

1 **The impact of a writing programme on reading acquisition of at-**
2 **risk first grade children**

3
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11
12 **Abstract:** Our aim was to assess the impact of a writing programme on the reading
13 acquisition of first graders considered at-risk of developing reading difficulties.
14 Eighteen children from six classrooms of three primary schools attended this
15 programme. Their results on literacy tests at the end of the first trimester were very
16 low when compared to those of the remaining 91 children attending the same
17 classrooms. This programme, based on a socio-constructive approach, had 12
18 sessions. In each session, children were asked to discuss the writing of words and
19 sentences until they reached an agreement. The adult's role was to guide and question
20 children along their process of discovery and reflection. The dynamics that occurred
21 during the sessions and the adult's help (scaffolding) were characterized. At the end of
22 the programme, children who underwent the intervention reached similar reading
23 results as the remaining children in the classrooms.

24
25 **Keywords:** Reading, learning, writing programme, scaffolding

26
27 **Resumen:** Nuestro objetivo fue evaluar el impacto de un programa de escritura en el
28 aprendizaje de la lectura de niños de primer grado considerados en riesgo de
29 desarrollar dificultades de lectura. Dieciocho niños de seis clases de tres escuelas de
30 Educación Primaria asistieron al programa. Sus resultados en pruebas de
31 alfabetización al final del primer trimestre fueron muy bajos en comparación con los
32 otros 91 niños de las mismas clases. Este programa, con un enfoque socio-
33 constructivista, tuvo 12 sesiones. En cada sesión los niños debatieron sobre la escritura
34 de palabras y oraciones. El papel del adulto era guiar y cuestionar a los niños a lo
35 largo de su proceso de descubrimiento y reflexión. Se analizaron las dinámicas que
36 ocurrieron durante las sesiones y las ayudas del adulto (andamiaje). Al final del
37 programa, los niños que asistieron al programa alcanzaron resultados de lectura
38 similares a los otros niños de las mismas clases.

39
40 **Palabras-clave:** Lectura, aprendizaje, programa de escritura, andamiaje

41
42 **Resumo:** O nosso objetivo foi avaliar o impacto de um programa de escrita na
43 aprendizagem da leitura de crianças do 1º ano de escolaridade em risco de desenvolver
44 dificuldades de leitura. Dezoito crianças de seis turmas de três escolas de 1º ciclo
45 participaram neste programa. Os seus resultados em testes de literacia no final do
46 primeiro trimestre eram muito baixos quando comparados com os das restantes 91
47 crianças dessas turmas. Este programa, baseado numa perspectiva socio-constructivista,
48 teve 12 sessões. Em cada uma, foi pedido às crianças que discutissem a escrita de
49 palavras e de frases. O papel do adulto foi o de guiar e questionar as crianças ao longo

50 do processo de descoberta e de reflexão. Analisámos as dinâmicas ocorridas durante
 51 as sessões assim como as ajudas do adulto (scaffolding). No final do programa, as
 52 crianças que passaram pela intervenção atingiram resultados semelhantes em leitura
 53 aos das restantes crianças das turmas.

54
 55 **Palavras-chave:** Leitura, aprendizagem, programa de escrita, “scaffolding”
 56

57 **Introduction**

58 Learning to read is often considered a rather simple task that many children acquire easily.
 59 However, there are children that have difficulties that prevent them from acquiring reading
 60 skills similar to those of children of their age and school year, and which may result in future
 61 difficulties in other academic areas with impact on motivation and on learning in general.

