

Время выполнения задания – 180 мин., язык – русский.

Блок 1. «Работа с оригинальной статьей, описывающей эмпирическое исследование в области психологии и образовании»

Вам предложена статья:

Copping, L.T., Cramman, H., Gott, S., Gray, H., & Tymms, P. (2016). Name writing ability not length of name is predictive of future academic attainment. *Educational Research*, DOI: 10.1080/00131881.2016.1184948.

Прочитайте статью и ответьте на вопросы к ней на русском языке.

1. В выборке какой страны имена детей меньше отличаются друг от друга по длине?

- 1) Англия;
- 2) Шотландия;
- 3) Австралия.

2. Назовите основную причину более высокого среднего балла за задание по написанию имени (name writing) у детей из австралийской выборки в начале года. Выберите все подходящие варианты ответа.

- 1) В разных странах использовались разные тесты.
- 2) Дети в разных странах различались по возрасту.
- 3) Австралийский английский отличается от британского английского.
- 4) Австралийская выборка более этнически разнообразна, чем британская и шотландская.

3. Отметьте особенности дизайна исследования, которые выгодно отличают его от предыдущих исследований, описанных в литобзоре статьи. Выберите все подходящие варианты ответа.

- 1) Большой размер общей выборки.
- 2) Репрезентативность выборок всех стран.
- 3) Более надежные методы статистического анализа.
- 4) Более сложные методы статистического анализа.
- 5) Контроль социоэкономического индекса общей выборки.
- 6) Межстрановой характер исследования.

4. Умение ребенка написать свое имя является одним из первых навыков развития грамотности. Когда возникает этот навык? Выберите все подходящие варианты ответа.

- 1) В период овладения навыком распознавания чисел.
- 2) После овладения навыком распознавания чисел.
- 3) После изучения ребенком функции букв и слов.
- 4) Одновременно с изучением функции букв и слов.
- 5) До того, как ребенок знакомится с функциями букв и слов

5. Почему написание имени не может быть единственной мерой оценки уровня грамотности детей дошкольного возраста? Выберите все подходящие варианты ответа.

- 1) Умение написать свое имя не означает, что ребенок знает (и может распознать) буквы своего имени.
- 2) Между умением писать свое имя и знанием букв нет установленной корреляционной связи.
- 3) Механический навык написания имени не обязательно отражает концептуальное понимание аспектов грамотности.
- 4) Умение написать свое имя не означает, что ребенок знает звуки букв своего имени.

6. Напишите значение корреляции между длиной имени и баллом за написание имени для детей из страны с самой многочисленной выборкой при контроле возраста детей. Ответ запишите числом с точностью до сотых.

7. Анализ результатов детей из какой страны (или стран), задействованных в данном исследовании, вызывают у авторов статьи больше доверия и почему? Напишите название страны (стран) и кратко обоснуйте свой ответ.

8. В какой стране (Англии, Шотландии, Австралии) наблюдается наибольший разброс (вариация) оценки фонематической грамотности детей на конец первого года обучения? В ответе укажите страну и показатель разброса.

Пример:

_____ (напишите страну)
_____ (напишите показатель разброса)

9. Назовите главные ограничения данного исследования (не менее двух).

10. Что дает авторам основания утверждать, что они обосновали прогностическую валидность (predictive validity) задания на написание своего имени? Обоснуйте свой ответ.

Блок 2. «Работа с тезисами эмпирических исследований»

Вам предложены тезисы двух исследований. Пожалуйста, прочтите краткое описание каждого из исследований и дайте аргументированные ответы на приведенные ниже вопросы.

1. The length of school day

Many schools are looking for a way to improve their grades and test scores, for example, by lengthening the school day. The study of the Department of Education in Massachusetts, conducted in 2006-2007, found that increasing the school day by 25% in 18 schools around the state caused test scores to rise by 4.7-10.8 percentage points. However, an independent evaluation of District Columbia area's schools found that there were no statistically significant differences between schools with expanded schedules (30 minutes more) and those with conventional days. Why does the research on the issue look so ambiguous?

