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A Mixed-Methods Study on the Relationship Between Corrective Reading Interventions
and Student Achievement in an Urban Middle School

After-School Program

by

Emma Campbell-Cornelius

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Education

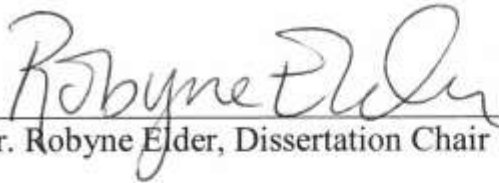
School of Education

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This dissertation has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
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at Lindenwood University by the School of Education



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Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

Full Legal Name: Emma Jean Campbell-Cornelius

Signature:  Date: 2-23-18

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Abstract

The researcher investigated the corrective reading interventions implemented in an urban middle school's after-school program to determine if the interventions were helping students perform better in English Language Arts (ELA) classes and improved their overall achievement on the Northwest Evaluation Assessment (NWEA). The researcher also investigated teacher perceptions of professional development hours and student achievement in ELA. This study primarily focused on students in fifth-eighth grade, due to the low academic performance in ELA scores at the middle school. The purpose of this study was to determine if students in middle school would perform better if they received additional supports with reading interventions at the middle school during the after-school program between the hours of 3p.m. and 6 p.m.

A mixed methods study was conducted to determine if a relationship existed between teacher perception and student reading achievement for 73 middle school students in grades three through five. The researcher evaluated the teachers' perception pre- and post-survey data and student pre- and post-NWEA data. The researcher also examined the number of hours that teachers participated in professional development, and if a relationship existed, the researcher could make a research-based recommendation to the district to continue to provide professional development to strengthen teachers' instructional practices and improve student achievement. The researcher finally examined student pre- and post-NWEA data to determine if there was a difference. The study revealed that there was not a relationship; therefore, findings could possibly help the school district administrators make future decisions for professional development and interventions for students in the after-school program for grades five through eight.

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Chapter One: Introduction

This mixed-methods study was designed to investigate a possible relationship between corrective reading interventions and student reading achievement in an urban public middle school after-school program, 21st Century Community Learning Centers (CCLC). In addition, the study explored teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions and examined whether corrective reading was related to the student's reading achievement, as measured by Northwest Evaluation Association (NWEA) assessments. The study focused on fifth through eighth grade students in a middle school in a public urban school setting.

Struggling students lagged behind their peers for several years and the Anytown school district was plagued with finding immediate solutions to assist with improving student performance. The 21st CCLC program was implemented to bridge the gap between low underperforming students who were eligible for free-and-reduced-price lunch and attended schools that performed below-grade-level on state academic assessments. According to the Illinois Interactive Report Card (IIRC, 2014), the majority of students were unable to prove academic proficiency on state achievement tests. The 21st CCLC grant was written to strengthen academic enrichment services for students in five designated schools. Due to previous school closures, the five schools met all requirements for the district to write for the competitive 21st CCLC grant. Students were strategically placed at these schools creating a definite need for after-school programming; however, the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE, 2014) takeover and new leadership ignited a new hope for the community, demonstrated in the

unprecedented participation in the needs process and the enthusiasm for change exhibited by participants.

Anytown (a pseudonym) was once a major industrial city, but the loss of the city's manufacturing jobs resulted in the steady decline of residents. The population was approximately 27,000 residents (from 82,000 in 1950) and the vast majority was African-American (97%) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014, para. 7). According to the most recent American Community School District Survey Data (2012), the city's unemployment rate was 18.6%, and 41% of adults had less than a high school diploma. A large proportion of residents (43.5%) lived below the poverty line, and this figure increased to a staggering 61% for children under 18 (American Community School District Survey Data [ACSDSS], 2012, p. 3). The city's median income in 2012 was \$21,171, and 23% of families earned less than \$10,000 per year (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014, para. 7).

Background

The new superintendent of Anytown School District (a pseudonym) was faced with a declining community resource base, a declining city population base, declining student population, and a budget deficit of approximately 12 million dollars. The district drastically reduced staffing in March 2012 and closed five of the 10 elementary schools in June 2012, due to the declining student population. A needs assessment process occurred in spring 2012 and finalized in August with the reconstitution of the district and redrawing of school boundaries. The Anytown School District enrolled approximately 6,000 students across five elementary schools, two middle schools, one high school, and one charter school operated in the district with approximately 115 students (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 1). The students in Anytown were nearly all low income (92% eligible for

free/reduced lunch) and African-American students (98.8%) (ACSDSS, 2012).

Approximately 13% were eligible for special education services. The district's mobility rate was 23%, compared to 13% statewide. More than 500 students in the district were homeless (ACSDSS, 2012).

Escalations in crime in Anytown made this town considered as the leading crime center in the United States, as reported by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI, 2014). Crime rates in the community increased in proportion to decreased job opportunities and increased poverty rates. According to statistics from the FBI (2014) uniform crime reports, Anytown was the most dangerous city in the United States. One out of 20 people in Anytown was a victim of violent crime on average, and the town had one of the highest murder rates in the nation, irrespective of size and population (Anytown Crime Rates and Statistics, 2000). Disruptive behavior, crime, and delinquency began in elementary and secondary schools for many students in Anytown and carried over into adulthood.

The overwhelming social and economic problems in the community had profoundly negative impacts on the academic development of Anytown youth. The district consistently failed to meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) goals and was then-currently in Year 7 of Federal and State School Improvement status (Illinois Interactive Report Card [IIRC], 2014, p. 2). In 2013, the first year that Illinois raised the performance cut scores on all state assessments in reading and mathematics to align with college and career ready expectations – only 18% of Anytown District 123 students in grades 3 through 8 met or exceeded state learning standards in reading and mathematics, compared to 53.3% statewide (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 1). According to Anytown SD

123 (n.d.) data, only 65% of District 123 high school students graduated after four years in 2013, compared to 83% statewide (p. 1). Two thirds of the student body (66%) was chronically absent in the 2012-2013 school year, compared to 10% statewide (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 3). Anytown was once a thriving city where students were receiving a quality education prepared them to be competitive in their future careers. However, when the district took a spiral downward and schools were consistently not meeting AYP, the district took action to turn things around.

To identify and address longstanding problems in the community, a diverse group of longtime residents and community institutions in the greater Anytown area (including representatives from District 123, non-profit and faith-based groups, government entities, institutions of higher education, community-based organizations, and funders) joined together to form the Anytown Collective Impact for Children and Youth (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 2). Using the Ready by 21 collective impact approaches for community reform, the partners engaged in a comprehensive needs assessment and asset mapping study in 2013 that included extensive examination of data regarding youth outcomes and available services across a range of indicators (e.g., academics, physical health and safety, social and emotional health, etc.). Youth from the community were also engaged in the process through the needs assessment and asset mapping activities. The asset mapping helped to assess the strengths and resources available and worked with the community to provide solutions. The collective impact process identified a strong need in the community for increased access to, and availability of, out-of-school opportunities (particularly those that offered academic supports, physical health and safety activities, and supported social and emotional health); career awareness and vocational

development with elementary through high school populations; and youth civic and community engagement opportunities (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 4)

Stakeholders voiced concerns about the gaps in then-current after-school programming, the high incidence of academic failure, and limited coordination between school district programs and others led by community or faith-based organizations (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 2). According to Illinois Quality Afterschool Project (IQAP) (2014), input from the District 123 key stakeholders determined the vision for this proposal: Anytown G.O.A.L.S. (Giving Our Achievers Lifelong Success) 21st Century Community Learning Center(s) (CCLC) (Illinois Quality Afterschool Project [IQAP], 2014). The visioning process included 55 face-to-face meeting opportunities located at the schools and various community locations for a total of six months with 1,810 participants. After reviewing the data from the assessment process, the G.O.A.L.S. 21st CCLC planning team, consisting of district staff and community partners, chose to keep the collective vision of the previous program's acronym, G.O.A.L.S, due to its strong goal-orientation, (i.e., high standards of academic performance in lifelong sustaining pursuits, and involvement of community partners working together to make the program successful) (IQAP, 2014).

District Demographics

The 21st CCLC after-school program targeted 60 students at each of the schools to participate in the after-school program. The schools were meeting AYP according to the state assessment, Illinois Standards Achievement Test, for several years. The achievement scores indicated 65.8% of third grade students, 72.5% of fifth grade students, 62% of eighth grade students, and only 14% of 11th grade students met state

standards in reading on the Illinois standardized testing in 2011(see Table 1). The data showed that students at the elementary and middle schools performed better on ISAT than students at the high school. The student mobility rate at one middle school was as low as 10.8% and the elementary and high schools averaged 19% (see Table 1). One middle school had an alarmingly high student mobility rate of 26%. The student scores for the ISAT mathematics assessment showed the elementary schools performed between 91.3% and 78.6% for third graders through 50.7 % and 55.7% for fifth graders (see Table 1). The scores for the middle school were more closely connected with scores ranging from 51.4% for sixth graders through 65.9% for eighth graders, while at the other middle school scores ranged from 73% for sixth graders through 70.5% for eighth graders.

The students at one of the middle schools were making gradual progress, while the students at the other school started with high scores; but, the scores continued to drop each year. The students at the high school only had 10.1% of students to meet expectations. As can be seen from this data, students at the elementary performed well; but, as they matriculated through school, the scores dropped drastically. The goal of the 21st CCLC program was to provide tutoring supports after-school to help those students that were failing stay in schools and be competitive beyond high school (see Table 1 for school profiles) (IIRC, 2012).

The district lacked resources to provide equitable services in English Language Arts, i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking for all students without the assistance of funds from the 21st CCLC grant. As shared by the Alliance for Excellent Education (2010), the district created a plan to address the gaps, barriers, and weaknesses related to the deficient areas identified in the Gap Analysis (see Table 2).

Table 1

School District Data 2011-2012

Elem 1st – 5th 2011 ISBE School Report Card data	Enrollment for 09/12	% of Low Income	Mobility %	Attendance Rate	ISAT Reading 3rd Grade	ISBE Identification Status 2010- 2011	ISAT Math 3rd Grade	ISAT Reading 4th Grade	ISAT Math 4th Grade	ISAT Reading 5th Gr.	ISAT Math 5th Grade	Targeted # of students and families*
Anytown Elem 1	53	97.7	18.8	93.3	65.2	Restru cturing	91.3	77.3	97.0	50.7	69	60/60
	7											
Anytown Elem 2	51	99	18.6	91.9	78.6	Restru cturing	78.6	42.2	85.6	55.7	67.1	60/60
	9											
Middle School 6th – 8th 2011 ISBE School Report Card data	Enrollment for 09/12	% of Low Income	Mobility %	Attendance Rate	ISAT Reading 6th Grade	ISBE Identification Status 2010- 2011	ISAT Math 6th Gr.	ISAT Reading 7th Grade	ISAT Math 7th Grade	ISAT Reading 8th Grade	ISAT Math 8th Grade	Targeted # of students and families*

Anytown MS 1	73	99.1	26.0	92.5	62.9	Restru cturing	51.4	60.2	76.2	65.9	67.6	60/60
	0											
Anytown MS 2	70	99.5	10.8	91.4	73.0	Restru cturing	73.0	67.7	77.5	70.5	68.9	60/60
	5											
High School 9th- 12th 2011 ISBE School Report Card data	Enrollment for 09/12	% of Low Income	Mobility %	Attendance Rate	Math	ISBE Identification Status 2010- 2011	Reading	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Targeted # of students and families*
Anytown Sr. High	1,401	97.8	19.6	86.0	10.1	Restru cturing	14.2	-	-	-	-	60/60

Note. ***Families:** According to the limited 2010 census data, Anytown has 11,178 households out of which 33.2% have children under the age of 18 living with them; 21.9% are married couples living together, 40.6% have a female household with no husband present, and 31.4% are non-family households. The median age is 31 years and 50% of the population lives below the poverty line. (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

The 21st CCLC grant was implemented to provide additional supports that would allow students to receive extra services that were not available during the regular school day. In turn, the district provided more support for students in academic enrichment, improvement and remediation, and activities that targeted truant, expelled, or suspended students, through the funds from 21st CCLC grant (see Table 2). The funds were also utilized to provide summer school, drug and violence prevention programs, and recreational sports that were only offered for district sports teams during the regular school day. Another service that was only available during the regular day was technology enrichment activities, but the district was able to expand it as well, with the use of the additional funds from the 21st CCLC grant.

Table 2

Gaps, Barriers, or Weaknesses Related to the Lack of Resources for Students

Resources	Current Available Support	Identified Gaps
Academic Enrichment and Learning	Title I and few CBO's provided limited academic enrichment	Limited activities to expand student's learning in ways that differed from the methods used during the school day existed. NO STEM opportunities.
Summer School and Academic Programming	Limited programming	Most at-risk students not served. NO STEM opportunities.
Drug and Violence Prevention, Counseling, and Character Education	Limited speakers/presenters	No scientifically research-based violence or substance abuse programs were in place.
After School Recreation/Sports	District sports	Participation limited to school team (basketball, baseball, volleyball, & football).

Table 2. Continued

Technology and Enrichment Activities	Currently activities were limited to school day	Due to funding limitations, no after school or summer technology activities were offered. NO STEM opportunities.
Summer Recreation	A few organizations offered opportunities	Recreation is limited to students with transportation. NO STEM Opportunities.
Parent Education	District and ADI provide a few opportunities	No coordination of system delivery existed within the school community.
Professional Development	ISBE, ROE, and district offer limited resources.	Funding was a barrier to providing opportunities for broad participation to all teachers.
English Language Learners	District was meeting needs of the few students	Not a need at this time.
Academic Improvement and Remediation	Supplemental service providers were limited.	Activities which specifically targeted students whose academic performance needed improvement were weak.
Activities that targeted truant, expelled, or suspended students	Very few activities were available	Reengaging students in educational services through counseling and supports were insufficient and limited in scope.

Table 2. Continued.

Arts Education	Available only at middle and high schools	Creative expression and knowledge through a variety of media (visual arts, dance, music, and theater arts) were nonexistent in K-5.
Career on Job Training	Available only at the high school	Activities aimed at development of a defined skill set that were transferable were inadequate.
Community Services and Services Learning	District programs provided limited opportunities	Structured opportunities to link service learning tasks to the acquisitions of values, skills, or knowledge were not consistent.
Mentoring	A few mentoring organizations partnered with District	Efforts were minimal in collection of data and were not known if the cultivation of core ethical values were impacted.
Recreational (time to relax or play)	Very few activities existed	Limited to a few sports, games, and clubs that promoted social skills and teamwork.
Tutoring and homework help	Some organizations offered limited assistance	Very few opportunities existed to provide direct assistance with classroom work after school.

Note. Adapted from Anytown School District 123 (n.d.). Table created from information on the website.

Summer recreational activities were non-existent due to the lack of transportation. However, with the additional funds, door-to-door transportation was provided. Parent education and community services and service learning opportunities were limited due to the lack of continuity across the district. With the aid of additional funding, a co-partner

was hired to coordinate all programs and provide monthly meetings, for consistency for parents and community partnerships. Arts in education were non-existent for students in grades K through 5. Mentoring and homework help were minimal, and few opportunities existed to provide district assistance. Funding for professional development was also a barrier; career and on the job training was limited to high school students only, and free recreational time was reserved for students who participated in a few clubs. A comprehensive plan for staff development also implemented a combination of onsite workshops and online training. The professional development aimed at addressing the gaps in learning to assist teachers to work with urban children. Table 2 summarizes resources, supports and service gaps that provided students in the district schools extra support from the 21st CCLC after-school program.

Activities and Services to Address the Needs Assessment

Despite the challenges in the district due to the lack of resources to close the gaps, as well as barriers and weaknesses due to the limited funding and opportunities to offer programs without the additional funding from the 21st CCLC program, the district took steps to improve its capacity to educate the students. The district reviewed the data from the needs assessment and implemented goals and timelines to address the needs.

Anytown District 123 adopted seven goals and provided the support to implement them. G.O.A.L.S. utilized a curriculum that exposed students to an ‘informal’ environment rich in language and print geared toward improving their reading and mathematics abilities (National Reading Panel, 2000). Schedules varied among the sites; however, the core academics subjects were reviewed for at least one hour each day, four days per week, in the regular after-school program and summer sessions. The use of different

comprehensive techniques made learning fun and built student confidence and self-esteem while vastly improving student academic performance (Illinois State Board of Education [ISBE], 2014).

Each site operated group-reading centers according to the ages and developmental abilities of its students. Parents assisted with group reading centers. In addition, students were also provided activity suggestions and educational resources that helped reinforce the subjects at home that were taught in both the regular classes and the after-school program (Epstein, 2001; Fan & Chen, 1999; Patrikakou, Weissber, Redding, & Walberg, 2005). In order to promote team camaraderie, two field trips were planned each year that correlated with the academic topics of the regular classroom and the learning center. The school day and after-school teachers planned these trips with input from parents, students, and the site coordinator. Parents were invited to attend so that they could assist students with follow up field trips reports, and more importantly create and build a bridge between the school setting/activities and parents of high-risk youth. Educational destinations included the local library, museums, science center, caverns, and other educationally stimulating environments students had never visited.

According to data from the needs assessment, the community wanted students to be more aware and actively involved in community events. To address that need, students engaged in activities that helped them to better appreciate their environment and discovered feelings of self-worth by serving their community or other individuals (Newman & Rutter, 1983). Each child participated in at least two community service projects annually and parents were involved. Parents and volunteers chaperoned field trips and assisted students with community service projects to display what they learned.

These activities raised awareness and fostered a cohesive relationship between the students and the community.

Schedule

Each site incorporated a weekly schedule to provide group/individual age and developmental activities of its students. Staff and volunteers from the community worked with students weekly to emphasize the importance of pleasure reading, improved reading, and writing skills, and helped to increase decoding and reading comprehension skills through the corrective reading interventions in the after-school program. The 21st CCLC program created a rigorous schedule to address the gaps and weaknesses that were missing during the regular school day that would implement the G.O.A.L.S. activities (see Table 3).

Table 3

Daily Schedule for After-School Program

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday
3:15 – 3:30	Nutrition	Nutrition	Nutrition	Nutrition
3:30 – 4:30	Corrective Reading/Math	Corrective Reading/Math	Corrective Reading/Math	Corrective Reading/Math
4:30 – 5:30	Art/Dance	STEM Lab	Art/Drama	STEM
5:35 – 6:15	Recreation	Fitness	Recreation	Fitness

Note. Adapted from Illinois Quality Afterschool, 2014. Table created from information on the website.

The G.O.A.L.S. Afterschool Program was held for a minimum of 28 weeks (September through May) for four days per week (Monday through Thursday), at least three hours per day (during parents’ typical working hours); the schools also offered at least one Saturday program per month for field trips and/or celebratory activities. In addition, the summer program was held for one week, 3 hours daily on Monday through

Thursday. Students participated in two enrichment/recreational activities per day (unless the activity required more than 30 minutes of participation). See Table 3 for the after-school program's daily schedule.

21st CCLC Curriculum

Anytown District 123 implemented a rigorous 21st-century curriculum driven by the Illinois State Learning Standards, aligned to support early learning through college or trade school and on to the workforce (Anytown SD 123, n.d., p. 1). For grades 2 through 8, the materials followed the guidelines for an English Arts program aligned to the Common Core State Standards, and included the recommended balance of decoding and comprehension, as outlined in the Corrective Reading Interventions curriculum (ISBE, n.d., p. 3). Students were allowed ample practice to ensure they learned and grew as lifelong readers and writers. According to the ISBE (2012), the mathematics programs, that also included instructional planner that aligned instruction to the Common Core State Standards, ensured that students achieved on-level mathematical proficiency by targeting key understandings identified in the Common Core State Standards. In grades 6 through 12, college and career readiness was advanced to the next level by implementing an online College and Career Readiness (CCR) program (ISBE, n.d., p. 2). The CCR program included truly differentiated instruction and an array of research-based, pedagogically sound materials with modules on topics, such as: writing and research; soft skills (interpersonal, workplace, and communication skills); 21st Century skills, such as lateral and critical thinking, and problem-solving; study skills and test preparation self-management, time management, and self-motivation; and personal and academic ethics.