62 In order to overcome the problems presented by children at-risk of reading failure,
 63 several investigations involving phonological awareness and reading programmes were
 64 developed (e.g. Ball & Blachman, 1988; Bradley & Bryant, 1983; Hatcher, Hulme, &
 65 Snowling, 2004). However, these studies have not focused on the advantages of using writing
 66 activities to enhance reading acquisition in the beginning of formal schooling. Recent studies
 67 have evidenced the causal relationship between early writing activities and later reading
 68 acquisition and, consequently, the development of skills that exceed phonological awareness
 69 such as alphabetic knowledge and orthographic awareness (e.g., Alves Martins, Albuquerque,
 70 Salvador, & Silva, 2013; Alves Martins, Salvador, Albuquerque, & Silva, 2016; Ouellette &
 71 Sénéchal, 2008; Sénéchal, Ouellette, Pagan, & Lever, 2012). Writing activities seem to have,
 72 therefore, an enormous pedagogical value by promoting reading and writing abilities in
 73 children that may, or not, be at-risk of developing learning difficulties in these areas.

74 Learning how to read and write depends, in great extent, to how well children
 75 understand the alphabetical principle, that is, the notion that the sounds of words can be
 76 represented by letters in a more or less regular way (Adams, 1998). The difficulty or ease to
 77 master these principles depends, in part, on orthographic language characteristics. European
 78 Portuguese for instance, has a considerable degree of complexity as a result of various
 79 irregularities and inconsistencies. According to Seymour, Aro and Erskine (2003), European
 80 Portuguese, although being a language of simple syllabic structure, is a semi-transparent
 81 orthography rather than a transparent one. In Portuguese, one letter can code several sounds
 82 (e.g., *x* can represent the sound [ʃ] in *xilofone*, [s] in *próximo*, [z] in *exato* or [ks] in *táxi*), or
 83 one sound can be coded by several letters (e.g.: the sound [s] can be represented by *s* in *sino*,
 84 *ss* in *assobio*, *ç* in *maçã* or *c* in *cesto*).

85 Chomsky (1971, 1979) was one of the first authors who suggested that the first
86 approach to reading should be through children's own writing attempts. During writing
87 activities, the segmentation of words into sounds and the attempt to match a grapheme to a
88 phoneme helps to promote decoding skills (Frith, 1985). Moreover, when children read what
89 they wrote, they immediately consolidate the association between graphemes and phonemes
90 allowing, in the future, the storage of these words in memory (Lombardino, Bedford, Fortier,
91 Carter, & Brandi, 1997). The teaching and practice of early writing provides, therefore, an
92 appropriate and enriched context for the development of phonological awareness and
93 knowledge of the alphabet, skills that are essential to reading acquisition (Treiman, 1993).

94 The first studies that involved writing activities prior to formal instruction focused on
95 the analysis of the errors made by children. These errors, as they represent knowledge
96 children already have about writing, constitute an essential tool for understanding children's
97 functioning and processes underlying writing procedures (Bosman & Van Orden, 1997). This
98 developmental approach to literacy breaks with the traditional conception that the acquisition
99 of the multifaceted processes implicit in reading and writing is intrinsically dependent on
100 formal teaching (Tolchinsky, 2004, 2016).

101 According to Ferreiro (1988) and Ferreiro and Teberosky (1979) all children have
102 some knowledge about the writing system, which must be valued and should serve as a
103 starting point for any future learning. Ferreiro (1994, 2002) and Vernon and Ferreiro (1999)
104 showed that writing activities are, in fact, a privileged way to promote metalinguistic
105 reflection and to understand the relationship between oral and writing units that underlie the
106 alphabetic principle.

107 Lo que estamos proponiendo, para el aprendiz que es hablante de una lengua con una
108 representación alfabética de la misma, es un proceso dialéctico a múltiples niveles
109 donde, para empezar, el objeto lengua no está dado. Ese objeto debe ser construido en
110 un proceso de objetivación, proceso en el cual la escritura provee el punto de apoyo
111 para la reflexión. Tampoco las unidades de análisis están dadas; ellas se redefinen
112 continuamente, hasta corresponder (aproximadamente) con las que define el sistema
113 de representación. (Ferreiro, 2002, p. 167).