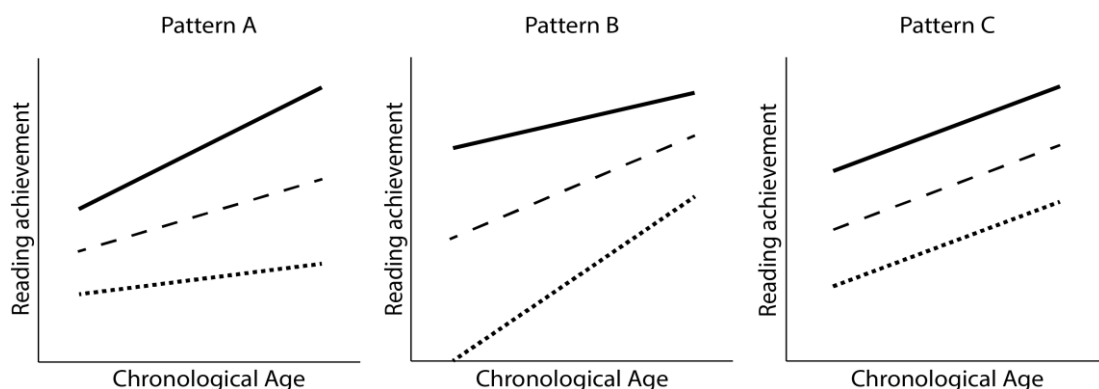
- 1) Приведите два убедительных аргумента, почему результаты двух исследований отличаются.
- 2) Как бы вы построили исследование по изучению эффекта удлинения школьного дня на образовательные результаты учащихся? Опишите дизайн вашего исследования.

2. 'Mathew effect'

In 1986, Stanovich described a widening achievement gap between children who read well and who read poorly. He developed the model of interindividual differences in reading which later became widely known as 'Mathew effect'. The core of his model is the assumption of increasing interindividual differences in reading literacy due to self-reinforcing reciprocal causal mechanisms that connect reading literacy to factors that foster reading literacy development. Better readers seem to be more motivated to read and hence read more. Free reading for these children is a major factor for the development of vocabulary; this in turn facilitates reading comprehension, and hence, as reading becomes more efficient, reading volume increases further. Or, in other words, an initial advantage in reading tends to beget further advantages, whereas an initial disadvantage begets further disadvantages, creating in the long run, a widening gap between those who initially read better and those who initially read worse.

1) Какой из графиков описывает «эффект Матфея»? Букву, соответствующую выбранному графику, обведите в кружок.

A B C



2) Какие факторы могут усилить «Эффект Матфея»? Назовите не менее трех факторов и обоснуйте свой ответ.

measurement of progress in England's Primary Schools (Standards and Testing Agency 2014). CEM's new assessment, known as BASE³, evolved from the PIPS Baseline assessment.

The PIPS Baseline assessment (Tymms 1999) covers early reading, phonological awareness and early mathematics. Optional sections on Personal, Social and Emotional Development and Behaviour can also be completed by the teacher based on their observations of the pupil. The schools also provide background information including gender, postcode and date of birth for each pupil. The questions in the assessment have been selected due to their performance as indicators of later attainment. Tymms (1999) sets out the extent to which the sub-sections predict reading and mathematics at age 7 years. The first item which a pupil is presented with in the PIPS Baseline assessment asks the pupil to write his or her name on a piece of paper and the quality of the writing is then scored by the assessor on a six-point scale. The name writing item correlated .52 with reading and .49 with maths in Year 2. Whilst this item appears to be a robust indicator of future academic performance, there is some debate regarding the utility of this measure, on the grounds that name length may constitute bias (discussed below). The name writing measure is not included in the new BASE assessment. This paper aims to investigate the validity of this item as an unbiased predictor within the PIPS Baseline assessment and in particular assess the degree to which name length constitutes bias.

