiting? | Sister | 4a | |
| | 23 | She | 5.2 | is | 24 | under | 5.3 | the | 25 | 5.4 | Where is his sister? | Under the tree | 4b | |
| | 28 | green | 5.7 | coat | 29 | and | 5.8 | her | 30 | 5.10 | Who do you think is talking? | A boy or her brother; accept pointing to boys | 4c | |
| | 32 | Can | 6.0 | you | 33 | see | 6.1 | her | 34 | 6.2 | What is the house like? | Little or has a red roof | 5a | |
| 5 | 36 | I | 6.4 | live | 37 | in | 6.5 | the | 38 | 6.5 | Where do they play? | Outside | 5b | |
| | 40 | with | 6.6 | a | 41 | red | 6.6 | roof. | 42 | 6.6 | Do you think it is quiet outside? | No or yes with a suitable reason | 5c | |
| | 43 | I | 6.6 | play | 44 | games | 6.6 | outside. | 45 | >6.6 | What is the slide like? | Steep | 5d | |
| | 46 | I | >6.6 | like | 47 | to | >6.6 | zoom | 48 | >6.6 | Reading Comprehension Total | | | |
| | 49 | the | >6.6 | steep | 50 | slide. | >6.6 | | | | | | | |

Appendix XIII. Attached video: Presenting sounds with actions.

Appendix XIV. Attached video: Telling a story related to the sound of the session.

Appendix XV. Attached video: Using flashcards.

Appendix XVI. Attached video: Practising blending and tricky words.

Appendix XVII. Attached video: Songs.

Appendix XVIII. Attached video: Games and sentence reading.