114

115 Ferreiro's work has inspired many other studies in other languages and sociocultural
116 contexts, such as Portuguese (e.g., Alves Martins & Quintas Mendes, 1987; Alves Martins &
117 Silva, 2006). The innovative method used by Ferreiro and Teberosky (1979) consisted of
118 individual Piagetian interviews that require critical exploration by the child during situations
119 of writing productions, where cognitive conflicts and reflections about his/her own production
120 were promoted.

121 Recent studies by Alves Martins et al. (e.g. 2013, 2016, 2017) have sought to
122 understand and establish relationships between preschool children's writing programmes and
123 reading acquisition, carried out individually or in small groups. These studies, following those
124 by Clarke (1988), Rieben, Ntamakiliro, Gonthier, & Fayol (2005) and Ouellette and Sénéchal
125 (2008), have contributed to the acknowledge that writing activities have great impact on
126 reading acquisition, supporting the theoretical assumptions that there is a causal relationship
127 between writing and reading and that they are interdependent.

128 These programmes, based on constructivist and socio-constructivist principles intend
129 to promote children's reflection about their own writing and more evolved writings produced
130 by other children, with the help of an adult.

131 The programmes developed with children in groups also intended to expose children
132 to situations in which it is necessary to build a collective solution to a problem, think together
133 and present ideas about the writing processes, with the guidance or mediation of an adult.
134 According to Teberosky (1982), when children argue in order to reach a final solution to a
135 problem taking other children's opinions into account they actually make a reflective
136 integration instead of a passive acceptance of their arguments. Group programmes also offer
137 the possibility of reaching more children at a time while they are closer to classroom contexts.
138 They promote metalinguistic thinking under the supervision of the adult who constantly
139 evaluate children's difficulties in order to give them the help they need, whenever necessary.

140 The adult's mediation process used in these programmes that may be fundamental to
141 explain their efficacy consists mainly in the use of scaffolding strategies, that is, the
142 assistance provided to each child, in order that he/she may successfully complete a task that
143 alone she/he would be unable to complete (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Insofar as
144 scaffolding consists of a dynamic intervention well aligned with the student's continuous
145 progress, the help or support provided by the teacher depends on a large extent on the
146 characteristics of the situation, the type of task, and the student's responses (Pol, Volman, &
147 Beishuizen, 2010). Knowing when and how to withdraw support is also a basic function of
148 the adult (Cole, 2006) who must master a wide repertoire of scaffolding strategies, adapting
149 them as much as possible to the different needs of each child (Pentimonti & Justice, 2010).

150 In a recent study carried out by Alves Martins, Salvador, Albuquerque and Montanero
151 (2017) the authors analyzed and characterized the strategies used by the adults during a
152 writing programme to help children to think about their written productions facilitating, thus,
153 the development of reading and writing skills. The results show a predominance of
154 questioning strategies, especially those that promote children's thinking and reasoning about

155 phoneme-grapheme correspondences. The authors also described many procedural
156 elaborations that provided modeling of the procedures to adopt in order to write words,
157 namely, linguistic procedures. One feature that clearly characterizes these programmes is the
158 residual occurrence of instructions/corrections. It is important to note that the amount of help
159 needed by the children substantially decreased along the programmes, which suggest that
160 children internalize procedures and require less guidance or mediation from the adult, passing
161 on the control of the learning process to them. With this study, it was possible to state the
162 idea that programmes like this are not limited to direct instruction and involve complex
163 scaffolding processes, which can, along with the promotion of diversified psycholinguistic
164 abilities, be the basis of its success (Cubero, 2005).

165 The main purpose of the present study is to assess the impact of a writing programme
166 carried out with children attending first grade at risk of developing learning difficulties on
167 their word reading ability and to analyse the scaffolding strategies used by the adult during
168 the intervention sessions. Several studies were developed in Portugal with pre-school children
169 (e.g. Alves Martins, 2013, 2016, 2017) but none with children at-risk of reading failure in the
170 initial year of formal schooling.