Name writing and name length

Name writing is widely accepted as an early step on the path to literacy. The learning of the function of words and letters, may precede, run in parallel with or happen after the emergence of name writing, making it one of the first steps in literacy development (Bloodgood 1999). The writing of one's own name may start as a logographic event; the name is one unit with no recognition of letter values. The ability to write one's name has been shown to correlate substantively with alphabet knowledge, print knowledge, letter sound knowledge and phonological awareness (Blair and Savage 2006; Bloodgood 1999; Puranik, Lonigan, and Kim 2011; Welsch, Sullivan, and Justice 2003). Bloodgood has a seven-point scale whereas Puranik and Lonigan (2012) score name writing on a nine-point scale. For both the lowest score, 1 is for scribble, the mid-point in the scales show some letter formation whether it is related to the child's name or not and the highest score is for fluent and correct writing of the name.

The knowledge of letter names and sounds relating to a child's name was examined in children aged four and five in Australia and the USA (Treiman and Broderick 1998). They found a significant increase in the number of pupils able to name a letter when the letter presented to them was the initial letter of their first name rather than a randomly selected letter of the alphabet. There were non-significant differences in naming ability when subsequent letters in the children's names were tested. There were no significant differences between children in knowing the sound of letters where the letter appeared in their name or not. The authors argued that the difference in letter-name and letter-sound knowledge shows that the two are different processes, although it may simply be the case that children were told the names of letters more often than the sound they make. They concluded that names for children are not merely logographic entities but that children actively look for links between oral and written language, starting with the first letter of their name. The learning of the first letter acts as 'critical impetus for further growth in alphabet knowledge' (Treiman and Broderick 1998, p. 112).

Bloodgood (1999), investigated the relationship of name writing with literacy development amongst children aged three to six and a half in the USA. They reported that name writing ability is related to other literacy knowledge and that name production correlates with alphabet knowledge, the concept of word and word recognition in four- and five-year olds. More recent research also seems to indicate that more proficient name writers perform better at literacy tasks than less proficient writers (Puranik and Lonigan 2012; Welsch, Sullivan, and Justice 2003). Research also indicates that early spelling strategies may also be linked to knowledge of letters present in one's own name (Both-de Vries and Bus 2010). Meta-analytical studies confirm that spelling and name writing are weakly correlated (Lonigan, Schatschneider, and Westberg 2008).

Drouin and Harmon (2009) argued that name writing should not be used as a stand-alone measure of literacy levels. When examining name writing and letter knowledge in preschool children, they noted that whilst there was a relationship between the two, the ability to write their own name did not mean they could name the letters present within it. Similarly, Treiman and Broderick (1998) found that whilst name writing was correlated with letter sound knowledge, children did not necessarily know the sounds of letters in their own name. It is thus difficult to determine whether name writing proficiency reflects actual conceptual understanding of literacy facets or if it simply reflects mechanical, rote learning of the name, in whole or in part (Puranik and Lonigan 2011).

As noted above, it has been suggested that if name writing ability (and related literacy skills) in pre-schoolers reflected conceptual and phonological understanding of letters, those children with longer names may have an early advantage in emerging literacy development through exposure to more letters. Indeed, an early study by Treiman, Kessler, and Bourassa (2001) found that kindergarteners with longer names attempted to overuse letters present in their own name and used phonetically relevant letters less frequently when spelling words. The authors claimed that this spelling error strategy was not random and reflected exposure to a greater number of letters in children with longer names, who subsequently attempt to use them to spell other words. This explanation is corroborated to an extent by the results of Both-de Vries and Bus (2010).

In an empirical test attempting to clarify the importance of name writing, Puranik and Lonigan (2012) further investigated emergent literacy skills and name writing abilities. In two separate studies of pre-schoolers in the USA, length of name (operationalised as the number of unique letters present in the first name) was examined alongside several key measures of early literacy development. Results indicated that there were no significant differences on any measure of literacy development between children with longer and children with shorter name lengths. However, more proficient name writers significantly outperformed less proficient name writers on all literacy-based tasks. This demonstrated, with a modest sample in the USA, that whilst the ability to write one's name is a robust indicator of literacy, it was unrelated to the number of unique letters present therein and represented an indicator of early literacy ability in its own right.