Students took a diagnostic assessment to determine the recommended scope and sequence based on the student’s then-current postsecondary plans and needs.

In addition to the assessment to differentiate the program for each student’s needs, the program also included innovative activities to target the gaps, weaknesses, and barriers from the needs assessment. The top eight choices were ranked and the highest rankings were implemented in the after-school program (see Table 4). For instance, arts, drama and dance were ranked in the top eight, averaging 75.2% of the scores that participants wanted to see included in the after-school program. Homework help and computer lab averaged 54.4%. Field trips alone ranked the highest with 58%, and cooking ranked the second highest with 40%. These activities were included in the after-school program to support student learning, decrease dropout rates, increase high school graduation rates, and increase college awareness (ISBE, 2014).

Table 4.

21st Century Visioning Survey Data 2012

Kinds of activities to offer Top 8 results out of 24 items	Elem students	6 th – 8 th grade students	9 th grade students	9 th grade students	10 th – 11 th grade students	AVG
	Arts and Crafts	30%	13%	11%	17%	47%
Computer Lab	45%	27%	14%	11%	66%	32.6%
Cooking	38%	31%	34%	37%	60%	40%
Dance	30%	18%	33%	28%	53%	32.4%
Drama	13%	19%	24%	13%	27%	19.2%
Field Trips	43%	51%	58%	58%	80%	58%
Homework Help	19%	8%	15%	20%	47%	21.8%
Martial Arts	25%	18%	14%	19%	27%	20.6%
Total Surveys collected n= 1,273	n=653	n = 69	n = 179	n = 372	n = 15	

Research-Based Practices

Program staff selected innovative, scientifically-based research materials (see Table 5) and activities to support, expand, and reinforce classroom instruction in the after-school program. In addition to the curriculum assessments used to differentiate the program for each child’s needs, the 21st CCLC program also included innovative resources that aimed to decrease dropout rates, increase high school graduation rates, and increased college enrollment (see Table 5, research-based practices). Students completed projects and three-dimensional graphic organizers as assessment or study tools to aid them in mathematics (see Table 5, Anytown implementation plan). Mathematics was more meaningful when it connected to real world problems. Students also experimented in virtual, online, and interactive learning labs with hands-on science activities that challenged them to explore and investigate science related careers. In addition, students utilized College and Career Readiness online modules to build self-confidence, study skills, and college and career readiness with science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (see Table 5).

Table 5

Resources to Improve STEM Lessons

Research-Based Practices	Anytown 21st CCLC Implementation
A K-6 curriculum that added on this intuitive and concrete foundation children already had, helped them gain an understanding of the abstract and more rapidly.	Students completed projects and three-dimensional graphic organizers that were used as assessment or study tools. Real-World problems were addressed using graphic novels covering mathematics.
Student engagement increased with perceived relevance of the activities and subject matter.	College & Career Readiness online program used comprehensive modules.
Teachers provide excellent instruction, were the key factors in the success of any program.	Teachers differentiated instruction at all grade levels by ongoing professional development opportunities that prepared teachers to carry out STEM labs.

Note. Adapted from Anytown School District 123 (n.d.). Table created from information on the website.

In addition to the after-school program, offering resources to improve STEM Lessons, the 21st CCLC program also provided activities that measured student performance. Each of the seven performance measures and goals (described in Table 6) outlined how the G.O.A.L.S. were implemented and measured. The seven G.O.A.L.S. were implemented to monitor the effectiveness of instruction through on-going monitoring and internal assessment (see Table 6). Goal 1: student achievement in reading and improved mathematics through monitoring classroom teacher instruction and providing feedback (IQAP, 2014). Goal 2: increased student attendance and graduation from high school improved through more adult interaction and engagement (IQAP, 2014). Goal 3: increased social and emotional skills were addressed through allowing student's choice to select which classes and group they wanted to participate with. In addition, they learned to solve real-world situations (IQAP, 2014). Goal 4: program collaborated with the community by providing ongoing family engagement and supports through the community partner for the grant (IQAP, 2014). Goal 5: program coordinated with the schools to determine the students and families with the greatest need (IQAP, 2014). Goal 6: program provided on-going professional development through digital resources that enhanced or reinforced classroom learning (IQAP, 2014). Goal 7: program collaborated with schools to provide sustainable programs through leveraging funds after the 21st CCLC grant ended (IQAP, 2014).

Table 6

Program Goals

Performance Measures	How Programming will Meet the Goals
1. Schools improved achievement in core academic areas.	Using current student achievement in reading and math setting attainable targets for each & planning broad instruction on-going monitoring and adjustment of activities as necessary on-going communication with classroom teachers.
2. Schools showed an increase in student attendance and graduation from high school.	Increased engagement and success will increase attendance. Appropriate and targeted intervention will fill the skill gaps that might inhibit graduation.
3. Schools saw an increase in the social-emotional skill of their students.	Giving students some control over their learning collaborative group work and real problem-solving.
4. Program collaborated with the Community.	Family engagement provided innovative and ongoing supported by the work of ADI as the community partner.
5. Program coordinated with the schools to determine the students and families with the greatest need.	Schools recommended families they believed had the greatest need.
6.	
7. Program provided on-going professional development to program personnel.	Staff was trained to bridge face-to-face instruction with digital resources that enhanced or reinforced classroom learning.
8. Program collaborated with schools and community-based organizations to provide sustainable programs.	Community Advisory Members were instrumental in sustainability efforts by assisting in leveraging external resources after funding has ended.

Note. Adapted from Illinois Quality Afterschool (2014). Table created from information on the website.

Program Guidelines

The Program Manager began each year with a one-on-one conference with the building administrator to discuss specifics about the program, scheduling, data collection, and student recruitment. In addition, quarterly meetings were conducted with each of the building administrators to ensure student achievement was monitored. The Program Manager mailed notification letters to regular school day teachers informing them of the

process to collect data on the 21st CCLC students. Site coordinators collected and analyzed all data in a timely manner, as well as confirmed it was reliable and valid. Bi-weekly meetings between after-school and regular-day teachers strengthened this linkage, while providing time for staff to share information and concerns about students. The team utilized a teacher communication form addressing school attendance, then-current progress in academics, and discipline and behavior.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to investigate a possible relationship between corrective reading interventions and student reading achievement in an urban public middle school after-school program, 21st CCLC. In addition, this study explored teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions. The study also examined if corrective reading was related to the student's reading achievement, as measured by NWEA assessments. The study focused on fifth through eighth grade students in a middle school in a public urban school setting. The researcher chose this grade level for several reasons. The district conducted a needs assessment and determined that elementary students were performing below basic; but, once the students received interventions with the reading teacher, their grades improved. However, middle school teachers usually did not focus on reading instruction; they usually taught ELA. Since the Corrective Reading showed improvements with the elementary students, the district wanted to see if the interventions would help in the middle school; because of their assessment, the district decided to incorporate the after-school program and provide research-based reading instruction interventions.

ELA teachers incorporated the five strands of ELA instruction that included reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing, but did not teach reading in isolation to focus on improving reading comprehension and vocabulary development. Secondary school courses were often considered as content driven with a firm adherence to subject matter limitations (Conley, Kerner, & Reynolds, 2005). The after-school program in the middle school was the only program in the district that provided the Corrective Reading Interventions. Another reason the researcher chose this group was that the researcher wanted to investigate if reading intervention influenced reading achievement at the middle school level. The researcher aimed to determine if the Corrective Reading Intervention influenced the reading achievement of students who participated in the after-school program, especially since the Corrective Reading Interventions were specifically purchased to address the needs of the students in the after-school program.

Rationale

Reading instruction was important in middle schools. However, middle school teachers did not focus on reading; they were more ELA-content driven. Shippen, Houchins, Steventon, and Sartor (2005) shared, “Because secondary classrooms tend to be content centered, and rarely provided reading-centered instruction, secondary teachers grappled with how best to serve students with reading difficulties” (p. 176). The middle school reading teachers taught six sections of ELA for 65 minutes per day. The teachers did not teach corrective reading interventions during the ELA block during the regular school day, but used it to teach reading during the after-school program. They did not go as in depth in teaching students to read as compared to a reading teacher whose primary focus was to teach students how to read. ELA teachers taught all the components of ELA

during the 65-minute language arts block, which included reading, writing, listening, speaking, and viewing. Reading was not taught to improve comprehension and vocabulary, but instead, as part of the other subjects. Students did not receive interventions or strategies to help them improve those specific skills, and as a result, the reading gap widened at the middle school and continued to grow, as the students grew older. As stated by Biancarosa (2005), language arts teachers should teach reading comprehension instruction across the curriculum. Middle school teachers were certified as secondary teachers in a specific content area. For example, they were certified as sixth through twelfth grade ELA teachers, not reading teachers. ELA middle school teachers differed in their instruction from elementary teachers. Elementary teachers taught students how to read, and middle school teachers believed a student should read to learn. The researcher was familiar with the district's low performance on ELA assessments and sought to implement an intervention that would strengthen the learning gap for middle school students. A review of the then-current literature revealed gaps in the research regarding corrective reading interventions and a possible relationship between reading achievement for middle school students; more specifically within an urban setting in an after-school program (Cottingham et al., 2008). Response to Intervention (RTI) received substantial attention from school districts and researchers as a research-based intervention model for reading interventions (Faggella-Luby & Wardwell, 2011). This model was used with urban students through sixth grade, but there was limited research on its effectiveness for middle and high schools. Study findings supported the fact that at-risk youth needed intensive and explicit instruction to practice daily reading (Faggella-Luby & Wardwell, 2011). Intensive interventions implemented with fidelity would allow

schools to make more informed decisions about corrective reading and student achievement. The researcher focused this study on the district's approved research-based Corrective Reading Intervention for middle school students.

Onofrey and Theurer (2007) shared insight that after 30 years of research, teachers continued to have problems teaching reading comprehension skills. This problem extended from the novice to the experienced teacher. Students did not know how to visualize what they were reading, which lessened their ability to comprehend text. Christ and Wang (2010) discussed the importance of early literacy. They claimed, "It is important for children to develop knowledge of words from a young age because vocabulary development has an impact on other reading and academic success as they get older" (p. 84). Scharlach (2008) shared that educators were spending too much time focusing on preparing students to take tests and less time on reading comprehension.

Corrective Reading and student achievement in a suburban high school was studied with no emphasis on interventions in a middle school for grades 5 through 8 (Harris, Marchand-Martella, & Martella, 2000). This study focused specifically on a possible relationship between Corrective Reading and reading achievement in the middle school in an urban school setting in the after-school program. The after-school program in the middle school was the only program in the district that provided the Corrective Reading Interventions. The district did not offer any after-school programs, other than the 21st CCLC. The Corrective Reading Interventions was a research-based intervention specifically purchased to address the needs of the students in the after-school program. The studies conducted on Corrective Reading were conducted before 2000. This study will add to the body of existing research by providing then-current research data for

grades 5 through 8 within an urban learning environment. The researcher aimed to provide then-current research to the existing body of research by providing then-current data for grades 5 through 8 within an urban environment in a middle school after-school program. The after-school hours of 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. were the most crucial hours after adolescent students were released from school to be on their own. Rinehart (2008) stated many students experimented with unsafe behaviors that led to them to quitting school. Shann (2001) shared there was little evidence supporting reports for benefits of students who participated in after-school programs for improving academic or cultural achievement. However, she further added that after-school programs helped to decrease the violent crimes that occurred between the hours of 2:00 p.m. and 7:00 p.m.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

H1: There is a relationship between the pre- and post-survey of teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

H2: There is a relationship between the number of hours that teachers receive professional development for corrective reading interventions and student achievement (posttest) in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

H3: There is a difference in student achievement in reading after corrective reading interventions were implemented.

RQ1: How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied in reading in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

RQ2: What are teacher perceptions of interventions before and after the

implementation of corrective reading interventions in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

Limitations

There were several limitations in the study. The window for collecting and analyzing data was a short time period, due to the researcher completing the study during the winter 2016 and summer 2017. Another limitation was the middle school attained a new grade level of fifth grade students and teachers. The students were all new to the middle school as they transitioned from the elementary to the middle school during the 2016-2017 school year. Neither the students nor the teachers were familiar with the middle school during the 2016-2017 school year. Two new administrators were hired as assistant principals. Both were brand new to the building and one was a brand new, first-year administrator. One of the new administrators did not begin the school year on the first day of school because she was out on Family Medical Leave (FMLA). She did not return to work until the end of October 2016. The ELA Coach left the school in the fall of 2016 on FMLA, as well. A replacement teacher was not hired to replace the ELA Coach position until the spring semester. The coach did not return or train anyone for her position; but instead, she retired at the end of the spring semester. Teachers hired during the second semester received limited training on corrective reading. The researched school district conducted additional hiring of middle school teachers during the second semester, and as a result, new teachers did not attend the professional development training on corrective reading nor had the same benefit as the other sixth-eighth grade teachers. In addition, during the spring semester, the principal announced at a staff

meeting that he would not be returning to the district the next year. He informed the staff that he would be taking another job outside the district.

Definition of Terms

Achievement Tests “are designed to measure the knowledge and skills students learn in school to determine the academic progress they have made over a period of time” (Hidden Curriculum, 2014, para. 1).

Benchmark Assessments were assessments that were aligned to academic standards given at various points. The purpose was to see if students mastered grade-level skills (Wong & Nicotera, 2007).

Corrective Reading Walkthrough Tool: For the purpose of this study, the corrective reading walkthrough tool was an instrument created by the researcher used to measure fifth through eighth grade teachers in the after-school program practices in reading.

English Language Arts (ELA) included the study of speaking and writing standard English, including grammar, usage, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization. It also included, reading and evaluating fiction, poetry, and drama. In addition, it was the reading and evaluating of nonfiction works and material, such as biographies, newspapers, technical manuals. Furthermore, ELA was inclusive of writing formally, such as reports, narratives, and essays, and informally, such as outlines, and notes. Lastly, ELA was participating in formal and informal presentations and discussions of issues and ideas comprehending and evaluating the content and artistic aspects of oral and visual presentations, such as story-telling, debates, lectures, and multi-media

productions, and identifying and evaluating relationships between language and culture (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education [MODESE], 2017).

Likert Scale:

A self-reporting instrument in which an individual responds to a series of statements by indicating the extent of agreement. Each choice is given a numerical value and the total score is presumed to indicate the attitude or belief in question.” (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012, p. G-4)

For the purpose of this study the researcher chose the following terms for the observation tool used in the study: Distinguished (4 points), Proficient (3 points), Basic (2 points), and Below Basic (1 point). For the purpose of this study the researcher chose the following terms for the surveys used in the study: Strongly Agree (4 points), Agree (3 points), Disagree (2 points), and Strongly Disagree (1 point).

Measures of Academic Progress (MAP): assessments used by NWEA to assess measures of academic progress based on common core standards (Cordray, Pion, Brandt, Molefe, & Toby, 2012, p. 3).

Northwest Evaluation Association: an organization that provided Common Core aligned assessments (Northwest Evaluation Association [NWEA], 2011).

Reading Intervention: For the purpose of this study, a research-based program that provided intense instruction to improve reading achievement.

Rasch UnIT (RIT) Score:

RIT stands for Rasch UnIT, which is a measurement scale developed to simplify the interpretation of test scores. The RIT score relates directly to the curriculum scale in each subject area. It is an equal-interval scale, like feet and inches, so

scores can be added together to calculate accurate class or school averages. RIT scores range from about 100 to 300. (NWEA, 2011, p. 7)

Response To Intervention: The primary goal of Response to Intervention (RTI) models was improved academic and behavioral outcomes for all students. The secondary goal of RTI was to provide data for identification of learning (Fletcher & Vaughn, 2009).

Standardized Test:

any form of test that (1) requires all test takers to answer the same questions, or a selection of answers from a common bank of questions in the same way, and that (2), is scored in a standard or consistent manner. (Hidden curriculum, 2014, para. 1)

Summary

The researcher aimed to provide the background, purpose, and definitions for this study on corrective reading and student achievement in reading, for the 5th through 8th grade levels. The researcher aspired to add to the existing research on corrective reading interventions and student achievement, specifically within an urban setting. In addition, the researcher aimed to make recommendations to the district and school leaders about corrective reading and student achievement.

In Chapter Two, the researcher explores research on after-school programs and corrective reading interventions in an urban middle school setting. Chapter Three describes the research tools, methodology, participants, and research process. In Chapter Four the researcher presents data for the hypotheses and research questions. The final chapter, Chapter Five, discusses the research findings, implications, program recommendations, and future research recommendations.

Chapter Two: The Literature Review

Introduction

At the time of this writing, youth faced challenges of competing in the world to complete high school and prepare for future employment. Cooper, Kamps, and Veerkamp (2007) shared that nearly one-fourth of high schoolers completed high school lacking sufficient reading skills. The risk was greater for students who began school at a disadvantage due to challenges, such as poverty or low income. One intervention to assist students with reading skills was after-school programs. On a national level, “After-school programs received significant financial and public support in the past decade” (Bender et al., 2011, p. 319). According to Bender et al. (2011), the U.S. Department of Education allocated over \$1 billion annually to support approximately 8,000 after-school programs. “Public opinion reflected strong support for after-school funding; polls indicated as many as 65% of registered voters believed that after-school programs were an absolute necessity in their communities” (Bender et al., 2011, p. 319). Congress proposed the creation of the 21st CCLC programs in 1994 to expand learning opportunities and provide additional resources for impoverished youth and their families (Paluta, Lower, Anderson-Butcher, Gibson, & Iachini, 2015). Table 7 outlines the expectations of afterschool programs, including the goals, outcomes, and activities to address the needs of students who participate in after-school programs. The first goal was to improve academic performance (Bender et al., 2011). The second goal was to promote positive development (Bender et al., 2011). The third goal was to prevent delinquency, substance abuse, and other problem behaviors (Bender et al., 2011). The fourth goal was to increase positive social bonds with peers, parents, other adults, and

program staff (Bender et al., 2011). The program goals were accomplished by students participating in after-school programs in elementary, middle, and high school (Bender et al., 2011). Support systems were implemented to reduce delinquency and aggression, substance abuse, improved drug refusal skills, and increased pro-social attitudes towards drug use through student participation in recreation, mentoring, and counseling services.

Table 7

Goals for After-School Programs

Goals	Outcomes	Activities to address needs
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improved outcomes of academic performance 2. Promoted positive development 3. Prevented delinquency, substance abuse and other problem behaviors. 4. Increased positive social bonds with peers, parents, other adults, and program staff. 	<p>All students participating in after school programs in elementary, middle and high school will see a deduction in delinquency and aggression, significant reductions in self-reported substance abuse, improved drug refusal skills, and increased pro-social attitudes towards drug use.</p>	<p>Students received: academic support, recreation, mentoring, health promotion and social and emotional skill training to provide coping skills to meet the goals of the program.</p>

Note. Adapted from Bender et al. (2011, p. 320).

There were “more than 8.5 million youth who participated in after-school programs” (David, 2011, p. 49). David (2011) further investigated after-school programs over a 15-year period and shared his insight on the best after-school programs. David (2011) further stated that the best programs were those that complemented the regular school day, rather than duplicated. David’s (2011) research concluded that in order for students to get the most benefit out of the program, to see any results, and establish clear objectives, they must attend at least two consecutive years. In contrast, Little, Weiss, and Wimer (2008) conducted a 10-year study to see if there were any benefits for students attending after-school programs. Little et al. (2008) shared one advantage of after-school

programs was the benefits of students being off the streets during the most prominent times that crimes were committed. Little et al. (2008) also discussed the benefit of a safe environment for students who attended the after-school programs. It could further be added that after-school programs focused on the social and emotional stability of students. Paluta, Lower, Anderson-Butcher, Gibson, & Iachini (2015) also agreed with Little et al.'s (2008) research in the meta-analysis study they conducted, "After school programs helped improve academic performance, heightened self-esteem and diminished problem behaviors" (p. 49). Students who participated in after-school programs that provided a safe and engaged learning environment had substantial positive youth outcomes. In another study, Totan and Deniz (2014) discussed that no learning in schools occurred until the social, emotional, and physical needs of students were addressed. It was further commented that schools that forced students to compete against each other in social environments caused learning to be interrupted (Totan & Deniz, 2014). The results concluded that there should not be any expected learning outcomes when students were competing. Instead, they needed to be taught to cooperate and work collaboratively and have healthy competitions that did not infringe on their social and emotional level of development (Totan & Deniz, 2014). The conflicting results found in the study by Paluta et al. (2015) expressed the same concern as Totan and Deniz (2014) that students who competed in competitive sports in after-school programs added to problem behaviors that led to substance abuse and violence. The bottom line was that middle school students were not equipped to manage their own behaviors at this age and it interfered with their understanding and identity of self-awareness and self-knowledge (Paluta et al., 2015).