171

172 **Method**

173 *Design.* This was an intervention study that was developed in different phases: In the first,
174 there was an initial assessment of all the children that attended six classes of the first grade of
175 the primary schools that participated in this study (N=109). Children at-risk of having reading
176 problems were selected (N=18). In the second phase, these children underwent a writing
177 programme for six weeks (twice a week). In the third phase, there was a final assessment of
178 the reading performance of all children (N=109).

179 *Participants.* Participants were 109 children who attended six classes of three public
180 primary schools in the Lisbon area. Eighteen children (9 boys and 9 girls), were considered
181 at-risk of developing reading difficulties by their teachers at the end of the first trimester.
182 Their phonological awareness, alphabet knowledge and word reading performance when
183 compared with those of the other children who attended these classes was very low as can be
184 seen in Table 1. Their age was equivalent, and their mother's academic level was lower when
185 compared to the other children as can also be seen in Table 1.

186 The descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) in terms of age, mother
187 academic level, letter knowledge, phonological awareness and word reading either for the

188 children at risk of reading failure (writing programme) and for the remaining children in the
 189 different classrooms (class) are shown in Table 1.

190

191 **Table 1.** Descriptive statistics for age, mother academic level, letter knowledge, phonological awareness and
 192 word reading.

193

	Age		Mother's		Letter		Phonological		Word	
	(months)		Academic Level		Knowledge		Awareness		Reading	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Writing programme	80.00	2.91	11.72	3.32	12.50	3.60	1.33	1.24	2.28	2.11
Class	80.07	3.33	14.31	2.93	19.28	3.95	8.00	4.72	10.23	3.89

194

195 The 18 children at-risk of reading failure underwent a writing programme in pairs in
 196 order to improve their writing and reading abilities.

197 *Measures.* Letter knowledge was assessed by Test 4 (reading of letters) and Test 8
 198 (writing of letters) from ALEPE (European Portuguese Reading Assessment Battery, 2011).
 199 In Test 4 the child was asked to read all 23 letters from the alphabet, presented randomly in
 200 the computer, excluding k, w, y (letters that are not usually used in Portuguese words). Test 8
 201 is similar to test 4 but instead of reading, the child was asked to write down a sequence of
 202 letters dictated. The maximum score for each test was 23 points.

203 To assess children's *phonemic awareness*, we used two phonemic sub-tests from Sim-
 204 Sim's (2006) phonological battery tests of ALO (Oral Language Assessment), the
 205 reconstruction and segmentation tests. Thus, in the phonemic reconstruction task children
 206 were asked to say the word that was given to them by the adult already segmented in
 207 phonemes while in the segmentation task children should themselves decompose a word in
 208 phonemes. Each task consisted of 10 items preceded by 2 examples, and every item was
 209 scored with 1 point if the child answered correctly and 0 points if the answer wasn't correct so
 210 that the lowest score was 0 and the highest 10, for each task.

211 In order to assess children's ability to *read* we used Test 2, A list (applied to first
 212 graders or children of equivalent level) from ALEPE (Sucena & Castro, 2011) which consists
 213 in a standardized test of word reading. The words have different levels of orthographic
 214 complexity: simple orthographies, that is, words whose grapheme-phoneme correspondences
 215 don't change and are, therefore, bi-univocal (e.g., *mota*); consistent orthographies – words
 216 with a low level of complexity that include complex graphemes (e.g., “lh”) and contextual
 217 regularities (e.g., “s” that sounds [z]) that don't admit variations in the way they are read;

218 inconsistent orthographies – words whose level of complexity is high and that involve lexical
219 and/or morphological knowledge, therefore, not depending on contextual regularities, as the
220 previous ones. In this test, all words are dissyllables with medium level of frequency in
221 Portuguese. It has 18 items preceded by 4 training items: 9 are simple words, 6 consistent
222 words and 3 inconsistent words. We asked the child to, successively, read each word as
223 quickly and accurately he/she could. The maximum score was 18 points, scoring 1 point for
224 each word correctly read and 0 points for a null or incorrect word reading.