The current study

One of the issues surrounding the above work is the relatively small sample size ($n = 170$) and geographical restrictions. Furthermore, the other literacy-related measures were collected concurrently. The advantages of the PIPS Baseline assessment are that its widespread

use has generated a very large amount of data for the variables of interest, whilst the use of the follow up assessments allow us to examine performance over time in three countries. Here, we also examine effects across different ethnic backgrounds and the measure of name writing ability was investigated in relation to later performance in reading (including vocabulary), phonological awareness and mathematics. The length of a pupil's name (both first and last) was included in analysis. The current research hypothesised that name writing scores would correlate positively with later outcomes of reading, phonological awareness and mathematics. Furthermore, it is hypothesised that the length of a pupil's name is independent of both name writing scores and future outcomes.

Method

Data were extracted from historic PIPS Baseline assessments between September 2011 and July 2013. During this time period, the assessment was delivered across England, Scotland and Australia. Analysis for each region was conducted separately to allow for minor differences in item content. The English and Scottish sets of data were sub-samples of larger data-sets chosen to be representative of two countries (Tymms et al. 2014).

Pupil age was recorded as age in months and days at the time of testing (*Age at Assessment*). Only pupils who completed both assessments (start and end of year) were included in the analysis. Additionally, ethnicity data existed for the English cohort. Whilst the data from England and Scotland are representative of the population, the Australian data were sampled opportunistically. See Table 1 for full sample characteristics.

The analysis also included controls for *Age at Assessment*. In the English data-set, a further control was also implemented by using the Income Deprivation Affecting Child Index (IDACI) score. The IDACI score is a national-level measure indexing the percentage of people in a given postal area classified by the government as impoverished (Noble et al. 2000).

For the purposes of the current study, the name writing scores are considered from the start of year data. Measures of reading, phonological awareness and mathematics are considered from the end of year data-set.

Measures from the PIPS Baseline (start of year) assessment

Name Length was measured as the count of the number of letters making up a pupil's recorded name (first name plus last name). Distributions of name length and further details about this variable are shown in Figure 1 and Tables 2 and 3.

Table 1. Sample characteristics, mean age^a distribution by ethnicity and country.

		All	Male	Female
		(N/Age ^a /SD)	(N/Age ^a /SD)	(N/Age ^a /SD)
Total sample		14,932/5.06/.48	7677/5.08/.46	7677/5.08/.49
England	All	3912/4.55/.30	2035/4.56/.30	1877/4.55/.30
	White	2975/4.55/.30	1539/4.55/.29	1436/4.55/.30
	Asian	587/4.56/.31	300/4.55/.31	287/4.56/.31
	Chinese	7/4.59/.22	4/4.61/.28	3/4.57/.19
	Black	73/4.56/.30	44/4.51/.31	29/4.63/.29
	Mixed	151/5.07/.30	81/4.56/.31	70/4.58/.29
	Other	25/4.56/.33	16/4.62/.32	9/4.46/.35
	Unclassified	94/4.62/.30	51/4.63/.31	43/4.61/.28
Scotland	All	6590/5.09/.34	3304/5.11/.35	3286/5.08/.32
Australia	All	4430/5.47/.35	2338/5.50/.36	2092/5.44/.35

^aAge of candidates at first assessment in years.

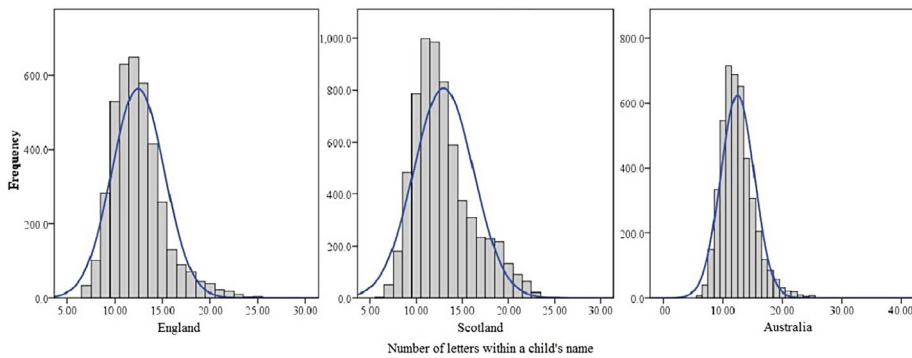


Figure 1. Distribution of name length by geographical location.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of name length and name writing by geographical location.