After-school programs varied according to the quality of services they offered and student attendance. “After school programs grew exponentially in the last fifteen years” (David, 2011, p. 84). According to the survey results of Nelson-Royles and Reglin (2011), approximately 30 educators were interviewed about their perceptions of reading achievement for eighth grade students participating in after-school programs. Teachers perceived that more practice received by students produced better reading success and improvement (Nelson-Royles & Reglin, 2011). Nelson-Royles and Reglin (2011) further added that reading gains occurred for each student with regular and consistent attendance. According to Haynes (2011) “young adults who lacked reading and writing proficiency were relegated to the ranks of unskilled workers in a world where literacy was an absolute precondition for success” (p. 11). Not all after-school programs were treated equally; but, those that focused on a safe learning environment and provided academic support with homework assistance and tutoring were ranked as performing better than those that focused on competitive programs. According to the research of Somers, Owens, and Piliawsky (2008), school, parents, peers, and neighborhoods contributed to the academic success of African American students. As noted by Somers et al. (2008), not all students flourished. College students worked with low performing students under the re-authorized Title I act in 1999 to improve reading skills. In yet another failed attempt, low-income children continued to experience failure and reading scores did not improve (Farkas, 2000). The success of student academics varied depending on expectations.

Organization of the Literature Review

Due to the huge growth of after-school programs over the century previous to this writing, the researcher looked at the growth spurts of middle school students and how it related to their learning capabilities. Then the researcher discussed the parent's role as the adolescent's first teacher and the challenges schools endured without the support of parents. In addition, the researcher discussed the Physiological, Intellectual, Emotional, and Social (PIES) development of middle schoolers to grow and learn, which differed from that of elementary students. This paper also includes a discussion of the low morale and high mobility of teachers in the learning process and the need for training and professional development in preparation for teaching in urban middle schools. Lastly, the researcher explored the connection of teacher instruction, preparation, and perception of middle school students and the effects they had on student achievement in learning and corrective reading interventions.

This section reviews the then-current literature on growth spurts for middle school students, with an emphasis on reading in urban schools and, parental involvement for urban students in middle schools, the PIES development needed to assure students received the social supports, the low morale and high mobility of staff and teacher preparation, professional development, and perceptions about working with middle school students and corrective reading.

No Child Left Behind

After-school programs were established to fulfill the gap in education for students receiving below dismal scores on state assessments in reading and mathematics. "In 1983, the U.S. Department of Education report *A Nation at Risk* ignited a national debate

that led to decades of school reforms accompanied by declining public confidence in public education” (Lynch, 2014, p. 48). The movement established accountability for No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and Race to the Top, which led to the public’s perception that schools were failing and teachers were the blame. Cramer, Gudwin, and Salazar (2007) established Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) “to ensure that all children had a fair, equal and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reached, at a minimum, proficiency on state assessments for reading and mathematics” (p. 464). AYP determined the state’s measure of progress and the minimum level of improvement needed annually. Sunderman (2006) shared that NCLB included two necessary requirements for schools recognized as failing to meet state yearly progress. Districts were required to offer students the choice to transfer out of low-performing schools, or parents could choose that the district set aside funds from the annual Title I budget for students to receive additional academic support or supplemental educational services (SES) to increase their scores outside of the regular school day, which would have to be offered in after-school or weekend programs. Students that took the option of choice were not guaranteed space at schools meeting AYP (Finn & Hess, 2004). Districts did not want to interrupt the educational programs they had and regarded this directive as a huge inconvenience. Rural communities disregarded the mandates of school of choice because there were only a few spaces in their classrooms and they reserved those for their residents. As noted by Haynes (2011), “Congress dedicated substantial funds to improving reading skills in kindergarten through grade 3, however, this investment did not result in the goal of preparing students to succeed in college and careers” (p. 10). Even though parents were given options to move their children from failing schools to better performing schools, it

was not easy to enroll them in the new districts. Oftentimes, districts complained that there was no space, overcrowded classrooms, or feared these students would bring their test scores down and they would in turn end up as a failing school (Sunderman, 2006).

Title I programs were among the solutions to ESEA's legislation to establish accountability for low-performing schools (Sunderman, 2006). "Rigorous evaluation of the 21st Century Community Learning Centers (21st CCLC), and after-school programs for children in urban and rural communities, showed limited effect on student achievement and modest impact on some noncognitive indicators" (p. 121). Finn and Hess (2004) stated the requirements for school of choice and SES were limited. They further added the provisions should be carefully evaluated to see if they hindered or helped to improve academic performance. Bracey (2007) noted the list of non-performing schools continued to grow and it was impossible to meet the 100% Proficiency by 2014. He would agree with Sunderman (2006) and Finn and Hess (2004) that there was no scientific research that showed SES, corrective action, or restructuring accomplished what Congress set out to do. Since the laws of NCLB never accomplished what it intended to measure, Bracey (2007) asked whether it should be seen as theory in action about how to improve student achievement, or was it a law of compliance (p. 476)?

Teacher Perceptions and Student Growth spurts

The ability to comprehend and acquire knowledge from text was an essential skill mandatory in every school course, as well as everyday life (Elleman, Lindo, Morphy, & Compton 2009). Christ and Wang (2010) stated, "It is important for children to develop knowledge of words' meanings from a young age because vocabulary development had

an impact on their reading comprehension and academic success as they get older” (p. 84). Unfortunately, children from low socioeconomic families knew about 6,000 fewer words than their middle-class peers achieved at the beginning of schooling (Sobolak, 2011). They entered first grade approximately one grade level behind middle-class children (Farkas, 2000). On a national level, one-third of fourth-graders, 26% eighth-graders and 23% twelfth-graders, scored below basic in reading (Cooper, Kamps, & Veerkamp, 2007). The data was alarming, considering the fact that students who were the largest population of at risk for dismal performance usually received the least amount of teaching and preparation as they advanced through school (Cooper et al., 2007). Carter, Hawkins, and Natesan (2008) argued in contrast, “African American students across the nation do not achieve academically as the rate as the European counterparts due to the cultural aspects of student’s learning styles” (p. 30). They added a student’s culture was a main factor affecting the progress of learning. Somers et al. (2008) agreed with Carter et al. (2008) that African American children were not doing as well as other youngsters in America’s schools. They were compared to all races, not just their European counterparts (Somers, Owens, & Piliawsky, 2008). A student’s learning depended on the home life and community (Carter, Hawkins, & Natesan, 2008). In addition, they added that African American students learned best through movement; for example, music, song, and dance. If the students’ culture and classroom were different, they suffered with poor academic performance. Children of poverty were at least one grade level behind by their peers by the end of first grade and had established a cycle of failure in which their skills were below the expected level of growth determined by the curriculum; and therefore, their self-worth, enthusiasm, and time-on-task were

insufficient to complete the assigned tasks (Farkas, 2000). Sunderman (2006) added the NCLB requirements expected all students to meet the minimum proficiency level regardless of their socioeconomic status.

Haynes (2011) discussed the great disparity of struggling readers across America. She stated that the number of students who struggled with reading in their early years increased by fourth grade and the gap continued to widen through 10th grade. She associated the growing increase to be associated with “students learning how to read in grade 4 and from fifth grade up they moved into reading to learn” (p. 10). Students who were not caught up struggled to comprehend reading material each year thereafter. Since reading was an essential skill, students who were incompetent readers experienced increased deficiencies across many subject areas that required reading as a necessary skill (Cooper et al., 2007). Cooper et al. (2007) further added data showed that deficient reading skills increased the chance of quitting school, teenage pregnancies, reliance on welfare, and increased numbers of arrests. Reading fluency usually was considered instruction to be taught within the area of the elementary grades; however, it was highly unusual that fluency was taught directly or systematically in the middle and secondary schools (Rasinski et al., 2005). Rasinski et al. (2005) further added middle school students who were poor readers and needed assistance with fluency when entering were more than likely not going to receive much instructional assistance for their deficiencies. “Nationally, a third of the students who began high school do not acquire the skills needed for postsecondary success” (Paluta et al., 2015, p. 49). Somers et al. (2008) agreed with Paluta et al. (2015) that adolescents living in inner-city neighborhoods faced issues of violence, poverty and racism that impeded their learning both academically and

socially. They further added that African American youth from underprivileged neighborhoods and settings failed to see the connection between school successes and future adult job success. In another article, Elleman, Lindo, Morphy, and Compton (2009) searched interventions to address the deficiency in vocabulary skills for students in grades K through 12. Elleman et al. shared one area of intervention research was vocabulary instruction. Both studies shared the correlational relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension. As shared by Shippen et al. (2005), reading was a topic that numerous urban middle school students did not achieve good scores on their standardized tests. Nelson-Royles and Reglin (2011) added, "One third of all public high school students and nearly 50% of minorities failed to graduate with their class" (p. 106). Furthermore, the vast majority of children who attended public schools in marginalized urban schools persistently showed low scores on achievement assessments and below mastery of basic concepts, as demonstrated by standardized assessment data of several states. In addition, Sobolak (2011) added, "around the 4th-grade students moved from learning to read to reading to learn and contend with an increasing amount of complex subject material each year" (p. 10). In yet another study, Sobolak (2011) conducted research on how to implement research-based robust instruction to improve vocabulary. She added that rich instruction included various types of techniques that should be used to improve vocabulary. She concluded that students with limited vocabulary were in jeopardy of becoming proficient readers. Cooper et al. (2007) would agree that when "low-achieving at-risk students receive effective reading instruction; they tend to experience greater success in their remaining school years" (p. 22). Rasinski et al. (2005) agreed with Shippen et al. (2005) and Cooper et al. (2007) that adolescents learned by

what teachers taught. If the research showed that fluency was a concern for middle and high school students, then it should be added to the curriculum and teachers should be required to teach it (Rasinski et al., 2005). It appeared to the researcher that all of these studies agreed that the more students were exposed to reading early and were provided opportunities to explore the world around them; it would increase their vocabulary. The more experiences the students were provided would increase their ability to expand their vocabulary and improve comprehension.

According to Bridgeland, Dilulio, and Wulsin (2008), several of the students who attended public schools in low-income urban populations typically showed below grade level scores on student academic achievement tests and did not meet expected goals of primary concepts, as shown by essential standards of assessment data for several states. In another study, Lesaux, Harris, and Sloane (2012) reported middle school students lacked motivation during middle school and early adolescence. Somers et al. (2008) shared that there was a direct relationship between school mobility and school environment that may also contribute to student achievement. The researcher concluded that it would be beneficial to explore all barriers that add to the reasons that African American students performed below their European counterparts.

Scharlach (2008) added to the research in that he shared educators were spending too much time focusing on preparing students to take tests and less time on reading comprehension. "The National Center for Educational Statistics reported that 69% of eighth grade students performed below the proficient level in reading based on the National Assessment of Educational Progress" (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Wulsin, 2008, p. 2). However, Sunderman (2006) stated, "Rather than focus on a broad range of school-

level outcomes tied to state standards and the development of school improvement plans to meet those standards, supplemental services focused on improving individual student achievement, but only for those requiring services” (p. 119). Unfortunately, only students in low-income areas received extra services, but other low readers could have benefited as well.

In order to improve students’ capacity to independently gain understanding from text, educators must fully recognize which types of interventions were most successful at increasing students’ ability to comprehend what they read. Students lacked vocabulary development and the vital skills needed to utilize mixtures of words for reading comprehension strategies with expository or content texts (Sutton & Cooter, 2005). Scharlach (2008) believed teachers had to change the way they taught reading. He created the Students and teachers Actively Reading Text (START) that was designed to show teachers how to incorporate gradual release into instruction. Clark and Graves (2005) added that gradual release informed the teachers what students could and could not do on their own and what specific areas needed help. Gradual release of responsibility was suggested as a model to allow teachers to be in full control and gradually release the responsibility to the students. The goal was to strengthen the student’s capacity to become independent and actively involved in the text.

Sobolak (2011) stated that active involvement from students in vocabulary was proven to be an effective approach of teaching higher-level vocabulary. Elleman et al. (2009) added, “With a deeper understanding of words and expanded vocabulary, children are better able to understand what they read which leads to increased text exposure” (p. 3). Biancarosa (2005) agreed and noted that cooperative learning increased reading

comprehension in the intermediate through high school grades. As concluded by George and Oldaker (1986), “Schools need to work with students before major growth spurts associated with puberty and help them adjust to new academic environments before problems develop” (p. 81). High-quality teaching of language and vocabulary afforded itself to improved student cooperation, independent learners, and more chances for students to interact and engage with curriculum that encouraged critical thinkers (Lesaux, Harris & Sloane, 2012).

Parental Involvement and Student Learning

After-school programs provided a safe place for children to explore activities between the dismissals of school until parents returned (Capaldi, 2009). It was estimated that about “33% of children ages 12 – 14 with a single working parent or working parents are in self-care” (Capaldi, 2009, p. 413). Bender et al. (2011) agreed with Capaldi (2009) that the release from the regular school day constituted an at-risk period of the day for students. The increase of the employment rates of women working added to the growing number of students participating in after-school programs (James-Burdumy, Dynarski, & Deke, 2008). This added an increase of pressure and concern to address the academics needs of at-risk students who were unsupervised during after-school hours. According to the researcher, the after-school hours of 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. were the most crucial hours, when adolescent students were dismissed from school to be on their own. Rinehart (2008) added that many students experimented with unsafe behaviors that could lead to quitting school. “More than one-third of middle school students are released from school and left to their own devices” (Rinehart, 2008, p. 60). The greatest amount of arrests for violence committed by adolescents occurred between the hours of 2 p.m. and 6 p.m.

when a large group of youngsters were released and unsupervised by parents (Bender et al., 2011). In addition, Rinehart (2008) further added that parents wanted the best care for their students during after-school hours, but many lacked options for after-school care when the school day ended. The lack of parent involvement was connected with increased violence that led to anger or behavior problems in adolescents, as suggested by the researcher (Rinehart, 2008). As stated by Finigan-Carr, Copeland-Linder, Haynie, and Cheng (2014), there was a challenge in getting parents to participate in intervention programs, and even when they enlisted there was another challenge of retaining attendance. Finigan-Carr et al. (2014) shared such obstacles as “time and scheduling conflicts, child care assistance and transportation shortages were regularly cited as main barriers” (p. 66). It was further added, “The general objective was to get parents involved to choose the most suitable intervention strategy to increase parental monitoring and engagement” (Finigan, Copeland-Linder, Haynie, & Cheng, 2014, p. 67). The researcher concluded that parent income was not necessarily the main barrier of students’ cognitive levels, but rather the low cognitive level of parents that kept students from learning. Haughey, Snart, and Costa (2001) added to the research that children from poverty homes lacked adequate literacy experience. Low impoverished children brought a multitude of literacy experiences from their homes and often their parents wanted to help them succeed, but their experiences were not easily transferred from home to school. Even though many parents had a desire to help their children succeed, they were not involved and could not help them complete homework assignments to achieve better test scores (Farkas, 2000).

When parents were involved in the reading program with their children, the outcomes of success were greater (Elish-Piper, 2010). However, the parent engagement at the middle and high school level looked different than at the elementary level, in that it provided an atmosphere where the parent served as a mentor or in a supportive role. Wiseman (2009) added adolescents did not invite their parents to accompany them because they were more peer-focused, more independent, and their interactions with them were different. The shift allowed the parents to support their children, but also provided them the space needed to grow into adolescence (Elish-Piper, 2010). As educators, teachers and administrators often forget the value that parents add to the learning environment and schools need to involve them and show them how best to help their children.

Physiological, Intellectual, Emotional, and Social Development

African American students and children living in poverty were subject to more risk than youth in other demographic groups nationwide and those factors added to and compounded educational differences (Paluta et al., 2015). According to Deschenes, Little, Grossman, and Arbeton (2010), adolescence was noted as a time of rapid transformation. “On the physical and emotional side, low-income children were more likely than middle income children to experience inadequate nutrition, untreated medical conditions, and daily environments that are neglectful, harsh, or violent” (Farkas, 2000, p. 54). Somers et al. (2008) added that urban youth were from marginalized families that were not only financially unfortunate, but also socially underserved. Kruczek, Alexander, and Harris (2005) agreed and discussed the integral role counselors played in providing developmentally appropriate services to address the unique needs of middle

school students. In addition, it was concluded that the most important relationship for middle schoolers were no longer with family members, but with their peers (Kruczek, Alexander, & Harris, 2005).

Somers et al. (2008) added that peer influence played a significant role in adolescents' outlook towards school. The academic support they received from each other was definitely related to their desire for pursuing common educational goals (Somers et al., 2008). However, they also received negative feedback from peers if they performed well academically and were ridiculed as "acting white," and that proposed a challenge for them (Somers et al., 2008, p. 3). Those that succeeded academically were able to do so because they had a positive self-identity that served as a coping strategy to fight off negative influences. Morehouse (2009) agreed with Somers et al. (2008) and added to the literature that she shared a similar analysis in that after-school programs played a strong role in helping young adolescents build healthy peer relationships. Bender et al. (2011) concurred with Somers et al. (2008) that programs that offered skill preparation and character education strategies were also essential components of effective after-school programs. The researcher concluded that students needed time to socialize with their peers and an opportunity to try different things in a safe and structured environment (Morehouse, 2009). Murray-Close (2012) discussed how initial experiences, such as separation from both parents and child neglect, influenced peer functioning in adolescence. She further added such obstacles as child neglect helped to determine violent behavior in young adolescents, because it led to decreased levels of cortisol.

In another study, Petersen (2008) suggested that physiological development processes helped researchers to identify changes as they transitioned from childhood to adolescence. Somers et al. (2008) added to the literature that school transitions were associated with lower academic performance, lack of self-esteem, decreased involvement in activities, and increased feelings of anonymity. Middle school students transitioning to high school could be an activity related to anxiety. In the research, Somers et al. (2008) added that high school transitions for middle school students were associated with negative consequences, such as low grades and poor school attendance. The researcher added that adolescence was a period of challenges, but when coupled with school performance they often chose to socialize rather than focus on schoolwork. Student mobility also caused students to be disconnected and disengaged with minimum or no vested interest in the school or the learning environment. Bulkin and Isernhagen (2011) added, "Learning gaps not only made achievement in a new classroom more difficult, but also reduced student motivation" (p. 18). Wiseman (2009) discussed the adolescents' perception on family literacy was reflected according to their personal and social development. They described their need as less guidance and supervision from adults and more peer interaction. African American parents, who were separated by cultural or racial experiences, passed that mistrust on to their children. Wiseman (2009) related to Carter et al. (2008) in the matter that they both believed children's experiences at home were reflected by their cultural experiences. In order to reach these children, educators had to break through students' cultural differences before learning could begin. Trust would be the commonality that would close this gap in African American students and their families learning to read. Wiseman (2009) further added that parent engagement in

education led to improved “student achievement, motivation, and self-esteem while having a positive impact on behavior and attendance in school” (p. 133). According to Bender et al. (2011), youth who regularly attended after-school programs were less likely to be involved in delinquent behaviors while adolescents who were unsupervised were at a greater risk for substance use and other antisocial behavior. As shared by the researcher, hormones that adolescents developed through puberty created hormone-behavior relations that caused developmental differences in peer associations.