225 *Procedure.* Children were individually assessed in a quiet room outside the classroom.
226 The initial assessment took place in January and the final one in May, just after the end of the
227 intervention programme.

228 The writing programme was carried out with children in pairs, during 12 sessions of
229 20-30 minutes each, twice a week, during March and April.

230 All the sessions - assessment and intervention programme – were audio recorded for
231 further analysis. A specially trained educational psychologist conducted the intervention
232 sessions.

233 After transcribing random interaction sessions of different groups, we analyzed them
234 in order to provide a characterization of the strategies the adult used to help children evolve in
235 their writing and the procedures children should be able to internalize once the programme
236 was over. Scaffolding messages or functional units were isolated without losing any
237 information about the context in which they occurred (Coll, Onrubia, & Mauri, 2008). Each
238 support message given by the adult was analyzed, using a system of educational support
239 categories based on the study of Alves Martins et al. (2017).

240 *The writing programme.* This programme was designed to lead the children, in pairs,
241 to discover the spelling of different words, to think about the grapheme-phoneme
242 correspondences, to understand and internalize the rules of the written code. The adults' role
243 consisted of questioning the children's ideas, guiding them, making them realize that certain
244 sounds are coded by certain letters, and that, in order to do so, they need to properly isolate
245 the sounds of the spoken words so that they can start using conventional letters in their
246 writing. Although with major differences, this programme was inspired mainly in the works
247 of Ferreiro (1988) and Alves Martins et al. (e.g. 2013, 2016, 2017).

248 In the beginning of each session, the adult introduced a contextualized activity, such as
249 reading a story, watching a short film, listening to music or watching a music video. These
250 activities provided a context and a meaning to the spelling activity that would follow. After
251 each child was asked to write, in interaction with his/her partner, several single words or short

252 phrases, and was encouraged by the adult to discuss the spelling of each word and to reach an
253 agreement. Then, the adult showed them the conventional writing of the words and asked
254 them to confront and compare both writings and to give reasons why they thought one was
255 better. The children were never told that the word the adult presented was the correct one in
256 terms of spelling, to encourage them to think about the different spellings. Children had to
257 make their own inferences, to think with their partner and present their own reasons. The
258 adult mediated and guided children's discussions, using both linguistic analysis strategies
259 (drawing attention to some specific sounds, for the use of certain letters or for contextual
260 rules), as well as scaffolding strategies (such as asking questions, getting children to think and
261 reason, providing clues to facilitate inferences, managing the group). The adult always
262 avoided further interference, like teaching or instructing children.

263 The choice of the words was based on the following criteria: In the first sessions, we
264 used frequent words with a common syllabic structure in Portuguese (consonant-vowel-
265 consonant-vowel) and with regular sound correspondences. The words used in the following
266 sessions were less frequent words with more complex syllabic structures; we also used
267 phrases in order to expose children to some formal aspects of writing that children usually do
268 not master when they enter formal schooling. We made sure that all words were
269 contextualized (came from the materials presented to them in the activity that was previously
270 developed), although we were careful not to expose them to their written form.

271 An example of an interaction that occurred between two children and the adult during
272 the third session of the writing programme is presented in Appendix I. Children were asked to
273 discuss how to write the title of a song they had previously heard. The adult wrote down in a
274 cardboard the letters children dictated him. The title was "A Dieta do Porco Toneladas" [The
275 diet of the Pig Toneladas] and the transcript presented in Appendix I is only of the words "do
276 Porco".