	England (N = 3912)	Scotland (N = 6590)	Australia (N = 4430)
Location	Mean/SD/Range	Mean/SD/Range	Mean/SD/Range
Length of name (letters)	12.44/2.77/7–29	12.96/3.25/6–29	12.46/2.83/6–36
Name writing score	1.96/1.28/0–5	2.79/1.37/0–5	3.27/1.12/0–5

Name Writing Score was captured by pupils writing their names on a piece of paper. The teacher scored the quality of each pupil's attempt at name writing on a six-point scale (0–5), based on a series of visual examples and written descriptions.

Measures from the PIPS Baseline (end of year) assessment

The assessment is carried out on a one-to-one basis between a pupil and teacher and contains a number of sequences with stopping rules. Each overall measure (*Reading, Phonological Awareness* and *Mathematics*) is based on scores achieved in these sequences.

Table 3. Cross tabulation of name length (letters) with name writing (score).

Name length (letters)	Name writing score					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
5	0	0	0	0	1	0
6	1	1	1	6	8	4
7	8	17	17	34	57	12
8	41	73	63	117	156	59
9	82	180	194	342	391	97
10	147	344	368	569	601	167
11	205	406	455	723	756	207
12	210	467	432	681	757	184
13	172	400	445	596	639	146
14	138	295	314	429	419	110
15	85	183	204	293	257	72
16	58	124	128	204	214	30
17	32	75	115	131	138	26
18	37	59	73	127	126	25
19	27	63	62	80	95	25
20	16	39	46	56	61	13
21	9	31	27	40	37	12
22	15	14	12	38	30	7
≥23	9	18	22	23	32	4

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for all measures (end of year).

	England (N = 3912)	Scotland (N = 6590)	Australia (N = 4430)
	Mean/SD/Range	Mean/SD/Range	Mean/SD/Range
Reading	98.66/39.54/4–188	115.86/39.13/7–188	126.29/39.01/4–193
Phonological awareness	14.60/3.46/0–17	15.52/2.75/0–17	24.07/5.17/0–28
Mathematics	43.15/9.81/0–68	48.41/8.77/6–69	55.01/9.11/7–74

Reading was measured using questions on picture vocabulary, ideas about reading, letter identification, word recognition and reading stories.

Phonological Awareness was measured in two ways. Pupils were asked to repeat unfamiliar or nonsense words of increasing length. Scores were awarded based on their success in repetition. Pupils were also assessed via a rhyming paradigm. Pupils are presented with an image of an object, e.g. *cherries*, and are instructed to select the picture that rhymes with the target from one of four potential images, e.g. *berries*.

Mathematics was measured using questions on ideas about maths, counting, simple sums, number recognition, shapes, number manipulation and formal sums.

These end of year measures are summarised in Table 4.

The analyses

Analysis of correlations was conducted to examine the relationship between *Name Length* and *Name Writing Score*, *Reading*, *Phonological Awareness* and *Mathematics* (Table 5).

As indicated in Table 5, all correlations between *Length of Name* and other measures were less than .1 and, from an educational point of view effectively zero (significant effects only due to the size of the samples). Sex-specific correlations were broadly similar across all measures. This indicates that *Length of Name* is substantively unrelated to *Name Writing*, *Reading*, *Phonological Awareness* or *Mathematics*. By contrast, *Name Writing* significantly and substantively predicts performance across all assessment domains.

Figure 2 illustrates the cumulative percentage scores of pupils scoring 1–5 on the *Name Writing* measure stratified by *Name Length*, including 95% confidence intervals. While the

Table 5. Correlations between name writing score and name length with later measures scored by sex and region.