Adolescents were relationship centered at the middle school age and if they did not have positive mentors to mold them, they could become isolated and eventually shut down, according to the researcher. Adult supervision during the hours following dismissal from school would decrease the likelihood of the negative interactions of deviant peer groups on adolescent behavior (Bender et al., 2011). Bender et al. (2011) added that after-school programs offered a median between the hours students were released and the time parents arrived home from work. They provided well-planned age and grade appropriate interventions in an organized and caring environment for adolescents lacking parental supervision. In a separate study, Montague, Cavendish, Dietz, and Enders (2010) stated, “A secure relationship was vital to the psychological well-being of the developing child” (p. 647). However, Anderson-Butcher (2010) discussed the importance of promoting positive youth and adult connectedness in after-school programs. While yet in another study, David (2011) disagreed because according to his research, after-school programs did not have an effect on the overall student assessments or behaviors. Conversely, he stated that students showed gains in study habits, and social skills. He felt students gained better adaptive skills from programs that

had goals of providing high quality enrichment and recreation rather than academics. Moreover, research shared by James-Burdumy, Dynarski, and Deke (2008) discussed that “after school programs had been hypothesized to improve child and youth behavioral outcomes, but evidence on whether they do is mixed” (p. 13). After-school programs were offered in marginalized neighborhoods to allow at-risk children to participate in academic support services and recreational enrichment activities normally offered to their wealthier peers (Bender et al., 2011). Capaldi (2009) on the other hand argued that students who attended less organized programs experienced more negligent behaviors, whereas students in programs with experienced teachers, and in particular male teachers, had a reduction in negative outcomes. Rinehart (2008) suggested “middle level after school programs must give students the chance to interact with adults whose work and life experiences helped create a setting they considered of interest to them and how they earned a living” (p. 60). At-risk students needed positive adult role models to show concern for their well-being. The support received could lead to improved attendance, less discipline infractions, and improved academic achievement (Huang & Cho, 2010).

Children who suffered from physical assault in childhood and youth suffered affects in other developmental areas, including their educational accomplishment, peer relationships, delinquency and drug use, and arrest outcomes (Goodman, Helms, Kliwer, & Sullivan, 2009). Goodman, Helms, Kliwer, & Sullivan (2009) further added relational aggression was different from physical aggression in that the victims did not physically hurt or damage relationships, but instead, withdrew from friendships; excluded themselves from group activities and spread rumors or gossip. As suggested by the researcher, it was important to understand both forms of aggression to know where the

root of the problem existed, to help find solutions to teaching youth to establish limits on friendships and peer situations.

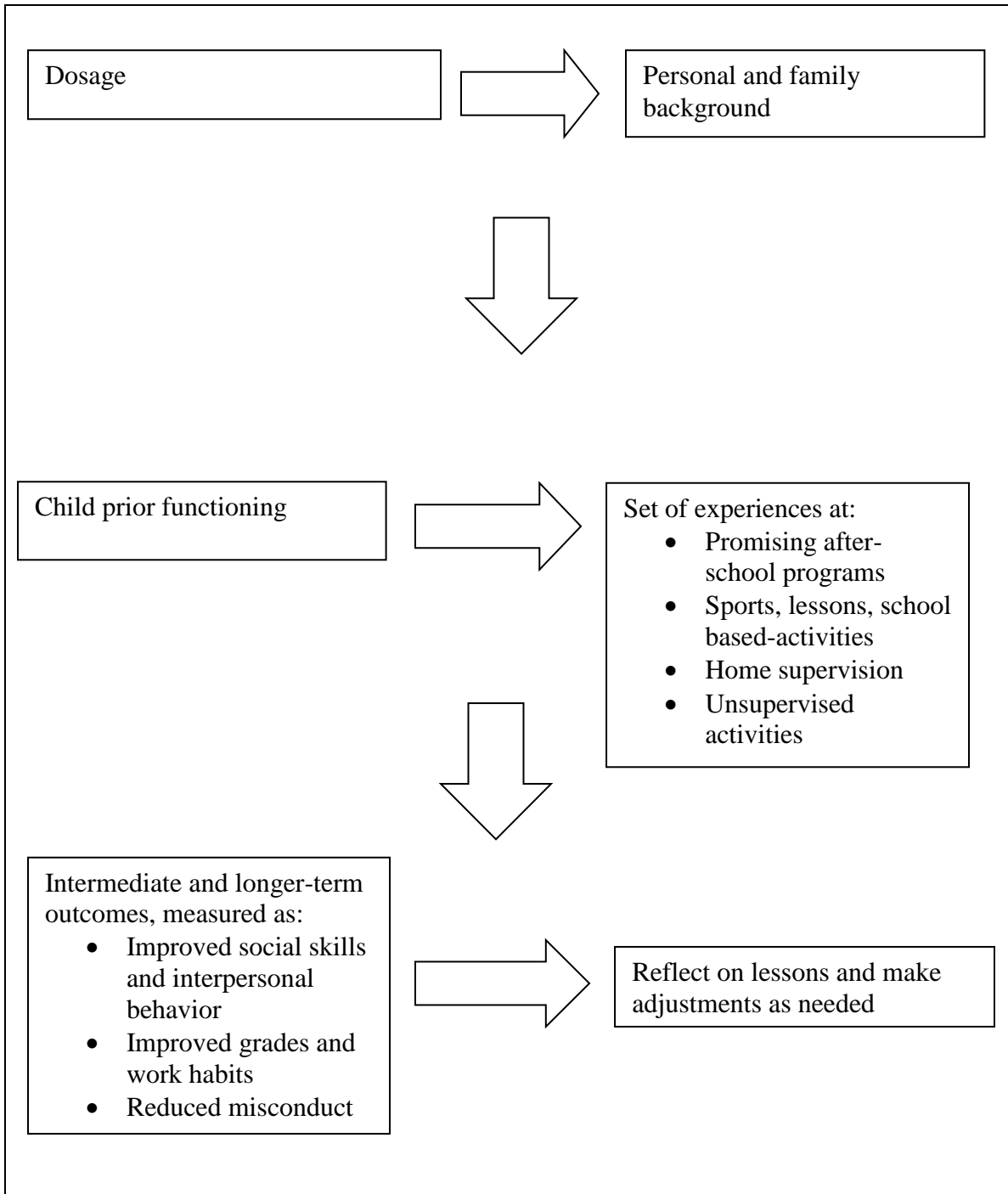


Figure 1. Theoretical linkages between afterschool experiences and student outcomes in the elementary and middle grades. Adapted from Vandell, Reisner, and Pierce (2007, p. 1).

The researcher further added, neither promoted growth in prosocial competence and both were linked to adaptation difficulties. Little et al. (2008) concluded, “beyond academics, numerous after school programs focused on improving youth’s social and developmental outcomes, such as social skills, self-esteem and self-concept, initiative, and leadership skills” (p. 4).

The gap closed when more sociologists understood the cognitive development of middle school children and employed more resources to assist children in promoting healthy friendships with peers and teachers. The psychologist’s recommendation was to use a procedure, as described, to meet the child’s need. First, apply a sample of aggression related to the child’s family and personal background to see how the child would respond. Second, after making the link of aggression to the child’s background, it was important to provide them experiences that promoted positive outcomes that would decrease the aggressive behaviors. Third, once the dosages and experiences were applied, the outcomes were measured to see if there was a difference in the behavior. Finally, reflections and adjustments were made, as needed (see Figure 1).

Teachers’ Low Morale and Mobility and Impact on Student Achievement in an Urban Environment

Teachers typically decided to work at the middle school as a personal choice in spite of the unique developmental characteristics of young adolescent students (Mee & Haverback, 2014). Mobility was a great risk to educational advancement and the school environment (Bulkin & Isernhagen, 2011). Additionally, mobility added to the chance of a student quitting school. According to Bulkin and Isernhagen (2011), “13 of 158 high school dropouts cited frequent moves as their reason for dropping out” (p. 17). Research

showed that if students had at least one adult who cared and built a positive relationship with them, it served as a safeguard for at-risk students (Huang & Cho, 2010). They further added that organizations such as Big Brothers/Big Sisters showed an improved rate of, “increased academic achievement and school attendance as well as a reduction in risky behavior for the participating youth” (p. 10). However, according to Rinehart (2008), “only 6 percent of middle school students were enrolled in an after-school program, representing less than one fifth the number of students who were unsupervised each afternoon” (p. 60). The research showed a need to adopt a model for zero tolerance for losing children instructionally. Schools needed to adopt a school-wide discipline system to assist teachers to gain the control and order needed for effective instruction (Farkas, 2000). Each child needed a prescriptive discipline plan to make sure they were progressing adequately, and the plan needed to be monitored and readjusted when the initial plan was not working.

High mobility rates for teachers were two times greater at schools of low poverty according to research by Curtis (2012). Shippen et al. (2005) stated these factors included “teacher classroom behavior management and expectations, class size, high student mobility rates, level of parents’ education and student off task behavior” (p. 176). Bulkin and Isenhagen (2011) agreed with Curtis (2012) that teachers saw mobility as a main hindrance that prevented learners from succeeding. Teachers who taught in extremely mobile classrooms accused mobility for their failure to efficiently manage the learning environment and provide quality instruction (Bulkin & Isenhagen, 2011). Teachers in Chicago Public Schools were surveyed about the morale in their schools and 30.6% reported low morale, another 20.7% extremely low, with 13.9% reported high or

2.2% extremely high (Lynch, 2014). According to the researcher, the most disturbing challenge faced was the negative media attention. It was humiliating to see their hard work ridiculed in the daily news and them being used as scapegoats for the unanswered questions. However, research by Akhavan (2005) stated teachers who felt supported by administration and peers worked collaboratively at Lee Richmond School. She further continued, they worked together and shared their successes and challenges that helped shape the school culture. In another study, National Association of Secondary School Principals (2011) added Smokey Road Middle School was a Title I middle school that replaced an older school due to repeated failing test scores. The new school took on a facelift and was able to rebuild its culture and climate to become a model school. Even though the population was different than most urban schools, they faced similar challenges but worked together to overcome them. As shared by Anderson-Butcher (2010), when after-school programs hired staff that resembled the population of students served there was more of a connection and sustained relationships for staff and students. Also, the program was more effective when the school day rules and consequences were reinforced. It provided the consistency required for students to be held accountable for their behaviors (Anderson-Butcher, 2010). According to Lynch (2014), there was a lack of evidence that changing teachers and administrators to “turn schools around” led to greater student achievement (p. 48). However, Scott, Teale, Carry, Johnson, and Morgan (2009) discussed effective administrator and teacher communication discussing the needs of the school were more advantageous than enforcing directives on educators. When there was harmony and collaboration with administration and teachers, it helped to improve the working conditions and teachers felt respected.

Curtis (2012), however, added that the categories of teacher dissatisfaction ranged from student participation and classroom disruptions to absence of administrative backings, as shared by the researcher. Teacher attrition was also noted as a significant issue that had far-reaching effects in the public-school system (Curtis, 2012, p. 781). Haversbak and Mee (2004) added 100% of middle school teachers experienced frustration with classroom management, curriculum implementation, and organization within the first few months of school and threatened to leave. Typically, 80% of them returned. However, due to the lack of funding available and the low pay in after-school programs, teachers eventually left for better paying jobs or full-time employment (Huang & Cho, 2010). They suggested using these strategies to help retain high-quality staff. First, hire the right staff that was compassionate about working with children. Next, it was important to be sure the staff possessed the correct skill set. Another point to consider was to offer staff professional development and training and to monitor the program quality (see Table 8).

Table 8

Huang and Cho's Strategies for Retaining Staff

Four Steps

Step 1	Hiring staff who have passion, respect, and concrete skills for working with young people
Step 2	Aligning staff skills with tasks
Step 3	Making training substantive and accessible; offering day-to-day staff development
Step 4	Monitoring program quality

Note. Adapted from Huang and Cho (2010, p. 11).

The positive outcomes of peer and teacher relationships outweighed the negative side effects. Adolescents who participated in after-school programs and received positive support from teachers had better rates of attendance, higher reading achievement scores, and elicited greater teacher expectancy of student success than at-risk youth who did not attend after-school programs (Bender et al., 2011). There had also been long-term effects that benefited students through high school and college.

Teacher Instruction, Professional Development, and Perceptions

Teacher attrition in urban areas was a great concern for science and mathematics teachers (Mee & Haverback, 2014). Farkas (2000) shared teachers in grades 1-12 in poverty schools were inadequately preparing to educate “hundreds of thousands of children” (p. 57). In reality, teachers lacked required training and not enough administrative support, trying to work with 20 to 30 children, several of whom were unprepared to focus on schoolwork, insufficient support from home, and unprepared mentally to learn the assigned curriculum. Within the first five years, “40-50% of teachers left the profession” (p. 40). If this were any other profession where several children did not receive adequate care, there would be a national outcry and we would act aggressively to remedy the problem. “Professional development was important for retaining qualified staff because it provided an opportunity for growth and improved worker satisfaction” (Huang & Cho, 2010, p. 11). It also provided an increase in staff value and self-worth, thereby encouraging enthusiasm and a feeling of belonging in the after-school program.

According to the research by Haynes (2011), “Since 2001 states have been called upon to focus on early literacy in accordance with the No Child Left Behind Act

(NCLB)” (p. 10). Onofrey and Theurer (2007) shared insight that after 30 years of research, teachers continued to have problems teaching reading comprehension skills. Students did not know how to visualize what they were reading, which lessened their ability to comprehend text. In addition, Sobolak (2011) stressed, “Educators must be prepared to provide additional instruction when the initial instruction doesn’t allow all students to reach mastery” (p. 22). Scaffolding was a highly recommended approach that was used by some of the top-rated teachers as a powerful technique of teaching reading comprehension (Clark & Graves, 2004). It played a crucial role in promoting comprehension.

Table 9

Lesaux et al. ’s Strategies for Implementation

Steps to ensure student learning

1. Implement a routine instructional cycle that supports middle schoolers' learning.
 - * Provide opportunities to study academic words and concepts from several angles, using multiple methods, over an extended period
 - * Allow students to take increasing responsibility for their learning
 - * Use a combination of whole-group and small-group learning formats
 - * Incorporate reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities
2. Provide students with access to rigorous content for an appropriate challenge.
 - * Select high-utility academic vocabulary words and the complex concepts they represent
 - * Begin with social issues and scientific topics that can readily be linked to students' lives and that give them something new to think about

TO SEE EVIDENCE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AS YOU IMPLEMENT THIS INSTRUCTION:

1. Take your time at first, allowing students to learn the expectations and process.
2. Stick with the instructional cycle -- a quality routine isn't boring, it's supportive!
3. Reflect on your approach. Ask yourself:
 - * Is my instruction focused on rigorous, grade-level content?
 - * Am I providing the supports my students need to make progress?
 - * Do I have structures in place for students at different levels to see their own progress?

Note. Adapted from Lesaux et al. (2012, p. 238).

In addition, scaffolding allowed the teacher to use a great balance to help students understand the text and challenge them at the same time. Haynes (2011) further added states and districts needed to create strategies with numerous components to address the absence of literacy instruction and different kinds of support necessary for struggling readers. Lesaux et al. (2012) showed the steps ELA teachers used to ensure student learning (see Table 9).

According to Lesaux et al.'s (2012) research, teachers needed to implement a system of learning that supported middle school learners and provided the access to a rigorous curriculum. The evidence should reflect the process of learning and reflect on questions that would require the teacher to make changes to teaching if students were not learning the content (see Table 9).

Unfortunately, when regular education students entered middle and high school, reading instruction was not taught as a single area of instruction but incorporated with English Language Arts (ELA) courses (Harris, Marchand-Martella, & Martella, 2000). Biancarosa (2005) agreed and shared, "good instruction in middle and high school integrates comprehension instruction with content" (p. 17). She further added that language arts teachers should teach reading comprehension instruction across the curriculum. However, secondary school courses were often considered as content driven with a firm adherence to subject matter limitations (Conley et al., 2005). Shippen et al. (2005) added there was constant frustration of secondary school teachers teaching content and rarely providing direct reading instruction. They further added, "Secondary classrooms tend to be content centered and rarely provide reading-centered instruction, secondary teachers grapple with how best to serve students with reading difficulties" (p.

176). Harris et al. (2000) further added, “Secondary classrooms was limited in its ability to respond to adolescents’ developmental needs as learners and individuals posing significant challenges to maintaining and fostering students’ academic motivation” (p. 232). The secondary classroom was known by the outlay of the classroom with emphasis of teacher autonomy and self-control, whole-group teaching, fewer opportunities for student decision-making and student voice, and classroom work that required lower-level thinking skills. They concluded, urban middle school students who had problems reading at an early age continued to struggle as they got older and the gap widened. Additionally, Shippen et al. (2005) shared the greatest way to improve the insufficient areas was to provide intentional direct teaching that used research-based strategies.

Haynes (2011) added policy makers must require high schools to have well-trained teachers who have sufficient knowledge of reading and writing within their area of specialty. He concluded secondary school teachers’ understanding about reading development and problems displayed that many were not equipped to teach or integrate literacy strategies. Haung and Cho (2010) stated that hiring and retaining qualified staff posed a challenge. “There is an ongoing and urgent need to recruit the best and brightest for urban school teaching, yet little is known about how to recruit graduates into teaching for urban schools” (Conley et al., 2005, p. 31). The researcher concluded the greatest way to improve the insufficient areas was to provide intentional direct teaching that used research-based strategies.

Middle school teachers had a special commitment to the young pre-teen learner and realized that teacher preparation was the best way to prepare them for the population of students they served, according to research by Mee & Haverback (2014). As shared

by Harris et al. (2000), “Many teachers did not have specific training in teaching reading” (p. 22). They further added teachers did not have time or the resources to provide one-on-one assistance needed for students who were struggling. Teachers perceived literary practices including vocabulary, comprehension, and writing instruction as unnecessary add-ons (Conley et al., 2005). Mee and Haverback (2014) added, there was lack of research available that focused primarily on middle school teachers, but he concluded, “With more specialized training, middle school teachers were more likely to stay in the middle school classroom in contrast to those teachers trained in programs for elementary or high school” (p. 41). School principals could more accurately assess what needed to be addressed in professional development by using then-current student achievement data (Hayes & Robnolt, 2007). The school was more capable to comprehend and use data to determine the exact needs of the students. Hayes and Robnolt (2007) further added that teachers liked working with students in this particular age group and felt they could connect with them, and they also liked teaching the middle school content. Professional development and assessment of data were ongoing areas in which they needed continual support to help impoverished students achieve to their greatest potential.

Reading Achievement in an Urban Environment

Students entering schools in high-poverty, disadvantaged environments were more likely to be less prepared for school readiness (Haughey, Snart, & Costa 2001). Rasinski et al. (2005) stated, “Middle and high school students from urban areas experienced more difficulty in reading than students from nonurban areas” (p. 23). By the year 2003, an estimated 40% African American students would encompass the school population in the nation (Somers et al., 2008). Somers et al. (2008) further added, in

larger cities in states, such as California, Michigan, New York, and Texas, they would represent about 70% of the population. Children from households of poverty were identified as at-risk learners (Musti-Rao & Cartledge, 2007). Rebell and Wolff (2012) agreed with Musti-Rao and Cartledge (2007) and Haughey, et al. (2001) and added that children who were raised in poverty were far more likely to experience situations that made learning more challenging and placed them in jeopardy for academic failure. Rebell and Wolff (2012) further shared similar reports that “America does not have a general education crisis; we have a poverty crisis” (p. 62). Those environments included “poverty, cultural or linguistic diversity, educational expectation, and level of education of family members” (Musti-Rao & Cartledge, 2007, p. 70). Student mobility was another factor most likely to impact children in urban areas, but nationally, rural areas had a mobility rate of 15% (Bulkin & Isenhagen, 2011). According to a study on “Nebraska’s Reading First initiative found that low-income students were 80% more likely to be mobile than their peers” (Bulkin & Isenhagen, 2011, p. 18). Mobility was linked to the relationship of poverty and the jeopardy of academic failure, as well as the strong link between poverty and frequent transitions from school to school. Reading was most noticed to be an area of failure for children of color with nearly “70% of urban fourth-grade students reading below basic levels” (Musti-Rao & Cartledge, 2007, p. 70).