277

278 **Results**

279 *Reading results at the end of the year.* Concerning reading, Table 2 presents the descriptive
280 statistics for the measures of single word reading after the programme, for the children who
281 underwent the writing intervention programme, and for the other children. As shown in Table
282 1, there was a very big discrepancy between these two groups of children in January. Children
283 at risk of developing reading difficulties had a very low performance in the reading task

284 before the intervention, being able to correctly read 2 words out of 18 while the remaining
 285 children had much better results, being able to read, approximately, ten words.

286

287 **Table 2.** Descriptive statistics for words correctly read by the children of the writing programme and the
 288 remaining children in the classrooms after the intervention

289

	Reading	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Writing Programme	12.28	2.40
Class	13.54	3.69

290

291 After the implementation of the programme, we can verify that the group that
 292 underwent the intervention reached mean values very close to those presented by the
 293 remaining children, their performance having improved in a very significant way. There are
 294 no statistically significant differences between the two groups $t(107)=-1.39, p=.167$. Children
 295 who underwent the writing programme were actually able to reach the class level of
 296 performance in reading at the end of the programme.

297 *Adult's scaffolding strategies.* We isolated different scaffolding strategies used by the
 298 adult:

299 a) *Questioning*, whose main intention is to obtain a response directly related to the task
 300 (eg. 8. “ So, POR, how do we write POR?”; 39. “What is this letter, before the C? [points to
 301 R]”).

302 b) *Inferential questioning*, used to make children think about the way words are
 303 written (related to procedures or linguistic reasoning), taking into account what the child
 304 already knows and giving implicit clues with the purpose of facilitating an inference (e.g. 44.
 305 “What letter is written there that we didn't write here?”).

306 c) *Implicit clues*, that many times follow questions that are, in fact, implicit guidelines
 307 for procedures of linguistic analysis, concerning the sounds of the spoken words (e.g. 10.
 308 “POOOR”; 41. “PORRRCO”).

309 d) *Explanation request*, that aims to request for clarification or justification of an idea
 310 expressed by the child (e.g. 20. “Why do you think it's the P and the T?”).

311 e) *Asking for confirmation*, a question directed to the child so that she/he expresses her
 312 agreement or disagreement with what was said or written previously (e.g. 24. “He says it's P.
 313 Let's agree on the first letter. Do you agree that it is P?”).

314 e) *Positive feedback*, used to motivate and encourage children to continue the task,
 315 decreasing, therefore, the possibility of withdrawal when tasks get more difficult, as well as

316 increasing children's independence and autonomy by providing a feeling of competency
 317 during the completion of the task (e.g. 37. "Very well!"; 50. "Well done!").

318 f) *Procedural instruction* that aims to provide the children with explicit procedures
 319 that allow him/her to solve the task (e.g. 5. "Let's write PORCO. Say it, PORCO. Let's divide
 320 the word. First is POR and then CO.").

321 g) *Explaining*, that aims to explain or clarify (e.g. 47. "It's R. The R has the sound
 322 [r]").

323 h) *Focusing*, that aims to direct or redirect the attention of the child to a specific part
 324 of the task (e.g. 30. "Now, let's focus on the second syllable, CO.").

325 The first six strategies (low-level of support strategies) were the most frequent. The
 326 last three strategies (high-level of support strategies), occurred less frequently and were
 327 gradually reduced or exclusively used in moments considered essential for the resolution of
 328 the task. They occurred, typically, in the beginning of the programme, when children showed
 329 the need for more guidance from the adult and decreased substantially, or even disappeared,
 330 in the last sessions.

331 All scaffolding strategies were adapted to the needs of the children and varied between
 332 different groups. Some groups needed a higher level of support than other ones. In all cases,
 333 the help of the adult decreased from the first sessions to the last ones, even when the
 334 complexity of the writing task increased.