	England (M/F in parentheses) N = 3912		Scotland (M/F in parentheses) N = 6590		Australia (M/F in parentheses) N = 4430	
	Name writing	Length of name	Name writing	Length of name	Name writing	Length of name
Name writing	–	–.05* (–.06*/.06*)	–	–.03* (–.02/–.06*)	–	–.07** (–.09**/–.07*)
Reading	.46** (.42**/.48**)	.01 (.03/–.02)	.45** (.42**/.46**)	.00 (.02/–.03)	.31** (.33**/.27**)	–.03 (–.01/–.05*)
Phonological awareness	.33** (.29**/.35**)	.03 (.03/.01)	.31** (.29**/.32**)	.00 (.03/–.05*)	.25** (.26**/.22**)	–.02 (–.01/–.04)
Mathematics	.42** (.42**/.44**)	.01 (.01/.01)	.40** (.41**/.43**)	–.01 (.02/–.03)	.34** (.32**/.41**)	–.05* (–.02/–.07**)

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .001$.

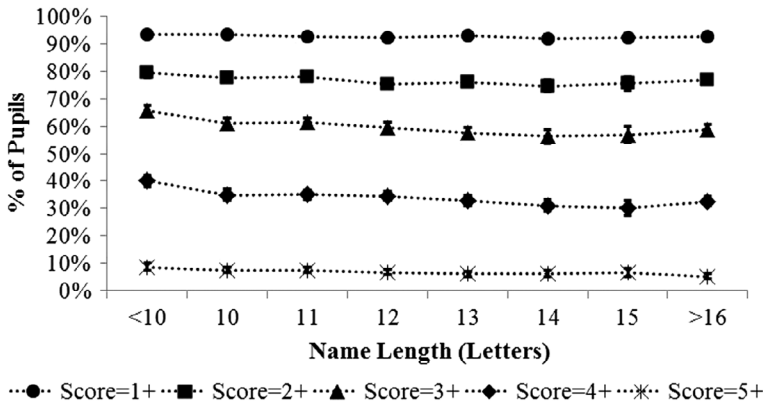


Figure 2. Percentage of pupils achieving each name writing score or above (with 95% confidence intervals⁴).

differences between each *Name Length* within each scoring bracket are small, children with a name of less than 10 letters are slightly more likely (about 5%) to score a three or above and four or above on *Name Writing* scores. The effect size of having a *Name Length* of less than 10 is small ($d = .12$).

Table 6 illustrates the same relationships controlling for *Age at Assessment* (and in the English data-set, socioeconomic status indexed by *IDACI* scores).

As shown in Table 6, when controlling for *Age at Assessment* and *IDACI* score, the relationships between *Length of Name*, *Name Writing*, *Reading*, *Phonological Awareness* and *Mathematics* are very similar to previous analysis (Table 5).

Table 7 shows the correlations and partial correlations (controlling for *Age at Assessment* and *IDACI*) between earlier *Length of Name* and *Name Writing* score performance on later, *Reading*, *Phonological Awareness* and *Mathematics* scores by ethnic group. This analysis was possible only for the English data-set.

A similar pattern of very weak correlations is evident across all ethnic groups; White British pupils demonstrating significant results only through a large sample size. Chinese pupils

Table 6. Age controlled (and *IDACI* controlled in England) correlations between name writing score and name length with later measures scores by sex and region.

	England (M/F in parentheses) N = 3912		Scotland (M/F in parentheses) N = 6590		Australia (M/F in parentheses) N = 4430	
	Name writing	Length of name	Name writing	Length of name	Name writing	Length of name
Name writing	-	-.05* (-.07*/-.06*)	-	-.04* (-.02/-08**)	-	-.07** (-.09**/-07*)
Reading	.41** (.38**/.42**)	.01 (.02/-.02)	.44** (.41**/.45**)	.01 (.01/-.04*)	.31** (.33**/.27**)	-.03 (-.01/-05*)
Phonological awareness	.28** (.24**/.29**)	.03 (.03/.02)	.30** (.29**/.31**)	.00 (.03/-05*)	.25** (.26**/.22**)	-.02 (-.01/-04)
Mathematics	.36** (.37**/.37**)	.01 (.00/.01)	.38** (.40**/.41**)	-.01 (.01/-03)	.33** (.32**/.41**)	-.05* (-.03/-07**)

* $p < .05$.
** $p < .001$.

Table 7. Correlations for England between name writing score, reading, mathematics and name length by ethnic group (age and IDACI-controlled partial correlations in parenthesis).