Adolescents from poverty lacked resistance in which they were not willing to try to achieve and were unable to keep up with schoolwork (Haughey et al., 2001). The youngsters developed coping skills that relieved stress and decreased their desire to attempt to learn. Despite additional help from teachers, several of the children were not successful in school. When classrooms of low poverty children were crammed with more

than 20 students, the teacher had a difficult time getting them on task (Farkas, 2000). To add to the existing problem, the students lacked focus, which made it impossible to get them to pay attention to class assignments, and made it even more difficult for the teacher to master the curriculum. Bulkin and Isernhagen (2011) added, “Nearly half a million children in the Midwest were living in poverty, and thousands more are living just above the poverty line, leading to the conclusion that the risk of frequent mobility and academic failure is heightened” (p. 18). Farkas (2000) further added the students were “already behind in their skills and the teacher was not typically using the most effective, research-based curriculum and instructional techniques” (p. 54). Teachers added that mobile students displayed poor attitudes and bad behaviors that made it hard to reach the students (Bulkin & Isernhagen, 2011). The frequent mobility and unexpected classroom changes made it difficult for teachers to plan and deliver quality instruction. Somers et al. (2008) provided additional research and shared there were other factors that added to youths’ educational advancement other than the traditional curriculum. They shared the concern of school attrition and school climate. It was imperative to understand that young teenagers’ opinions, feelings, and thoughts toward their learning could be a contributing factor towards their academic performance. This began a cycle of failure that the children were unable to spiral out of due to their environment (Somers et al., 2008).

There was much debate about providing poverty children the same opportunities as middle-class youth. It was well known that youngsters living in poverty were overrepresented among the vast majority of school-aged children with reading deficiencies (Kainz & Vernon-Feagans, 2007). The drawback was that in all cultures at

all times, youth of families near the lowest economic system began their lifespan at a disadvantage. Their deficiencies were not all associated with their abilities, but also due to the “lack of specific knowledge of letters, sounds, word attack skills, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary, composition and writing that by the end of the first grade began to build a pattern of school failure for low-income children” (Farkas, 2000, p. 54).

However, the problems that affected low income children extended further than reading instruction and more inclusive models of reading development were needed to move from policy to practice to improve outcomes for marginalized children (Somers et al., 2008).

Farkas (2000) shared the main hindrance for poverty children were their home experiences before they started school. Kabuto (2009) agreed with Farkas (2000) that children in poverty were not as motivated about reading in school. They were more excited to participate in “extracurricular activities, such as skating, swimming, and dance” (p. 213). In addition, Kennedy (2010) concluded that levels of motivation were predictors of reading achievement. Bulkin and Isernhagen (2011) shared lower income families often moved to several different schools during the course of their school, but the experiences were found to be traumatic for students. The dropout rate of mobile students in poverty families was 10 times higher than the rate for middle and high-income families (Bulkin & Isernhagen, 2011). Middle class children were found to be more involved in reading, self-motivated, had more self-confidence and greater levels of reading achievement than children of poverty who read less often or who were motivated by external rewards. In comparison to middle-income families, poverty families had less adequate physical and emotional support and weaker language, reasoning and behavioral habits preparation for schooling. According to Rebell and Wolff (2012), the United

States conquered its goals of fairness in preparing poverty children to be successful and productive citizens through a collaborative effort to reduce socioeconomic barriers. The four key areas were: (1) Early Childhood Education programs to prepare children for early development, (2) preventive physical and health care to promote healthy bodies, (3) expanded learning opportunities to improve academic learning, and social and civic development needed to succeed in school, and (4) family engagement and support that promoted academic development (Rebell & Wolff, 2012 p. 62). There were four key areas discussed that needed to be addressed in order to close the gap (see Table 10)

Table 10

Rebell and Wolff's Strategies for Closing the Achievement Gap

Four Areas

Area 1	Early childhood education beginning from birth that ensures the range of development necessary to be ready for school.
Area 2	Routine and preventive physical and mental health care that maintain bodies and minds that are able to learn effectively.
Area 3	After-school, summer, and other expanded learning time opportunities that bolster academic learning and promote social, emotional, and civic development necessary to succeed in school; and
Area 4	Family engagement and support that foster student's academic development.

Note. Adapted from Rebell and Wolff (2012, p. 62).

Teacher Perception of Corrective Reading Intervention Before and After

Implementation

The Reading First Initiative was signed into law in January 2002 under former President George W. Bush as an initiative to improve reading when the NCLB Act was

signed into law (Owens, 2010). Schools were required to use “scientifically based” procedures to teach reading instruction (p. 112). Bender et al. (2011) agreed with Owens (2010) that evidence-based practices fostered academic success and produced better outcomes than other programs. Krashen (2011) expressed that several students had either untreated or ongoing reading difficulties that prolonged into the secondary grades. Many of the youngsters demonstrated reading problems that significantly hindered their “reading to learn and reading for pleasure” (p. 932). Most were embarrassed by their inability to read and would be willing to try if they felt the interventions actually worked. Reading fluency extended further than the primary grades (Rasinski et al., 2005). Title I supplemental services showed that struggling students in elementary grades lacked reading fluency and by fourth grade, had not yet attained a minimal level of reading fluency (Rasinski et al., 2005). Harris et al. (2000) shared many high school students entered their freshman year without the necessary reading skills needed to complete graduation requirements. Rasinski et al. (2005) added the relationship between fluency and comprehension derived from “LaBerge and Samuel’s theory that readers who have not achieved automaticity in word recognition must apply a significant amount of their finite cognitive energies to consciously decode the words they encounter while reading” (p. 22). They spent too much time focusing on skills they had not acquired and lost the time they could have used to focus on tasks that were more important.

Corrective reading interventions and student achievement in a suburban high school had been studied, with no emphasis on interventions in a middle school for grades 5 through 8. According to Cooper et al. (2007), due to the environment of the abbreviated class periods and transitions between class periods at the secondary level, the

school day did not allow for focused reading instruction at the secondary level. If middle and high school adolescents were recognized as having learning deficiencies, reading was often not offered as an isolated area of instruction (Cooper et al., 2007). Teachers assumed reading skills were mastered prior to entering high school ELA classes (Harris et al., 2000). Rasinski et al. (2005) suggested that reading fluency was needed for high school students. Students who were slow and disfluent readers were at a disadvantage to reading proficiency, when compared to their peers who read at an average rate. In a study conducted with high school students, it was found that 186 of 303 students read below the 25th percentile rate for eighth grade (Rasinski et al., 2005). Those results reflected that the students required more time to complete reading assignments than for those who read at an average reading rate. It was found that poor reading performance led to “frustration, avoidance of reading, and ultimately school failure” (Rasinski et al., 2005, p. 26).

McDaniel, Duchaine, and Jolivette (2010) shared that corrective reading could decrease the low academic performance of students with emotional and behavioral disorders when implemented with fidelity. Research showed that the scripted program performed on adolescent students with behavioral challenges and those in the juvenile justice system were effective in improving their reading abilities when pre- and post-assessments were compared. Bender et al. (2011) agreed with McDaniel et al. (2010) that structured intervention programs were more efficient than programs that were unstructured and offered peer socialization or recreation approaches. In addition, Harris et al. (2000) added that the scripted program used to teach direct instruction for decoding and reading comprehension helped improve reading for students in grades 3 through 12.

Cooper et al. (2007) shared peer tutoring on reading intervention for elementary school aged children showed evidence to support the use of peer tutoring, but there was limited evidence to show support for improving reading with secondary school students.

However, this was alarming, because the cry for children to learn to read and comprehend persisted beyond elementary school (Cooper et al., 2007). Additional studies involving more secondary students were needed to determine the extent to which peer tutoring could affect students' reading. However, in spite of possible obstacles, research examined the success of peer tutoring, combined with corrective reading and repeated readings with oral reading fluency on high school students, and the results were positive (Cooper et al., 2007). The process of teaching the scripted program allowed teachers to deliver the curriculum in an effective way, even if they were new and inexperienced teachers.

Another reading intervention tried was President Bill Clinton's Reading One-to-One program that provided tutoring assistance to more than 15,000 poverty children (Farkas, 2000). As noted by President Clinton, middle school students who attended after-school program over a two-year period showed an increase in mathematics scores, as compared to their classmates (see Table 11). The after-school program was also noted to decrease the use of drugs and alcohol (Farkas, 2000). Not only did after-school programs improve reading skills, but it helped improve mathematics scores and reduced the use of drugs and alcohol (see Table 11).

Table 11

Outcomes of Middle School Students

Academic Outcomes	Behavioral Outcomes
<p>Middle school students who regularly attended the high-quality afterschool programs (alone or in combination with other activities) across two years demonstrated significant gains in standardized math test scores, compared to their peers who were routinely unsupervised during afterschool hours. Regular participation in the programs was associated with gains of 12 percentiles in math achievement test scores over the two-year period, relative to students who were routinely unsupervised after school. These gains generated effect sizes of .57 for the the Program Plus group and .55 for the Program Only group, relative to the Low Supervision group.</p>	<p>Reductions in misconduct over two-year period were reported by Program Plus and Program Only middle school students, relative to the Low Supervision group (effect sizes of .64 and .55 significant gains respectively).</p>
<p>Middle school students who regularly participated in high-quality afterschool programs had significant gains in reported work habits, relative to Supervision group (effect sizes of .64 and .55 respectively)</p>	<p>Middle school students who regularly participated in afterschool programs also reported reduced use of drugs and alcohol, compared to those in the Low self-supervision group (effect sizes of .47 for Low Only and .67 for Program Plus) are four to six times larger than those reported in a recent meta-analysis of school-based substance-abuse prevention programs aimed at middle school students.</p>

Note. Adapted from Vandell et al. (2007, p. 6). Table created from information in the article.

Reading fluency was an essential component in the improvement of independent readers (Hilsmier, Wehby, & Falk, 2016). As shared by Hilsmier, Wehby, and Falk (2016), fluency was defined as the capability to read words correctly and rapidly with little to no effort on the context of printed words. More importantly, Biancarosa (2005) exclaimed, “Direct, explicit instruction as summarizing, identifying text structure and visual clues, calling on prior knowledge and using graphic organizers improves student’s reading comprehension” (p. 17). Elleman et al. (2009) “conducted a meta-analysis of vocabulary interventions in grades pre-K to 12 with 37 studies to better comprehend the

impact that vocabulary development had on comprehension” (p. 1). Vocabulary instruction was found to be effective with custom measures $d = 0.50$ (Elleman et al., 2009). In yet another study, Pyle (2012) conducted a study on the “implementation of vocabulary and comprehension and found that overall fidelity of on the prediction of basic reading skills ($p < .01$) and reading comprehension ($p < .05$) was statistically significant” (p. 110). Readers that were fluent had the ability to, “automatically decode words and concentrate on grasping the details of what was being read, while reading text quickly, accurately and with meaning” (Hilsmier et al., 2016, p. 54). When Corrective Reading Decoding was implemented with high fidelity implementation, struggling readers showed improvement in decoding and comprehension (Pyle, 2012).

Summary

This researcher examined reading interventions in the after-school programs in a Midwestern urban middle school. The researcher explored the ways that urban students learned in comparison to their peers. In addition to the research included in this literature review, the researcher also investigated the best way to promote reading in the after-school program in an urban middle school. The issue was not whether the students could learn, but in what ways did they learn best and how best to provide highly qualified teachers to teach them in a way they could learn. Teachers needed to know how to address the PIES needs of urban middle school students. They also needed to have ongoing professional development to be prepared to meet the challenges of urban middle school students. The researcher also explored reading interventions for impoverished students, to see if there was a program that best met their unique needs and addressed the gap in teaching and learning in the urban middle school. Elementary and middle school-

aged children needed a safe and nurturing educational environment that quality after-school programs provided (Rinehart, 2008). Intervention programs for students that were structured and scripted provided better outcomes than programs that provided social interactions and less academics.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

According to data collected from Anytown SD 123, student proficiency scores in reading were 18.7% compared to the state average of 59% (East St. Louis School District 189, n.d., p. 2). Due to the previous work of Harris et al. (2000), Haynes (2011), and Somers et al. (2008), the researcher investigated a possible relationship between corrective reading interventions and student reading achievement in an urban public middle school after-school program. In addition, the researcher investigated teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading in the 5th through 8th grade levels in an urban setting. The study examined if corrective reading was related to the student's reading achievement, as measured by NWEA assessments.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to investigate a possible relationship between corrective reading interventions and student reading achievement in an urban public middle school after-school program, 21st CCLC. In addition, this study explored teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions. The study examined if corrective reading was related to the student's reading achievement, as measured by NWEA assessments. The study focused on fifth through eighth grade students in a middle school in a public urban school setting. The researcher chose this grade level for several reasons. The district conducted a needs assessment and determined that elementary students were performing below basic, but once the students received interventions with the reading teacher, their grades improved. It was also noted that

middle school teachers usually did not focus on reading instruction; they usually taught ELA. Since the corrective reading showed improvements with the elementary students, the district wanted to see if the interventions would help in the middle school. As a result of their assessment, the district decided to incorporate the after-school program and provide research-based reading instruction interventions.

It was noted that ELA teachers incorporated the five strands of ELA instruction, which included, reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing, but did not teach reading in isolation to focus on improving reading comprehension and vocabulary development. Secondary school courses were often considered as content driven with a firm adherence to subject matter limitations (Conley et al., 2005). The after-school program in the middle school was the only program in the district that provided the corrective reading interventions. Another reason the researcher chose this group was the researcher wanted to investigate if reading intervention influenced reading achievement at the middle school level. The researcher hoped to determine if the Corrective Reading Intervention influenced the reading achievement of students who participated in the after-school program. The district did not offer after-school programs, other than the 21st CCLC, the after-school program that was the focus of this study. The Corrective Reading Interventions were specifically purchased to address the needs of the students in the after-school program.

Instruments

The researcher chose a mixed-methods study for this research. According to Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2016) a “mixed methods study involves the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study” (p. 555). By selecting the mixed-

methods study, the researcher wanted to gain a more informed understanding of the research questions and possible relationship between teacher instruction in the after-school program and student achievement in grades 5 through 8. The researcher collected data from pre- and post-surveys, student NWEA test data, and classroom observations as data gathering tools. The surveys gave feedback on teacher perception of corrective reading intervention, student achievement in reading, and the possible relationship between NWEA assessments. The NWEA test data also provided information on student achievement before, during, and after teacher-implemented corrective reading. The Corrective Reading Walkthrough Tool provided data on how teachers applied instructional practices and strategies to teach corrective reading during the after-school program hours of 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. The researcher designed the corrective reading Classroom Walkthrough Tool, as well as the teacher surveys. Before the tools were used in the after-school program, the researcher sent the tools to the district's instructional coach to test for reliability and validity before utilizing them in the after-school program (Maxwell, 2013). The researcher chose to use classroom observations to obtain reliable and valid data on teacher instructional practices (Frankel et al., 2012) (See Table 12)

Table 12

Time Line and Order of Procedures

<p>Null H1:</p> <p>There is no relationship between teacher perception of Corrective Reading Interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after school program.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student NWEA test data • Teacher perception pre surveys (see Appendix A) • Teacher perception post surveys (see Appendix B) 	<p>Twice Per Year</p> <p>winter and summer student NWEA test data.</p> <p>Teacher perception pre survey (see Appendix A) to establish baseline data at the end of 2nd quarter and a post participation survey (see Appendix B) at the end of the 4th quarter.</p>
<p>Null H2:</p> <p>There is no relationship between the number of professional development hours that teachers received to teach Corrective reading and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after school program.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student NWEA test data • Teacher perception pre surveys (see Appendix A) • Teacher perception post surveys (see Appendix B) 	<p>Twice Per Year</p> <p>winter and summer student NWEA test data.</p> <p>Teacher perception pre survey (see Appendix A) to establish baseline data at the mid-term of the 3rd quarter and a post survey (see Appendix B) at the end of the 4th quarter.</p>
<p>Null H3:</p> <p>There is no difference between the teacher’s rating of Corrective Reading Interventions according to McGraw Hill’s Corrective Reading Interventions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom Walkthrough Tool (see Appendix C) • McGraw Hill’s Corrective Reading Strategies for Decoding and Comprehension (see Appendix D) 	<p>Four Times Per Year</p> <p>Two classroom observations at the end of 3rd and 4th quarters (see Appendix C)</p> <p>Twice Per Year</p> <p>McGraw Hill’s Corrective Reading Strategies for Decoding and Comprehension (see Appendix D) to establish baseline data at the mid-term of the 3rd quarter and a post-participation assessment at the end of 4th quarter.</p>

Continued

Table 12. Continued

<p>RQ1:</p> <p>How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied reading in the after school program, 5-8 grade level?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom Observation Tool (see Appendix C) • McGraw Hill’s Corrective Reading Strategies for Decoding and Comprehension (see Appendix D) 	<p>Four Times Per Year</p> <p>Two classroom observations at the end of 3rd and 4th quarters (see Appendix C)</p> <p>Twice Per Year</p> <p>McGraw Hill’s Corrective Reading Strategies for Decoding and Comprehension (see Appendix D) to establish baseline data at the mid-term of the 3rd quarter and a post-participation assessment at the end of 4th quarter.</p>
<p>RQ2:</p> <p>What are teacher perceptions of interventions before and after the implementation of Corrective reading interventions in the after school program, 5-8 grade level</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student NWEA test data • Teacher perception pre surveys (see Appendix A) • Teacher perception post surveys (see Appendix B) 	<p>Twice Per Year</p> <p>winter and summer student NWEA test data.</p> <p>Teacher perception pre survey (see Appendix A) to establish baseline data at the mid-term of the 3rd quarter and a post participation survey (see Appendix B) at the end of the 4th quarter.</p>

Surveys

Upon approval of the study from the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board, as well as permission from the researched district, the researcher met with the ELA teachers during a department meeting at the middle school. The researcher explained the study and distributed hard copies of the surveys and asked the ELA teachers to complete them and sign the signature page giving consent to participate in the study. A box marked ‘surveys’ was left in the office for teachers to return their completed surveys when finished. The pre- and post-survey questions were completed

with paper and pencil during the spring and summer semester 2017 (see Appendix A & Appendix B). The researcher included Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD), for survey choices. The researcher created the survey based on the researched school's English Language Arts curriculum for grades 5 through 8. Participants received 18 pre-surveys during the spring semester 2016. Initially, 12 were received and the researcher extended the deadline and sent email reminders to the remaining six English Language Arts teachers and followed up with face-to-face visits. After extending the deadline, the remaining six were completed.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The researcher investigated the following three hypotheses for the study:

Null H1: There is no relationship between teacher pre- and post-survey of teacher perception of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

Null H2: There is no relationship between the number of hours of professional development received in corrective reading interventions and student achievement (posttest) in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

Null H3: There is no difference in student achievement in reading after corrective reading interventions were implemented.

Research Questions:

RQ1: How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied in reading in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

RQ2: What are teacher perceptions of interventions before and after the implementation of corrective reading interventions in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

The Research Site

The participants recruited for the study were English Language Arts teachers from a Midwestern urban middle school of 600 students in grades 5 through 8. The students in the district were 100% African American, and they all received Free-and-Reduced lunch. The entire school was a Title I school. The school also received additional funds through a School Improvement Grant (SIG) for four years. The 2016-2017 school year was the last year of the grant. There were 18 teachers who instructed fifth through eighth grade ELA that were recruited for the study. Of the 18, 17 were females and one male. Ten were African American and eight were Caucasian.

Table 13

Demographics of Participants

Gender	Number
Males	1
Females	17
Race	
African American	10
Caucasian	8

Of those interviewed, three taught Special Education, 10 taught regular education classes, along with one Special Education co-teacher, one regular education co-teacher, and three ELA teachers. All regular education and special education teachers taught at least one strand of ELA and had students that participated in the after-school program. The ELA teachers taught ELA specifically, and the co teachers shared in the teaching responsibilities of rotating between classrooms during the ELA instructional time. Some

participants were excluded if they were not an ELA teacher or if they did not have any students who participated in the after-school program.