335

336 **Discussion**

337 The main purpose of our research was to understand if a writing intervention programme,
 338 carried out in pairs, with first grade children considered at-risk of developing difficulties in
 339 reading acquisition had a positive and significant impact on reading abilities. In fact, the
 340 results obtained allow us to state that writing activities, more specifically writing activities
 341 based on a constructivist and socio-constructivist approach, designed to act in the zone of
 342 proximal development, influence decisively the acquisition of the reading in children at-risk
 343 of reading failure. In this sense, following other studies carried out for preschool children, it
 344 seems possible to establish an effective relationship between the development of writing
 345 activities and reading (Alves Martins et al., 2016; Ouellette & Sénéchal, 2008), even when
 346 they are at-risk of reading difficulties (Sénéchal et al., 2012).

347 We also sought to understand whether the performance in terms of word reading of
 348 children that underwent the writing programme improved in a way that made them get closer

349 to the results displayed by the remaining children in the classrooms. Although the initial
350 performance of the class was much superior to that of the at-risk children the final results
351 clearly point to the fact that children benefited greatly from the writing programme, being
352 able to attain the reading performances of the other children.

353 These results are similar to those obtained by Clarke (1988), who found that children
354 in classrooms where writing activities were used, as a curriculum resource, systematically
355 obtained higher values in tasks that involved word reading than children in classrooms where
356 such activities were not used. This effect was, in fact, superior in children who had low
357 performance in reading tasks. Therefore, writing activities where children are asked to contact
358 and explore the written code as a way to access the alphabetical principle can be especially
359 beneficial for children with difficulties.

360 It is important to note that, although these results clearly underline the success of the
361 writing programme in terms of word decoding, we did not measure the reaction times that
362 would help us to complement the information with reading fluency data. In fact, studies
363 indicate that children with difficulties in reading acquisition may easily decode words,
364 depending on their complexity and inconsistency; however, their reading fluency levels are
365 often below to those expected for their age (Lundberg, 2002).

366 In terms of knowing which strategies were included in the adult's scaffolding
367 repertoire that had the purpose of inducing children thinking, making them argue and
368 cooperatively find together the solution to the problem of writing the words, we found that the
369 strategies more common in this programme were of low-level of support (Pentimonti &
370 Justice, 2010). They mainly consisted in questioning, helping children to make inferences and
371 giving certain linguistic clues as well as providing appropriate positive feedback. These
372 results are in line with those reported by Alves Martins et al. (2017).

373 It is important to mention that children showed the ability to integrate the procedures
374 modeled by the adult during the sessions. In most cases, less help was needed to perform the
375 task and there was a shift of the control of the task from the adult to the children that,
376 autonomously, begun to employ the linguistic analysis strategies and procedures necessary to
377 write words, without the adult's intervention (Alves Martins et al., 2017). The adult also
378 adapted the strategies taking into account children's needs, making this programme really
379 flexible and responsive in terms of individual differences.

380 The appropriateness of the scaffolding strategies used by the adult is one of the
381 essential characteristics of this programme that may have boosted the impact on reading
382 skills. By providing the child to become more autonomous, in control, and inducing self-

383 regulation abilities, this writing programme has proved educational value and can be an
384 effective alternative or resource for children who are potentially at-risk of reading failure.

385 Finally, we point out some limitations to our study. Firstly, although our aim was to
386 assess the impact of the writing programme on reading, it would have been of interest to have
387 final measures of phonological awareness and writing of both at-risk children and classroom
388 children in order to compare them and evaluate if the impact of the writing activities on these
389 abilities were the same as for reading. Secondly, as we already stated, we have not assessed
390 children's reading fluency. Thirdly, we did not analyze the interactions that occurred during
391 the sessions between the children, which might be relevant to understand which dynamics can
392 lead to better results. Regarding the educational implications of this study, we think it would
393 be interesting to adapt this type of programme to more naturalistic contexts, so that teachers
394 can implement them in their classes; we also think that the scaffolding strategies used in this
395 programme should be incorporated on teacher initial and in-service training, as they are
396 valuable tools to promote successful learning for all students.