	Name length					
	White N = 2975	Asian N = 587	Chinese N < 10	Black N = 73	Mixed N = 151	Other N = 25
Name writing	-.06** (-.07)	-.01 (-.03)	-	-.04 (-.01)	.10 (.15)	-.18 (-.17)
Reading	-.02 (-.01)	.09* (.07)	-	.14 (.18)	.02 (.06)	.01 (.20)
Phonological awareness	.00 (.00)	.04 (.03)	-	.17 (.20)	.11 (.13)	.05 (.10)
Maths	-.01 (-.01)	.05 (.02)	-	.20 (.23)	.05 (.09)	-.12 (.01)

* $p < .05$.** $p < .001$.

were excluded due to low sample size ($n < 10$). Sex specific correlations were not reported to keep sample sizes adequate for analysis.

Discussion

The ability of a pupil to write their name evidently shows good correlations with performance in *Reading*, *Phonological Awareness* and *Mathematics* one year later. The results demonstrate clearly that the relationship between the number of letters present in a name and the ability to write a name is effectively zero. Children with longer or shorter names do not demonstrate superior abilities in name writing. Furthermore, the length of the name clearly is negligibly linked to measures of reading ability and phonological awareness and mathematics scores one year later.

This indicates that the ability to write one's name, not the length of the name is a robust predictor of emergent literacy development in young children, supporting the works of Puranik and Lonigan (2012). Name writing is thus a good measure of early literacy proficiency and future academic potential in its own right and would not bias results in favour of pupils with longer or shorter names. Our analysis does not support the view that longer names might confer an advantage. Whilst it may well be that children use letters from their name as part of spelling strategies as found by previous authors (Both-de Vries and Bus 2008; Treiman, Kessler, and Bourassa 2001), the use of these strategies does not appear to impact on reading, mathematics or phonological awareness.

These effects were robust over three countries and (where applicable) were independent of age, sex, socio-economic deprivation and ethnicity, in very large samples of young children. Unlike earlier empirical work in this area (Puranik and Lonigan 2012; Treiman, Kessler, and Bourassa 2001), our study contributes to the current corpus of literature by extending these research to very large and representative samples of young children outside of the USA.

Whilst these results are supportive of previous findings, the underlying processes behind name writing ability remain unclear. If name writing reflects true conceptual understanding of letter knowledge, we would expect children with longer names (who have greater exposure to more letters) to have a distinct advantage in literacy tasks. Similarly, we would have expected the same effects with measures of phonological awareness. Neither appears to be

the case however, despite the fact that name writing, reading and phonological awareness are all correlated. Interestingly, however, the correlation between name writing and mathematics is similar to the relationship between name writing, reading and phonological awareness. It may be the case that name writing proficiency is reflective of greater cognitive development generally rather than literacy alone.

Limitations, implications and avenues for further research

As reported earlier, children are often most interested in the letters present in their forename (Puranik and Lonigan 2012). In this study, we used the number of letters present in their whole name (forename and surname). Whilst we report the absence of a predictive relationship between the number of letters present in the whole name, reading, phonological awareness, mathematics and name writing, a note of caution should be attached to the interpretation of these relationships. Future research using forename only may reveal a different pattern of results.

Whilst correlations between reading, phonological awareness, mathematics and name writing in this study are broadly similar between England and Scotland, these same relationships tend to be weaker in the Australian sample. It may also be that, whilst the English sample and Scottish samples were examined in relation to other national data-sets and were representative of the population generally, we cannot be sure of how representative the Australian sample is.

Whilst this data-set did include data regarding ethnicity and socio-economic circumstances, this was only the case in England. Although these important variables appear to have had no effect on the strengths of the relationships reported in the analysis, extensions of this investigation could be considered in other regions to aid in establishing how robust these effects are. Furthermore, the English sample was predominantly White/British in classification and several of the minorities examined in this study had comparatively small sample sizes. This could be remedied in future work.

Notes

1. Created by Peter Tymms and developed with Christine Merrell.
2. The UK's Department for Education is responsible for education in England.
3. Created by Christine Merrell.
4. Small compared with the score icons and often not visible on figure.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

ORCID

Lee T. Copping  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3252-0353>

Helen Cramman  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8684-4882>

Peter Tymms  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7170-2566>

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