Table 14

Demographic Data of Job Assignments

Teaching positions of Staff	Number of Staff completing survey and position
Special Education Teacher	3
Special Education Co-Teacher	1
Regular Education Teachers	10
Regular Education Co-Teacher	1
ELA Teachers	3

Relationship to the Participants

The researcher served as the After-school Program Manager, but did not have a direct relationship with the staff at the middle school, other than the five teachers who worked in the after-school program. The researcher observed classrooms during the after-school program as part of the job responsibilities. There were 18 ELA teachers in the building recruited for the study. The researcher sought teacher input on their perceptions of how students performed in class after participating in the after-school program and receiving corrective reading interventions. For the purpose of this study, the researcher wanted to investigate if there was a possible relationship between corrective reading intervention and student reading achievement.

Methodology

The researcher administered the teacher pre-perception survey to participants for baseline data in March 2017 and the post-survey for comparative data in June 2017. The survey questions focused on teacher perceptions of student participation in reading during the ELA content block. Teachers were provided 16 hours of professional development with the McGraw Hill Representative prior to using Corrective Reading Interventions in

the after-school program. The staff were not allowed to use the research-based Corrective Reading Intervention until the pre-survey was administered. Corrective reading was a new intervention introduced to all participants at the middle school. Corrective reading primarily focused on decoding and comprehension interventions for struggling readers. This was the only intervention used during the after-school program. The researcher used McGraw Hill's framework for Corrective Reading Interventions, which included (1) a decoding strand that taught vocabulary, structure, and concepts, and (2) a comprehension strand that taught students to write, think, and speak, as shared by the National Institute for Direct Instruction (2015). The researcher assessed the effectiveness of Corrective Reading during the end of second quarter, winter 2016, to establish baseline data and at the end of fourth quarter, June 2017, for post data.

The researcher conducted classroom observations during the after-school program using the Corrective Reading Walkthrough Tool (see Appendix C) to gather baseline data, at the end of 2nd quarter, winter 2016, on instructional practices in reading. The research participants were informed that all data collected from classroom observations remained confidential and not evaluative. The researcher observed all five teachers' classrooms during the after-school program block between March and June 2017, for approximately 30 to 45 minutes, to observe the word attack/board work, corrections in word attack, story reading, and checkouts/paired reading, as outlined in the Corrective Reading Walkthrough Tool. The data were recorded and previewed at the end of June 2017, to determine if there was a difference in academic achievement after students received corrective reading interventions.

The researcher used student NWEA reading scores as secondary data for grades five through eight. Students were assessed on the NWEA MAP Assessments three times during the 2016-2017 school year. The district's Director of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment Specialist provided RIT scores for all students in the district and the secondary data for the list of students who participated in the after-school program. The Director of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment Specialist provided the researcher a copy of the data from second quarter baseline data and fourth quarter, June 2017, post-data. There were 73 students recruited whose secondary data were analyzed for this study.

Quantitative Analysis

The researcher gathered the NWEA reading data, teacher perception pre- and post-survey data, and the Corrective Reading Walkthrough Tool data for analysis. The researcher applied a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMCC) regression analysis for Null H1 and Null H2. The researcher used a z -test for difference in proportion for Null H3 to determine if there was a difference between the averages of the winter, December 2016, and summer, June 2017, NWEA data. After analyzing each hypothesis separately, the researcher then synthesized the data to complete the quantitative portion of the analysis.

Qualitative Analysis

For the qualitative component of the study, the researcher used the open-ended questions from the pre-surveys to determine how teacher instructional practices and strategies were applied during reading in the after-school program for RQ1 and teacher perceptions of interventions before and after the implementation of corrective reading

interventions for RQ2. The researcher tabulated the observational data results by category. Next, the researcher found common themes for RQ1 and RQ2, and coded the themes of both research questions and reported the results of the data to determine if there were commonalities between them.

Limitations

There were several limitations in the study. The middle school attained a new grade level of fifth grade students and teachers. They were new to the middle school as they transitioned from the elementary to the middle school during the 2016-2017 school year. Neither the students nor the teachers were familiar with the middle school. Several teachers left the middle school and moved to other buildings throughout the district. Two new administrators were hired as assistant principals. Both were brand new to the building and one was a brand new, first-year administrator. One of the new administrators did not begin the school year on the first day of school, because she was out on FMLA. She did not return to work until the end of October 2016. The ELA Coach left the school in the fall on FMLA. A replacement ELA Coach was not hired to replace her position until the spring semester. The coach did not return or train anyone for her position; but instead, she retired at the end of the spring semester. Teachers hired during the second semester received limited training on Corrective Reading. The researched school district conducted additional hiring of middle school teachers during the second semester, and as a result, new teachers did not attend the professional development training on corrective reading nor had the same benefit as the other sixth through eighth-grade teachers. In addition, during the spring semester, the principal

announced at a staff meeting that he would not be returning to the district the next year. He informed the staff that he would be taking another job outside the district.

Summary

This chapter began with background information on the researched school district and corrective reading in the after-school program. The researcher began by providing an outline of the study and a description of the purpose, instruments, and surveys. Then, the researcher discussed the relationship to participants and the recruitment process. Finally, the researcher closed Chapter Three by explaining the coding the qualitative data from the study.

Chapter Four explores the findings of the mixed-methods study. It also reports on the analyzed data for each hypothesis and research question. Chapter Five discusses a summary of the research findings and implications, along with the program recommendations for future research.

Chapter Four: Results

Introduction

The analyses in Chapter Four aim to explore a possible relationship between corrective reading and student achievement in reading for grades 5 through 8 in the after-school program offered by the study site. The analyses also examined teacher perception of instructional practices before and after corrective reading interventions were applied. The researcher wanted to determine whether data analysis results supported rejection of the null hypotheses. The survey responses focused on the participants' perceptions of corrective reading interventions as it related to student reading achievement. Participants completed pre- and post-surveys on the perception of corrective reading interventions during the spring semester of 2017 and summer semester of 2017. Once the researcher collected and tabulated the data, the survey results and observational notes were analyzed and the data were stored on a password-protected file. The researcher then uploaded and analyzed, de-identified student NWEA data for winter 2016 semester and summer semester 2017 and triangulated the information.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The researcher investigated the following three hypotheses for the study:

Null H1: There is no relationship between pre- and post-survey of teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade levels in the after-school program.

Null H2: There is no relationship between the number of hours of professional development that teachers received in corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade levels in the after-school program.

Null H3: There is no difference in student achievement in reading after corrective reading interventions were implemented.

The researcher explored the following research question for the mixed methods study:

RQ1: How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied in reading in the after-school program, 5-8 grade levels?

RQ2: What are teacher perceptions of interventions before and after the implementation of corrective reading interventions in the after-school program, 5-8 grade levels?

Null Hypothesis 1

The researcher analyzed teacher pre- and post-survey data of regarding perceptions of corrective reading. The survey responses focused on the participants' perceptions of corrective reading, specifically as it related to corrective reading and student achievement for 5th through 8th grade levels. The scores for the survey responses ranged from 4, the highest, to 1, the lowest. The scores for each response were calculated and tabulated for an overall score for each participant (see Table 15). Then, the researcher calculated the overall scores for each subgroup (strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree, and disagree) to get an overall percentage and mean score for each question (see Table 16). To investigate the Null H1, the researcher used a PPMCC and descriptive regression analysis to test the relationship between the pre- and post-teacher perception surveys of corrective reading and student achievement in reading for grades 5 through 8.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between pre- and post-survey results of teacher perception of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade levels in the after-school program.

Table 15

Teacher Perception Pre-Survey Individual Scores Tabulated

Teacher	Scores
Teacher 1	18
Teacher 2	22
Teacher 3	12
Teacher 4	17
Teacher 5	17
Teacher 6	15
Teacher 7	18
Teacher 8	22
Teacher 9	21
Teacher 10	21
Teacher 11	18
Teacher 12	19
Teacher 13	22
Teacher 14	21
Teacher 15	20
Teacher 16	22
Teacher 17	16
Teacher 18	18

In the initial testing of Null H1 for this study, the researcher analyzed the participant responses from the spring 2017 pre-survey (see Table 15). Eighteen teachers responded to the survey statements and questions regarding their perceptions of corrective reading interventions.

Next, the researcher analyzed the summer 2017 teacher responses to the post-survey (see Table 16). The scores for the survey responses ranged from 28, the highest, to 10, the lowest. The analysis of participant pre- and post-survey responses revealed that teachers showed an increase in their perceptions that students performed better after corrective reading interventions were implemented in the after-school program.

Table 16

Teacher Perception Post-Survey Individual Scores Tabulated

Teacher	Scores
Teacher 1	21
Teacher 2	21
Teacher 3	10
Teacher 4	18
Teacher 5	28
Teacher 6	20
Teacher 7	20
Teacher 8	24
Teacher 9	22
Teacher 10	22
Teacher 11	15
Teacher 12	19
Teacher 13	21
Teacher 14	17
Teacher 15	21
Teacher 16	21
Teacher 17	19
Teacher 18	20

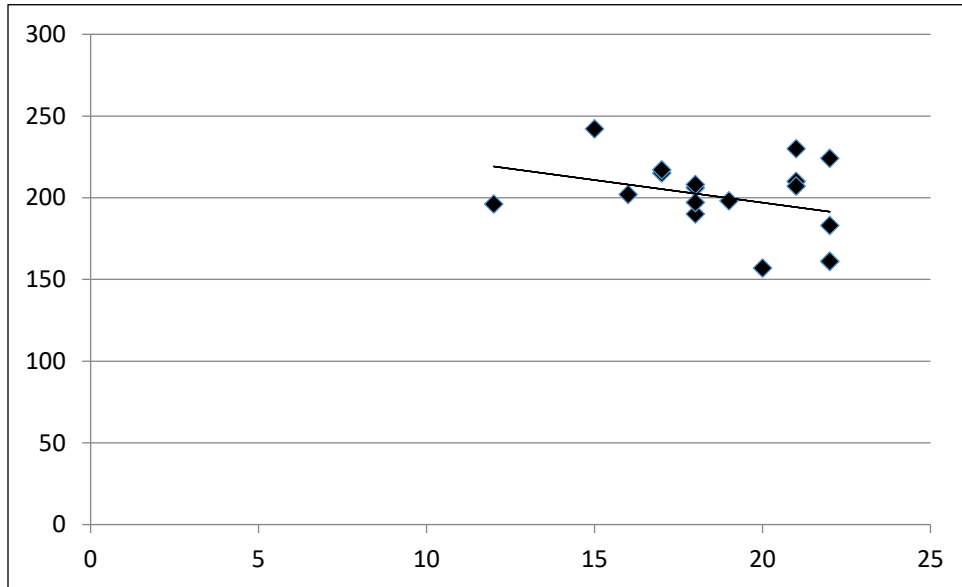


Figure 2. Teacher perception pre-survey data (spring 2017) averages and student pre-NWEA (winter 2016) averages by class. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and descriptive regression analysis. N = 18; $r = -0.333$

Next, the researcher used a PPMCC and descriptive analysis to determine the relationship between student NWEA scores (winter 2016) and teacher pre-perception survey data (spring 2017) of the corrective reading interventions (see Figure 2). The researcher concluded the data showed no difference and no relationship between teacher pre-survey data (spring 2017) and student reading achievement scores NWEA (winter 2016), $r(16) = 0.333, p > 0.176923$. A p -value greater than .05 indicated non-rejection of the null hypothesis, and that there was no correlation between teacher pre-survey (spring 2017) and student pre-NWEA data (winter 2016) therefore; the researcher failed to support the alternate hypothesis.

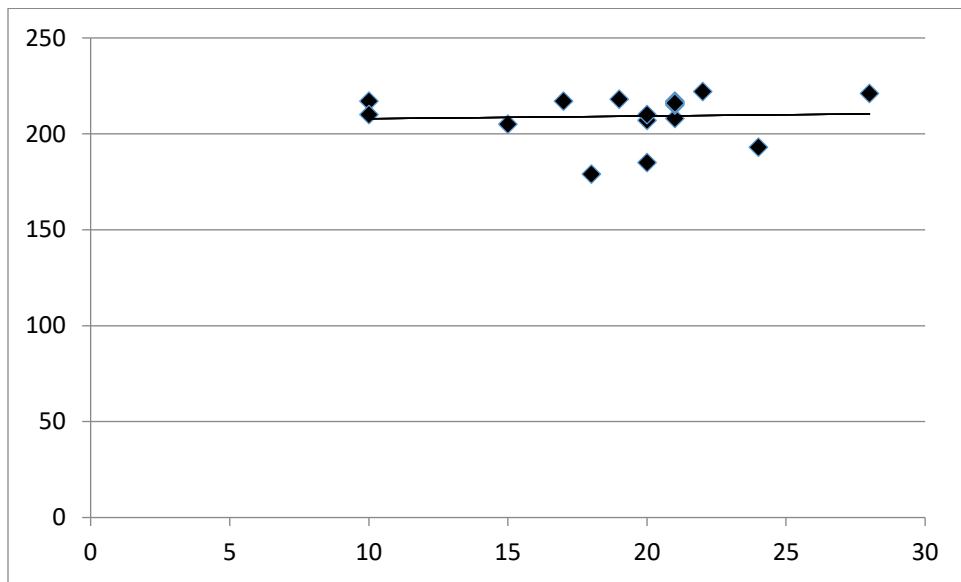


Figure 3. Teacher perception post-survey data (summer 2017) averages and student post-NWEA (summer 2017) averages by class. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and descriptive regression analysis. $N = 18; r = 0.050$

The researcher also conducted a PPMCC to see if there was a relationship between the teacher post-perception survey data (summer 2017) and the student post-NWEA data (summer 2017). The researcher concluded the data showed no difference and no relationship between teacher post-perception data (summer 2017) and student

post-NWEA data (summer 2017) and student reading achievement in the after-school program, $r(16) = 0.050, p > 0.843808$. A p -value greater than .05 indicated non-rejection of the null hypothesis, and that there was no correlation between teacher post-survey (summer 2017) and student post-NWEA data (summer 2017); therefore, the researcher failed to support the alternate hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between the number of hours of professional development that teachers received in corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade levels in the after-school program.

The purpose of this null hypothesis was to analyze the data for a possible relationship between the teacher post-survey results (summer 2017) number of hours of professional development of corrective reading and student post-(summer 2017) NWEA data. The results could reveal a positive, negative, or no relationship between student reading achievement and teacher instruction (see Figure 4).

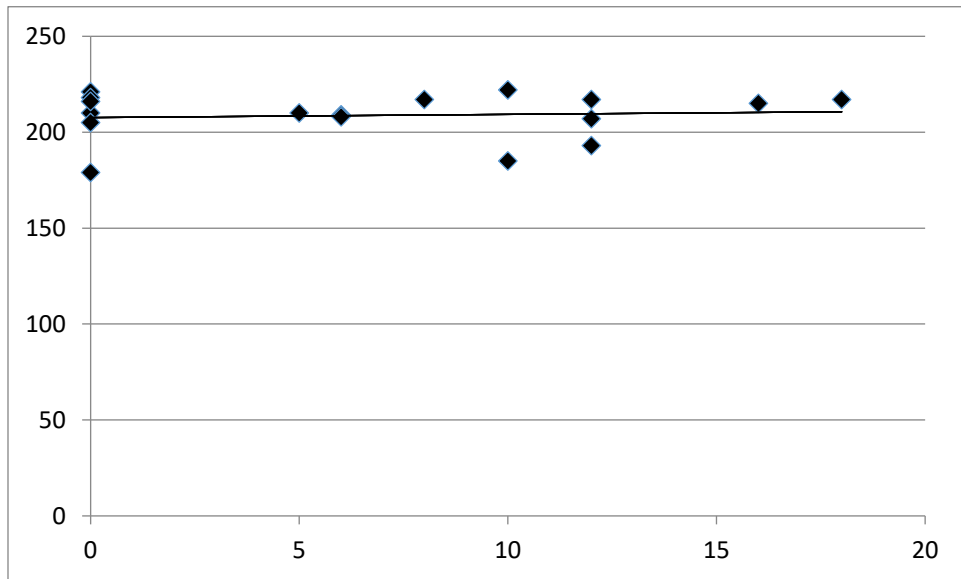


Figure 4. Teacher post-survey responses (summer 2017) for professional development/training on corrective reading interventions and student post-NWEA data (summer 2017). Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and descriptive regression analysis. $N = 18; r = 0.083$

First, the researcher examined individual teacher responses from (summer 2017) teacher surveys for the number of professional development hours they participated in from the post-survey data. Next, the researcher calculated the mean of student NWEA assessment scores from (summer 2017) data to determine a possible relationship in scores to the hours of professional development. If there was a relationship in hours from post-survey and student achievement, the test value could indicate a possible relationship between student achievement in reading and teacher professional development.

Participant professional development training for corrective reading hours ranged from 0 to 18, for pre- and post-surveys. However, the average number of professional development hours for spring 2017 averaged 0.777, and the mean for summer 2017 was 7.6; $r(16) = 0.083$, $p > 0.743347$ (see Figure 4). The p value of 0.743347 showed there was no difference, a weak relationship, and the variables were not related. A p -value greater than .05 indicated non-rejection of the null hypothesis, and that there was no correlation between teacher professional development (summer 2017) and student post-NWEA data (summer 2017); therefore, the researcher failed to support the alternate null.

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no difference in student achievement in reading after corrective reading interventions were implemented.

The purpose of this hypothesis was to analyze the data for a possible difference between the student ELA (winter 2016) NWEA scores and (summer 2017) NWEA scores. The results could reveal a positive, negative, or no relationship between the pre- and post-data for student reading achievement in the after-school program.

Table 17

Classroom Walkthrough Observations

Teacher	Observations 1-2	Observations 3-4	Observations 5-6	Mean
Teacher 1	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.6
Teacher 2	3.2	3.3	3.1	3.2
Teacher 3	3.0	2.9	3.2	2.7
Teacher 4	2.5	2.7	3.0	2.7
Teacher 5	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.5

Note: Teacher classroom observations from spring 2017-summer 2017.

The researcher observed teachers’ rating of teaching corrective reading in the after-school program to determine a possible difference in teacher improvement over time. As described in Chapter Three, data from spring 2017 (four observations) and summer 2017 were used in this portion of the study. Classroom teaching was observed twice during the third and fourth quarters of the school year. Each observation was scored according to teacher instruction in word attack/board work, corrections in word attack, story reading, and checkouts/paired reading (see Appendix C). The researcher observed classrooms and scored the rankings on a 4.0 scale. Then the researcher tabulated the totals to get an overall mean score (see Table 18).

Table 18

Student NWEA Data Winter 2016 - Summer 2017 Part 1 – Z-test

Description	Spring Pre-Test	Summer Post Test
Mean	209.21	208.96
Median	212	211
Mode	206	212
Standard Deviation	18.14	18.20
Variance	324.41	326.81
Minimum	157	158
Maximum	242	234
Count	73	73

The researcher concluded the data showed the z-score of 0.083, which was below the critical value of 1.96 (see Table 18). The measured difference was not statistically

significant, therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and failed to support the alternate hypothesis.

Next, the researcher explored the following research questions for the mixed-methods study to obtain more insight on perceptions of the corrective reading interventions in the after-school program for grades 5 through 8.

RQ1: How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied in reading in the after-school program, 5-8 grade levels?

The participants were asked to share any concerns about corrective reading interventions. The survey statements and questionnaires provided the researcher informative information regarding the study. Furthermore, questionnaires provided the respondents the opportunity to expand on thoughts that the survey did not include. The major areas identified by the respondents in the program are described in the following sections.

Consistency with Corrective Reading

Several respondents mentioned the need for consistency in the program. One teacher responded, 'Students need consistency in the program.' Another teacher spoke about consistency in regards to student attendance. She stated, 'Students must attend regularly to receive the full benefits of the after-school program.' While two others spoke about the concern for consistency with the curriculum, one teacher shared, 'Teachers need to stay on pace with the curriculum.' Finally, the last teacher exclaimed, 'My students need corrective reading!' The respondents felt the need for consistency with corrective reading to help students perform better in ELA classes.