397

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401

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504 **Appendix I**

505 Transcription of an interaction between two children and the adult in the 3rd session

- 506 1. *Adult* - And now another word: DO.
- 507 2. *Child 1* - It's D and U.
- 508 3. *Child 2* - No, no. (thinks for a while). Ah, yes it's D and U.
- 509 4. *Adult* - Like this? (Writes D and U).
- 510 5. *Adult* - Let's write PORCO. Say it, PORCO. Let's divide the word. First is POR
 511 and then CO. We are now writing POR.
- 512 6. *Child 2* - It's the P and the O, PORCO, and then it's the U.
- 513 7. *Child 1* - Wait, let me divide the word: POR-CO.
- 514 8. *Adult* - So, POR, how do we write POR?

- 515 9. *Child 1* - It's the P and the U.
- 516 10. *Adult* - POOOR.
- 517 11. *Child 2* - No, it's not P and U.
- 518 12. *Adult* - POR. But do you agree that it has a P?
- 519 13. *Child 2* - No, I do not agree.
- 520 14. *Adult* - Say POR.
- 521 15. *Child 1* - It's P.
- 522 16. *Adult* - Let Catarina say.
- 523 17. *Child 2* - POR.
- 524 18. *Adult* - Do you hear the sound of the P?
- 525 19. *Child 2* - It's the P and the T.
- 526 20. *Adult* - Why do you think it's the P and the T? Listen carefully: POR, do you hear
- 527 the sound [t]?
- 528 21. *Child 2* - Wait, no, I was wrong.
- 529 22. *Adult* - So, what's the first letter?
- 530 23. *Child 1* - It's P.
- 531 24. *Adult* - He says it's P. Let's agree on the first letter. Do you agree that it is P?
- 532 25. *Child 2* - Starts with P.
- 533 26. *Adult* - And then?
- 534 27. *Child 1 and Child 2* - It's the O.
- 535 28. *Adult* - It's the O? [Writes down the O]. POR-CO.
- 536 29. Now, let's focus on the second syllable, CO.
- 537 [They continue to write the rest of the word PORCO and afterwards the adult shows the
- 538 conventional writing of the part of the title they had just written never saying that it is the
- 539 correct one and asks the children to confront both writings. Children had written "DU POCO"
- 540 and the correct writing should have been "DO PORCO"]
- 541 30. *Adult* - DO, is it the same as ours or is it different?
- 542 31. *Child 1* - It should be the O and not the U.
- 543 32. *Adult* - And why did we write U?
- 544 33. *Child 1* - It's wrong.
- 545 34. *Child 2* - It's wrong because U can only be read in a way [u] and O can be read in
- 546 ...
- 547 35. *Child 1* - The O can be read in two ways.
- 548 36. *Child 2* - It can be read in three ways: it is [o], [u] and [ô].

- 549 37. *Adult* - Very well! And now, in the word PORCO. What is there (points out to the
 550 correct writing) that is not here [points out to children's writing]?
- 551 38. *Child 1* - Let's see, let's see ...
- 552 39. *Adult* – What's this letter, before the C? [points to R]
- 553 40. *Child 2* - It's R.
- 554 41. *Adult* -PORRRCO. Do you hear the [r] that the R has? PORRRCO.
- 555 42. *Child 1* - Yes.
- 556 43. *Child 2* - But we do not say "poreco". It is called "porco".
- 557 44. *Adult* - Catarina, say PORCO. We say the sound [r] so fast we can barely hear it.
 558 What letter is written there that we didn't write here?
- 559 45. *Child 1* – It's the R.
- 560 46. *Adult* - It's R. The R has the sound [r].
- 561 47. *Child 1* – Does it?
- 562 48. *Child 2* - Yes, Diogo, it does.
- 563 49. *Child 1* - I thought it was the sound [R].
- 564 50. *Adult* – Ok, kids. Well done!

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