Instruction

In the area of instruction, several respondents shared concerns about the assessment and instruction provided during corrective reading intervention. One teacher reported, 'There should be an initial assessment that more accurately measures the student's reading difficulty.' She further added, 'That way they can be grouped properly.' She concluded, 'The majority of our students who need reading interventions require more decoding and comprehension.' Another teacher stated, 'Focusing a little more on the fluency would be more beneficial to the students.' A fourth teacher responded, 'I teach older students and their main struggle is comprehension and I have not seen the program cater to comprehension.' She concluded, 'The emphasis is on phonetic and pronunciation strategies.' Whereas, the final teacher exclaimed, 'I would enjoy obtaining more information on corrective reading decoding strategies in reading.' Teachers responded based on their knowledge and level of comfort with teaching corrective reading interventions.

Corrective Reading Teacher Feedback

Two teachers reported no concerns with the corrective reading program, but offered favorable comments. One teacher exclaimed, 'Great program!' The other reported, 'I have no concern and I think the program is working for my students because they are more confident with their reading in class.'

The research showed mixed results reported by teachers about corrective reading interventions in the after-school program. The majority of respondents had concerns about the delivery of the instruction. They wanted to make sure that students were properly identified through assessment. The other area with the greatest concern was the

consistency of the program. Most staff felt that the program needed to be rigorous and students needed to attend regularly to receive the most benefit.

RQ2: What are teacher perceptions of interventions after the implementation of corrective reading interventions in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

Teachers were provided pre- and post-surveys to complete prior to implementing corrective reading interventions in the after-school program. At the conclusion of the survey, the participants were asked to share comments about corrective reading interventions and if the gains were aligned to the goals for improving student achievement. Participants were also asked to provide feedback on highlights the students gained in reading, and they were encouraged to share any comments or suggestions for improvement. The results of the pre-survey are displayed in Table 19.

Overall, the teacher responses were favorable in their perceptions of student academic achievement with reading due to the implementation of corrective reading in the after-school program according to the NWEA scores.

Then the researcher calculated the overall scores for each subgroup (strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree and disagree) to get an overall percentage and mean score for each question (see Table 20). Eighteen teachers responded to the post-survey questions regarding their perceptions of student achievement and corrective reading interventions in the after-school program.

Table 19

Teacher Pre-Survey Questions by Response Percentage and Mean

Questions	SA	A	SD	D	M
Students who participated in the after school program showed improved academic achievement in reading.	82%	10%	2%	6%	3.2
Corrective reading interventions met the needs for students who participated in the after school program.	80%	11%	4%	5%	3.0
Students who participated in the after school program were more prepared to participate in class during reading.	85%	6%	5%	4%	3.2
I am knowledgeable about corrective reading and decoding strategies in reading.	21%	10%	40%	29%	3.1
Students who participated in the after school program were more confident in their reading ability and as a result participated more in class during reading.	81%	15%	2%	2%	2.8
As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school program, students increased their reading skills.	70%	21%	4%	7%	3.0
As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school programs, students will increase their reading scores on the NWEA assessments.	65%	24%	6%	5%	2.9

Note. SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree M = Mean

Table 20

Teacher Post-Survey Questions by Response Percentage and Mean

Questions	SA	A	SD	D	M
Students who participated in the after school program showed improved academic achievement in reading.	69%	20%	4%	7%	3.4
Corrective reading interventions met the needs for students who participated in the after school program.	65%	24%	2%	10%	3.4
Students who participated in the after school program were more prepared to participate in class during reading.	50%	19%	8%	23%	3.5
I am knowledgeable about corrective reading and decoding strategies in reading.	60%	9%	13%	18%	3.5
Students who participated in the after school program were more confident in their reading ability and as a result participated more in class during reading.	81%	4%	5%	10%	3.4
As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school program, students increased their reading skills.	57%	10%	15%	18%	3.4
As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school programs, students will increase their reading scores on the NWEA assessments.	60%	20%	4%	16%	3.4

Note. SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree M = Mean

The responses for the post-surveys were slightly different from pre-survey responses. The mean score showed an increase in each category from the pre-to-post survey of at least three to six percentages. Teachers responded favorably to the response regarding students who participated in the program being more prepared in class during

the reading block (3.2 to 3.5). Also, teachers showed a gain in knowledge in utilizing corrective reading strategies and decoding strategies in reading after participating in professional development from pre-to-post survey (3.1 to 3.5). The greatest gain teachers noted was the increase of scores for students on the NWEA assessments (2.9 to 3.4) after participating in the after-school program.

RQ2-Qualitative Analysis: The analysis of the short answer survey questions was analyzed and emerged into major themes. The areas of concern were categorized under subheadings and the respondents' comments are listed below.

Struggling Students Performed Better

According to the data collected from teachers on the post-survey, several believed the corrective reading interventions helped their struggling readers to decode and comprehend better. Seven teachers responded, 'Yes, the program helped their students to perform better in reading.' They shared such comments as, 'Yes, I wanted a few struggling readers to improve.' Another commented, 'Students were able to decode and use strategies to help them comprehend what they were reading.' A third teacher stated, 'Corrective reading strategies aligned with goals for improving student achievement in reading.' A fourth teacher reported, 'Corrective reading was aligned to Common Core State Standards.' One teacher exclaimed, 'One young person who participated in the after-school program did very well on NWEA!' Another teacher shouted, 'One student who I serviced and received Special Education Services was no longer eligible for special education services within the school year!' The final teacher exclaimed, 'Students increased their NWEA scores.' The results reflected positive comments about the corrective reading.

Corrective Reading Benefits

There were positive responses from four other teachers that felt corrective reading was beneficial to their students. One teacher commented, 'Corrective reading is a good intervention to help those individual students who are struggling readers and/or non-readers.' However, she further added,

Implementing corrective reading in the after-school program in my opinion does not take into account that being in an after-school program is not mandatory although we highly recommend that they attend daily and offer incentives for them coming on a regular basis.

In contrast one teacher spoke about student attendance must be regular and consistent for students to show gains. She exclaimed, 'It is not as effective if students aren't coming on a regular basis to get that support the need to become successful readers.' A third teacher added, 'The students were placed in the appropriate level for their reading ability.' In addition, she continued, 'The strategies at these levels were aligned with the students' academic needs to improve their reading.' A fourth teacher exclaimed, 'As a result of using but not limited to these strategies, students' scores on NWEA were well above their peers.' These teachers would agree with the other teachers who felt the corrective reading interventions helped students perform better, but they must attend regularly to get the most benefits from the program.

Struggling Students' Needs

There were three teachers that responded to the survey that felt corrective reading did not help their struggling readers. One exclaimed, 'No, they did not perform better due to their need for comprehension.' She further added, 'The students were aware of the

letter sounds but lacked the much-needed comprehension skills.’ Another one stated, ‘The corrective Reading Program was only beneficial to my Special Service Students.’ A third and final participant reported, ‘I could not/did not see any gains as a result of after-school program.’ The results reflected that corrective reading interventions were not helping struggling students to perform better.

Comprehension Support

In addition to the respondents that did not think corrective reading strategies helped their struggling students, three other teachers did not think the corrective reading interventions addressed the comprehension skills, but focused more on decoding. One respondent reported, ‘Corrective reading addressed the issues with phonics and decoding but it didn’t put much focus on other areas like language arts, writing, etc.’ Another teacher shared, ‘There is a comprehension component to corrective reading but that component comes after the decoding is mastered.’ Additionally, she stated, ‘Since most students who struggle in reading also struggle in comprehension, I would like to see the decoding and comprehension taught concurrent instead of one after the other.’ A third teacher exclaimed, ‘The corrective reading goals do not offer much for comprehension for the upper grades.’ The overall response was that they felt corrective reading focused on decoding and not comprehension.

Confident Readers

Several teachers shared highlights of the corrective reading interventions in the after-school program. One of the respondents stated, ‘My students showed improvements in fluency, decoding strategies, and more confidence in reading.’ Another teacher reported, ‘All of my students showed an incredible amount of confidence in their

reading abilities consistently used reading strategies throughout the year.’ A third teacher shared, ‘The students did have an increase in self-confidence.’ In addition, ‘They were more responsive to the program since they skipped lessons based on their abilities.’ A fourth teacher commented, ‘The students are more confident; more reading participation and enhanced vocabulary.’ A fifth teacher lamented, ‘There was an increase in reading levels, struggling readers gained confidence.’ A sixth teacher exclaimed, ‘Students fluency, confidence and desire to read improved.’ Teachers felt students were more confident readers with the assistance of the corrective reading interventions.

Gains in Assessments

In the area of assessments, four respondents shared comments of support for the corrective reading program. One of the teachers shouted, ‘All my students made significant gains on their NWEA district assessments!’ She further exclaimed, ‘One of my students had a 30-point increase on their NWEA district assessments!’ A second teacher shared, ‘Two special education students made great gains in NWEA scores.’ A third teacher said students were ‘Increasing and making progress on NWEA scores.’ In addition, she shared, ‘Some of them tested out of Special education classes.’ The fourth teacher added, ‘Most, if not all, of our students went up one level in the corrective reading program by the end of the 21st CCLC after-school program.’

In addition to the gains in assessments, three other respondents reported students gained in other areas. For instance, one respondent reported, ‘Students are better able to analyze text and write to sources.’ She also stated, ‘They are able to use context clues to gauge meaning, and recognize and prove character traits.’ Another teacher shared, ‘Students that were not able to decode now have the needed skills to do so.’ A third

teacher commented, 'The corrective reading program is a wonderful program.' She further added, however, 'It is geared towards smaller groups.' Another teacher interjected, 'With the number of staff members we have in the 21st CCLC program, it is difficult to implement the corrective reading program with fidelity.'

Summary

The researcher presented findings and analyses for Null H1, Null H2, Null H3 and RQ1 and RQ in Chapter Four. The data analysis revealed results about teacher perceptions of corrective reading, professional development experiences, student reading achievement, and teachers' application of corrective reading instructional strategies in the researched school district. This mixed-methods study showed an observable weak relationship for pre- and post-study data between teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading in grades 5 through 8. Although many teachers had high expectations and responded favorably to the survey, there was a negative relationship between teacher perceptions and student improvement in student NWEA test results; therefore the researcher failed to reject the null H1 and failed to support the alternate H1.

In the second null, H2, data supported for a moderate relationship between the number of hours that teachers received professional development training for corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading according to the NWEA post data (summer 2017). The relationship was not statistically significant, and therefore the researcher failed to reject null H2 and failed to support alternate H2.

Next, the researcher looked at the relationship for null H3 to see if there was a difference between student winter 2016 NWEA data and summer 2017 data. The

research data (see Table 18) illustrated no difference in the scores, but they were positively correlated, therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null H3 and failed to support alternate H3.

The qualitative observational data demonstrated no observable change in how teachers taught corrective reading and how teachers applied the instructional strategies after they participated in professional development. Chapter Five provides a discussion on data presented in Chapter Four and suggestions and recommendations for district and building administrators for academic achievement for student improvement for grades 5 through 8.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Reflection

Introduction

This study investigated the corrective reading interventions used in the 21st CCLC, to determine if they improved student academic achievement. The researcher examined teacher perceptions of pre- and post-survey data of corrective reading interventions to see if there was a relationship with student pre- and post-achievement on NWEA assessment data. Next, the researcher examined the number of hours of professional development (summer 2017) and student achievement in reading according to the NWEA (summer 2017) data for grades 5 through 8. Finally, the researcher analyzed student pre (winter 2016) and posttest (summer 2017) NWEA data. The researcher believed if the study was able to show a relationship between corrective reading interventions and student achievement, the findings could possibly help the school district administrators make future decisions for professional development and interventions for students in the after-school program for grades 5 through 8. As shared by Berkeley et al. (2012) “a deficiency in reading skills at the secondary level not only hinders academic performance, but is the reason cited most by students for dropping out of school” (p. 1). Shippen et al. (2005) shared, “Because secondary classrooms tend to be content centered, and rarely provided reading-centered instruction, secondary teachers grappled with how best to serve students with reading difficulties” (p. 176). Based on information in this study, teacher perceptions, attitudes and beliefs about corrective reading were thought to be key factors in influencing student achievement. Teachers perceived that more practice students received produced better reading success and improvement (Nelson-Royles & Reglin, 2011). Within this study, there was great

emphasis placed on providing high-quality professional development to improve teacher practices with implementing corrective reading and improving student achievement. The researcher perceived if teachers received professional development on corrective reading, student achievement would improve on the NWEA assessment in reading. This study explored teacher practices and student achievement to determine if corrective reading interventions influenced student achievement.

In order for the researcher to obtain a better understanding of a possible relationship between teacher perceptions of corrective reading interventions for pre-data (spring 2017) and student pretest (winter 2016) data of corrective reading interventions, the ELA teachers received hard copies of the surveys (see Appendix A & B) during the building staff meeting. The researcher then compared the results of teacher pre-data results and student pre-NWEA data (winter 2016). Then, after teachers implemented the corrective reading interventions, another comparison for a possible relationship was conducted on the teacher perception post-data (summer 2017) and student post-NWEA data (summer 2017) (H1). For additional quantitative data, the researcher hoped to find a relationship between the number of hours that teachers received professional development training to teach corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, for the 5th through 8th grade levels in the after-school program (H2).

Next, to determine a difference in student pre (winter 2016) and student post-NWEA data (summer 2017), the researcher examined the pre-student NWEA data (winter 2016 and summer 2017) and evaluated the scores to see if there was a difference.

Finally, for the qualitative section of research, the researcher conducted classroom walkthrough observations using the corrective reading skills, open-ended questions from

the pre- and post-survey responses, and the professional development hours to analyze how teachers applied instructional strategies in the after-school program.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The researcher investigated the following three hypotheses for the study:

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between pre- and post-survey of teacher perception of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between the number of hours of professional development hours that teachers received and corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

Hypothesis 3: There is a difference in student achievement in reading after corrective reading interventions were implemented.

The researcher explored the following research questions for the mixed methods study:

RQ1: How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied in reading in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

RQ2: What are teacher perceptions of interventions before and after the implementation of corrective reading interventions in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

Discussion

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between pre- and post-survey of teacher perception of corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

Through examination of the results of teacher pre-survey data (spring 2017) and student pre-NWEA data (winter 2016), the researcher concluded that teachers experienced varied feelings about their perceptions of corrective reading interventions and student achievement. The PPMCC and descriptive analysis data revealed that there was not a relationship between teacher perceptions about corrective reading and student pre-NWEA data (winter 2016) for reading in grades 5 through 8.

Next, the researcher investigated the results of teacher post-survey data (summer 2017) and student pre-NWEA data (summer 2017), to see if there was a possible relationship between teacher perceptions and student achievement. It was concluded that data from the corrective reading interventions did not support improved student achievement. The PPMCC and descriptive analysis data revealed that there was not a relationship for teacher perceptions about corrective reading and student post-NWEA data (summer 2017) in reading for grades 5 through 8.

According to the data from the teacher pre-perceptions survey, 70% of the teachers strongly agreed and 21% agreed that corrective reading interventions would improve student achievement. Only 4% strongly disagreed and 7% disagreed that students' reading scores would not increase. In addition, 65% of teachers strongly agreed and 21% agreed that students receiving corrective reading in the after-school programs

would increase their reading scores on the NWEA assessments, and 6% strongly disagreed and 5% disagreed.

The data from the post-survey teacher perception data results (summer 2017) varied from the pre-perception (spring 2017) in which 57% strongly agreed and 10% agreed, and 15% strongly disagreed and 15% disagreed, that students' reading skills improved. Similarly, 60% strongly agreed and 10% agreed and 4% strongly disagreed, while 16% disagreed that student scores on the NWEA assessment would improve. Even though many teachers had high expectations and responded favorably to the survey that corrective reading would improve student achievement in reading and NWEA assessment scores. However, the analysis of the results showed there was not a relationship between teacher perceptions and student improvement in NWEA test results; therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null H1 and failed to support alternate H1. Based on the results, of the teacher perceptions from the pre- and posttest data analysis, students in the 21st CCLC after-school program did not perform better on NWEA assessments. This may have been due to the lack of time allotted for teachers to implement the instructional strategies after receiving professional development training and not offering time for discussion and feedback after professional development sessions.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between the number of hours of professional development that teachers received in corrective reading interventions and student achievement in reading, 5-8 grade level in the after-school program.

The researcher sought to determine if there was a possible relationship between the number of hours of professional development teachers received (summer 2017) to teach corrective reading and post (summer 2017) student achievement in reading, based

on NWEA assessment data. The analysis of the results of teacher hours of professional development (summer 2017) and post-NWEA data (summer 2017) showed a difference in individual teacher responses. Teacher results of professional development training for corrective reading hours ranged from 0 to 18 hours, for pre- and post-surveys. Prior to teaching corrective reading, teachers reported that they received 0 to 11 hours of professional development, and post-corrective reading professional development ranged from 0 to 20 hours. According to the research of Huang and Cho (2010), “Continuous professional development is needed to maintain staff efficacy, and regular staff training can improve the quality of afterschool programming” (p. 12). Huang and Cho (2010) further added that professional development should be tailored to the needs of the staff and their specific job duties.

For this null hypothesis (H2) teachers reported the average number of professional development hours for spring 2017 averaged 0.777 and the mean for summer 2017 was 7.6. In order to test this hypothesis, the researcher conducted a PPMCC and descriptive analysis to decide if a relationship occurred between the number of hours of professional development teachers received to teach corrective reading interventions (summer 2017) and student NWEA post (summer 2017) survey. The *p* value of 0.743347 showed there was no difference in the data after teachers participated in professional development training for corrective reading, and there was no difference in student post-NWEA data for summer 2017. Therefore, the data was not related and the researcher failed to reject the null H2 and failed to support alternate H2.

As discussed in Chapter Two, professional development was important for teacher growth and student learning. Low-income students and children near poverty

level had limited vocabulary knowledge, which contributed to the lack of comprehension in reading (Sobolak, 2011). As shared by Onofrey and Theurer (2007), “Many students require repeated instruction using a wide variety of genres and hands-on manipulative exercises, before they can visualize concrete and later, abstract concepts as they read” (p. 682). The school district may want to look at what types of professional development sessions were offered and provide teachers more professional development opportunities to use visual aids, dramatization, and other manipulatives when teaching reading to help students comprehend.

Hypothesis 3: There is a difference in student achievement in reading after corrective reading interventions were implemented.

The researcher examined the pre-NWEA scores (winter 2016) and the post (summer 2017) to determine if there was a difference. The researcher calculated the pre-scores (winter 2016) to get an average for the overall data to determine the mean, mode, standard deviation, and population deviation. Then the same steps were followed for the posttest scores (summer 2017) to obtain the mean, mode, standard deviation, and population deviation. The data findings for the z -score showed a score of 0.083, which was below the critical value of 1.96 and showed the difference in the data was not statistically significant, which meant that the corrective reading interventions in the after-school program were not helping students to improve their reading achievement. The results echoed the need for secondary classrooms to have longer ELA class periods rather than short periods with movement in between class (Cooper et al., 2007). Cooper et al. (2007) shared unless students were identified as having reading disabilities, reading was

often not provided as a separate area of instruction but incorporated with reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities (Cooper et. al., 2007; Leseaux et al., 2012).

Another recommendation to help increase student scores should include the researched district should incorporate more incentives to retain staff in current positions and not allow teachers to transfer to other buildings. The investment and staff trainings should remain relevant to each individual school building and the district should invest in retaining the teachers instead of constantly starting over with recruiting more teachers and providing more professional development.

The NWEA assessment scores were positively correlated. However, the lower performing students were not making much improvement. The students who scored high on the pretest (winter 2016), kept increasing on the posttest (summer 2017); but, the lower performing students were not improving. The corrective reading interventions did not make the gains that were expected in the after-school program. Some students scored worse on the post-test than the pre-test. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis H3 and failed to support alternate H3.

In addition to examining null H3, the researcher examined teacher classroom walkthroughs from second, third, and fourth quarters to see if there was a difference over time between the pre- and post-walkthroughs using the classroom walkthrough tool. The observations were ranked on a 4.0 scale based on their teaching of work attack/board work, corrections in word attack, story reading, and checkouts/paired readings. Each teacher was given an overall score for each quarter. There was a total of five teachers' classrooms observed. The observation for third quarter (1-2) ranged from 2.5 to 3.7, and 3.2 was the median. The mean for the observations for the mid-term of fourth quarter (3-

4) ranged from 2.9 to 3.5, with the median of 3.2. The data did not show an increase in teacher classroom observation scores from mid-term of third quarter to fourth quarter.

For the final observations, mid-fourth quarter (5-6) the observations ranged from 2.7 to 3.6, and the mean was 3.1. That was a slight decrease in teaching observations.

However, teachers 4 and 5 (40%) showed an improvement of teaching instruction in all quarters. Teachers 1 and 3 (40%) showed a 1.0 decline from the mid-term of third quarter to the beginning of fourth quarter, but increased 2.0 percentage points by the end of the fourth quarter. Teacher 2 (20%) showed a 1.0 increase from the mid-term of third quarter, but decreased the fourth quarter. The decrease may be due to teachers not receiving professional development training prior to implementing the interventions.

Therefore, they could not implement corrective reading with fidelity. The data showed a need for the researched district to monitor the type of professional development offered.

As discussed as part of the limitations to this study, teachers hired during the second semester received limited training on corrective reading. The researched school district conducted additional hiring of middle school teachers during the second semester, and as a result, new teachers did not attend the professional development training on corrective reading nor had the same benefit as the other sixth-eighth grade teachers. In addition, there needed to be some accountability for the persons that did not attend professional development, such as, establishing a required number of professional development hours teachers must complete before they were allowed to teach in the after-school program.

If teachers cannot physically attend the professional development on site they would have the option to participate in an online training and record the hours. There should also be records kept with sign in sheets to monitor the number of hours completed and a timeline

established for when teachers needed to complete all professional development. Lastly, administrators should include some reflection time with staff to discuss professional development training and revise or amend future trainings as needed. According to the pre-data of professional development hours, several teachers had not participated in the professional development compared to the post data. Many teachers still had not received training if they were hired later in the school year. If the district wanted to continue to monitor the increase of student assessment scores on the NWEA, then teachers should be required to participate in all professional development.

RQ1: How are teacher instructional practices and strategies applied in reading in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

The researcher analyzed the research questions through teacher surveys and classroom observations. From the analysis of teacher surveys, several common themes emerged from the data analysis. Teacher comments included a continuous need for support in staying on pace with the curriculum during the after-school program. They also discussed the need to be consistent with instruction and student attendance needs to be regular and consistent. In addition, they shared a concern about more professional development and training with analyzing the pre- and post-assessments. Some felt the students needed to be grouped differently based on the assessment. However, due to limited staff, it was hard to group students into the small groups required for the validity of the corrective reading interventions. Teachers felt they had too many students in a group to implement the interventions with fidelity.

RQ2: What are teacher perceptions of interventions after the

implementation of corrective reading interventions in the after-school program, 5-8 grade level?

The analysis of RQ2 reflected the results from the teacher surveys about their thinking of the corrective reading interventions in the after-school program. According to data collected from the surveys, many themes emerged that included struggling students performed better, the program was beneficial to students with regular (30) days of consistent attendance, corrective reading addressed the needs of students struggling with decoding, students were more confident readers, and they showed gains in assessments. While yet several teachers reported that students who did not attend regularly did not receive the full benefits of the program, struggling students' needs were not addressed and lower performing students did not perform better nor did they show improvements on their NWEA assessments. The final analysis was that corrective reading did not offer much support for lower performing students to improve their comprehension skills.

Teacher recommendations about the corrective reading interventions included having smaller class sizes and resources.

Smaller Class Sizes

Several teachers believed the corrective reading interventions would work better for smaller class sizes. One teacher commented, 'I feel the optimal delivery model for corrective reading classes are small group settings and in after-school the classes were larger than preferred.' She further added, 'I feel that small class sizes will yield a higher degree of growth for the program.' A second teacher reported, 'This reading intervention

is too scripted and requires a smaller class size for it to be truly beneficial.’ A third teacher responded, ‘This program is better suited for grades 5-8 or intervention classes.’

Resources

Four teachers felt they needed more resources to implement the program with fidelity. One of the teachers said, ‘Students need more books geared towards student interest.’ A second teacher stated, ‘I believe that the students could benefit from the entire program not just a portion.’ In addition, she added, ‘I also believe the location of the class will play a major role in the success of the students.’ The next teacher commented, ‘I would suggest that corrective reading be implemented during the school day when teachers have their intervention time with their students.’ The final teacher reported, ‘The entire program needs to be purchased so it can progressive as expected.’

Personal Reflections

The study of the 21st CCLC after-school program provided results in areas outside of the hypotheses and research questions. There were things, such as the decrease in teenage pregnancy and providing a safe haven for students so that they had a safe place to hang with friends, rather than finding themselves in the wrong place after-school dismissed. Teachers reported they were more relaxed in the after-school program and better able to build personable relationships with the students. Teachers also stated it was a good transition from the regular school day because they had a chance to interact with other students one-on-one. They also reported no concerns with the corrective reading program, but offered favorable comments. One teacher exclaimed, ‘Great program!’ The other reported, ‘I have no concern and I think the program is working for my students because they are more confident with their reading in class.’ Another benefit of

the 21st CCLC program was the decrease in juvenile crimes, drugs, and other violent behaviors that occurred during the hours of 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. In contrast, Shann (2001) shared there was little evidence supporting reports for benefits of students who participated in after-school programs for improving academic or cultural achievement. However, she further added that it helped to decrease the violent crimes that occurred between the hours of 2:00 p.m. and 7:00 p.m. In addition, Rinehart (2008) stated many students experimented with unsafe behaviors that led to them quitting school. It could be concluded that Shann (2001) and Rinehart (2008) would agree that there were some benefits to students participating in the after-school program.

A personal testimony from a parent said her 'godson' needed to be placed in the after-school program because no one was at home when school dismissed, and he needed a safe place for him to stay until someone arrived home. Program leaders and teachers made space and included him in the program and his teachers had many positive reports about him. The researcher was informed that his personality changed and he was no longer a shy and angry student, but a very loving and happy child. He was performing better in class, his confidence increased, and he participated on the school sports' team. Times such as these make the researcher proud to be a part of the 21st CCLC after-school program and provide the community needs that may not have otherwise existed without this program.

Recommendations to the Program

Academic and Enrichment Programming. The researched district should continue to staff each site with highly qualified, certified teachers, as well as paraprofessionals to support the delivery of activities, and most importantly the

program's academic component. Another recommendation for academic and enrichment would be to incorporate additional Common Core-aligned academic activities to help students improve their achievement levels, especially in reading and writing.

Furthermore, the enrichment activities should emphasize academic concepts in literacy.

The 21st CCLC program should continue to provide more opportunities for students to complete homework assignments and receive tutoring, as those activities support academic improvement. In addition, the program needs to be sure that students completed homework before they participated in enrichment or recreational activities.

The 21st CCLC staff and the regular classroom teachers of participating students needed more time to collaborate so that staff could work together to identify ways the after-school program could support instruction offered during the school day to help students achieve better course grades. Finally, the 21st CCLC program would need to provide more rigorous differentiated instruction for the lower performing students that did not increase their NWEA scores after receiving corrective reading interventions.

Family and Community Engagement

Parent and community engagement were goals established in the 21st CCLC program to strengthen family support. The researched district would need to continue to work closely with school personnel to establish site-specific Parent and Family Engagement plans that would be relevant and age appropriate to the school community. The district would also need to continue to seek ways to connect with hard-to-reach parents, including parents of middle and high school participants, so they could take full advantage of the family engagement and support services available through the program. In addition, the researched district would need to explore creative ways to engage parents

in program activities aimed at promoting their ability to support their child's education (e.g., providing door prizes, leveraging Lead Parents' contacts, etc.). Lastly, the researched district would need to discuss ways to work together with parents to identify outside agencies and resources in the community that could support parent engagement efforts, such as donations from local businesses.

Professional Development

In regards to professional development, the workshop/training schedule should include more professional development in the implementation of evidence and standards-based approaches to infusing reading, writing, speaking, and listening into program enrichment activities as outlined as goals of the 21st CCLC program. In addition, there would need to be more ways to track staff accountability and attendance during professional development trainings. Staff attendance should be tracked and monitored to show which training activities were completed, including agendas and sign-in sheets, to support the assessment of progress in each area.

Additionally, teacher participants had high expectations for students, according to the pre- and posttest survey data, but lower performing students did not increase their scores after receiving interventions. Lower performing students made minimal gains, while higher performing students continued to show gains. A recommendation is to allow students to track their own data along with the teachers. This would allow students to have more accountability and buy-in and help them to chart their own progress.

Sustainability

The researched district would need to continue efforts to engage a variety of stakeholders in program planning, implementation, and sustainability efforts, including

school-based personnel, parents, and community members. The goals of the sustainability plan should be shared with program partners and other members of the community. The district should also pursue new funding sources and leverage existing grant funds (such as GEAR UP and SIG) that could be used to enhance/sustain components of the 21st CCLC program.

Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher recommends using a larger sample size to see if the NWEA results would increase or remain the same. This study focused on 10% of the student population at the middle school. In this study, only one middle school was observed; however, analyzing the data of both middle schools and the high school to see how students in the secondary schools performed may help the researcher to understand the barriers to reading comprehension. Even though the data results for H1 reveal there was not a relationship between teacher perceptions regarding corrective reading and student achievement, more research should be done to determine where the barriers may lie. Teachers had positive attitudes and believed the interventions would help students achieve in reading, but students did not meet the expectations. The additional study of research on this topic should focus on the alignment to the curriculum to the district/state assessments. Corrective reading focused on decoding and phonetics, but did not provide a lot of support for reading comprehension. Several teachers commented about the lack of comprehension support that corrective reading interventions offered. One teacher shared, 'Corrective reading addressed the issues with phonics and decoding but it didn't put much focus on other areas like language arts, writing, etc.' Another stated, 'There is a comprehension component to corrective reading but that component comes after the

decoding is mastered.’ Additionally, she stated, ‘Since most students who struggle in reading also struggle in comprehension, I would like to see the decoding and comprehension taught concurrent instead of one after the other.’ A third teacher exclaimed, ‘The corrective reading goals do not offer much for comprehension for the upper grades.’ Therefore, I would suggest a more in depth look at the curriculum to see how it was aligned to the district’s curriculum.

As shown in H2, there was no difference in the data after teachers participated in professional development training for corrective reading and there was no difference in student post-NWEA data for summer 2017. Teachers reported positive attitudes and perceptions towards the corrective reading professional development. However, as discussed in the limitations in Chapter One, many of the teachers left the building for various reasons and moved to other buildings during the 2017-2018 school year. It would be important to conduct further research to determine if teacher retention and professional development were related. Therefore, more research needs to be conducted on the type of professional development offered and teachers’ attitudes and beliefs about the professional development they received.

Finally, the researcher examined the pre-NWEA (spring 2017) scores and the post (summer 2017) to determine if there was a difference. For this study there was not a difference and the corrective reading interventions were not helping the students in the after-school program perform better. Since this study primarily focused on student performance in ELA, more research should be conducted to survey other classroom teachers (mathematics, science, social studies, etc.) to see how the students from the 21st CCLC program were performing in other courses. It could help teachers to develop

retention plans for those students that were failing ELA classes. If the students were struggling in all courses, then the teachers could make recommendations for students to be evaluated for other learning problems. Also, the staff should offer test-taking strategies before and after the assessment, so students are aware of the importance of the test and be sure they take it seriously; some may not have taken the tests seriously. The fifth-grade classrooms were self-contained since this was their first year in the middle school, but they may need to be departmentalized in the future so that teachers could teach areas of their strength. Finally, several key teachers left the middle school and went to other buildings to follow administrators; therefore, offering incentives could retain teachers and administrators at the middle school.

Summary

This research study added to the existing body of knowledge about teacher perceptions and the influence on corrective reading interventions and student achievement in an after-school program for grades 5 through 8. It also added to the body of knowledge about teacher practices in receiving professional development in teaching corrective reading interventions and student achievement. The findings revealed teacher perceptions of corrective reading did not influence student achievement. Also, the results revealed how teachers applied instructional strategies in teaching corrective reading after receiving professional development. However, teacher participation in professional development did not influence student achievement. This study served as a resource to determine the future teacher practices and district professional development for the students in the after-school program. As discussed by Onofrey and Theurer (2007), after 30 years of research, teachers continued to have problems teaching reading

comprehension skills, conversely, students did not know how to visualize what they were reading, which lessened their ability to comprehend text. Therefore, teachers would need to differentiate how they teach reading and be sure to expose students to many genres and include hands-on manipulatives, so students could visualize what they were reading and improve their comprehension.

The traditional 'sit and get' professional development was not as productive for teachers as the inclusive in class, hands-on professional development. Teachers had been known to go to professional development trainings to obtain information, but did not apply it in their classrooms. However, if they received the professional development in their classroom with their students, they would be more likely to use it. Then the students could learn to apply the strategies in their reading and it would lead to improved student academic performance.

Student achievement in after-school programs was studied and it was shared that if the students received the right dose, it did have an impact on student learning. By using the phrase dose, Dietel (2009) referred to dose as a prescribed amount of medicine that one would receive for their body if they were sick. The formula for dosage for the after-school program that he was referring to was regular school attendance needed to reach a moderately high level to yield a significant impact. Dietel's (2009) study, compared to this study in that it was recommended that students needed to attend after-school programs for at least 30 days of regular attendance to have an influence in student achievement. David's (2011) research concluded that in order for students to get the most benefit out of the program, to see any results and establish clear objectives, they must attend at least two consecutive years. In Dietel's (2009) study, the students who

participated made significant gains in mathematics in comparison to non- after-school students. More research should be done on the relationship between attendance and reading achievement to determine if there was validity. However, in this study, corrective reading interventions and student achievement were studied and there was not a relationship. It appeared that teachers implemented the interventions with fidelity, but some improvements would need to be made to ensure student achievement improves. After reviewing teacher comments on their instructional strategies, if the district continued to use corrective reading in the after-school program, there may need to be adjustments. The district may want to consider the suggestions from teachers to limit class sizes, and purchase all resources. In addition, the district would need to continue to monitor classrooms to be sure teachers were implementing the curriculum according to the professional development they received, and they were using the purchased materials and not supplemental materials that did not provide the depth and knowledge for increasing student achievement in reading.

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Appendix A

Corrective Reading Pre-Survey

Grades 5-8

The purpose of this survey is to identify teacher satisfaction with the district’s corrective reading interventions in the after school program. All responses are confidential and anonymous. We appreciate your honest and thoughtful responses. Answer each question by providing the response that describes your ideas about corrective reading. Thank you!!!

Please check (√) the box or fill in the blank with the best answer for each statement:

At which school (s) are you employed? _____

What is your position? _____

What is your gender? ___ Female ___ Male

What is your race / ethnicity?

___ Asian ___ Hawaiian Pacific Islander ___ Other Pacific Islander
 ___ American Indian / Alaska Native ___ African American ___

Caucasian / White

___ Hispanic ___ Mixed Ethnic ___ Other _____

How many hours of training/professional development have you participated in for corrective reading this school year?_____

Please rate the following statements by circling your responses using the scale below:

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Students who participate in the after school program show improved academic achievement in reading.

SA A D SD

2. Corrective reading interventions meets the needs for students participating in the after school program.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

3. Students who participate in the after school program are more prepared to participate in class during reading.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

4. I am knowledgeable about corrective reading and decoding strategies in reading.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

5. Students who participate in the after school program are more confident in their reading ability and as a result participate more in class during reading.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

6. As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school program, students will increase their reading skills.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

7. As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school programs, students will increase their reading scores on the NWEA assessments.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

Please share any concerns you have about the corrective reading interventions including suggestions for improvement.

Thank you for completing this survey!

Appendix B

Corrective Reading Post-Survey

Grades 5-8

The purpose of this survey is to identify teacher satisfaction with the district’s corrective reading interventions in the after school program. All responses are confidential and anonymous. We appreciate your honest and thoughtful responses. Answer each question by providing the response that describes your ideas about corrective reading. Thank you!!!

Please check (√) the box or fill in the blank with the best answer for each statement:

At which school (s) are you employed? _____

What is your position? _____

What is your gender? ___ Female ___ Male

What is your race / ethnicity?

___ Asian ___ Hawaiian Pacific Islander ___ Other Pacific Islander
 ___ American Indian / Alaska Native ___ African American ___
 Caucasian / White

___ Hispanic ___ Mixed Ethnic ___ Other _____

How many hours of training/professional development have you participated in for corrective reading this school year? _____

Please rate the following statements by circling your responses using the scale below:

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

- Students who participated in the after school program showed improved academic achievement in reading.

SA A D SD

- 2. Corrective reading interventions met the needs for students who participated in the after school program.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

- 3. Students who participated in the after school program were more prepared to participate in class during reading.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

- 4. I am knowledgeable about corrective reading and decoding strategies in reading.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

- 5. Students who participated in the after school program were more confident in their reading ability and as a result participated more in class during reading.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

- 6. As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school program, students increased their reading skills.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

- 7. As a result of the students receiving corrective reading in the after school programs, students will increase their reading scores on the NWEA assessments.

SA	A	D	SD
----	---	---	----

Did the corrective reading strategies align with your goals for improving student achievement in reading 5th – 8th grade level? Why or why not?

Please describe three highlights that your students have gained in reading this semester.

Please share anything you wish about the corrective reading interventions including suggestions for improvement.

Thank you for completing this survey

Appendix C

Corrective Reading Decoding
Walkthrough Form

Observation:		Yes	No	Comments
Materials are organized, distributed, and managed well during lesson.				
Word Attack/Board work:				
Students respond in unison.				
Corrections in Word Attack:				
Steps	That word is _____			
	What word?			
	Spell _____			

	What word?			
	Start over			
Story Reading:				
	Student errors are corrected with, "that word is _____			
	Fluent reading praised. Diffluent reading corrected with model-test.			
	Appropriate question strategies are used			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher gets attention. 			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher asks question. 			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher gives wait time for individual responses. 			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher calls on group or individual to respond. 			

If an error occurs, Teacher has group scan the text and has same student answer.			
Checkouts/Paired Readings:			
Students count errors on tally sheets.			
Teacher paces/monitors checkouts.			
Additional Comments			

Vitae

Emma Campbell-Cornelius

EDUCATION

Professional Experience

21st Century Program Manager , East St. Louis District Office	2015 – present
Principal , Normandy Schools Collaborative, St. Louis, MO	2014-2015
Principal , Cahokia School District	2013-2014
High School Principal , Cahokia School District	2011-2013
Assistant Director of Curr. and Instr., Cahokia School District Office	2009-2011
Principal , Cahokia School District	2003-2009
Middle School Teacher , Cahokia School District	2000-2003
Elementary Teacher (intermediate) , Cahokia School District	1994-2000
GED Instructor , State Community College	1998-2000
Elementary Teacher (primary) , Cahokia School District	1993-1998

Education

LINDENWOOD UNIVERSITY

Doctorate in Educational Administration	May 2018
Specialist in Education	May 2014
Masters in Educational Leadership	May 1997
Bachelors of Science in Elementary Education	May 1990

Professional Development Presentations

Project Leader/ Science Literacy Grant , Cahokia, IL	2000-2001
Professional Development/Internship , East St. Louis, IL	1998-1999

Honors and Awards

Phi Delta Kappa	2013
Academy of Fellows SIU-E (Charter Member)	2009
All Star Performance Award for valuable student contribution	2007
Illinois Honor Roll Academic Improvement Award	2006-2009
Academic Development Institute Award for Outstanding contribution to Huffman School	2006
Small Creations Poetry Workshop/Children in Motion Award	2004
Improvement of ISAT scores	2004

Other Experience

Race to the Top Grant	manager	2016 - 2017
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Title I Grant	manager	2016 - 2017
21 st Century Grant for After School Programs	awarded	2014
Head Start Early Childhood Grant	written	2013
Grant writing team SIG 1003 (g)	written	2011
Grant writing team SIG 1003 (g)	awarded	2009

Certifications

Illinois Administrative -Specialist/Superintendent	2017
Illinois Administrative- General Administrative	2000
Illinois Elementary Education- Elem Social Studies and Language Arts	1993
Missouri Elementary Education - Career Continuous Prof Cert	2014
Missouri Administrative - Initial Admin Certification	2014