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A Mixed Method Study Examining Corrective Reading Implementation Models in an Urban Midwest School District

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A Mixed Method Study Examining Corrective Reading Implementation Models in an

Urban Midwest School District

by

Claudette Denean Vaughn

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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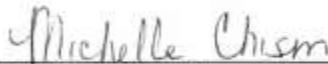
Doctor of Education

at Lindenwood University by the School of Education

_____   10/19/2018
Dr. Lynda Leavitt, Dissertation Chair   Date

_____   10/19/18
Dr. Michelle Chism, Committee Member   Date

_____   10/19/18
Dr. Kevin Winslow, Committee Member   Date

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: Claudette Denean Vaughn

Signature: _Claudette M. Vaughn_ Date: _10/19/18_

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Abstract

In this mixed methods study, the researcher analyzed three school years of third through fifth-grade students' reading scores on the NWEA MAP reading test to determine possible differences in students' reading growth relative to the instructional delivery model used to provide Corrective Reading as supplemental reading intervention. Students received Corrective Reading intervention with the classroom teacher, the after-school teacher (both large groups), or in small-groups with the Title I Reading Teacher.

Five elementary school principals and 15 teachers answered interview questions related to experiences with Corrective Reading, perceptions of student academic and behavioral outcomes, and perceptions of the three instructional delivery models. Teachers and principals agreed Corrective Reading improved students' academic and behavioral outcomes. Classroom and after-school teachers believed students demonstrated greater reading growth in small groups. Title I Reading Teachers agreed, but desired the ability to show academic gains with a larger number of students.

The researcher conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test on reading growth scores from the three groups. The *p*-value of 0.0026 indicated a significant difference among the means, so the researcher rejected the null hypothesis. Students in all the reading intervention groups showed some reading growth. However, both the Tukey and Scheffe post hoc analyses revealed the mean of the Title I Reading Teacher group was significantly higher than the mean of the after-school group. As a result of the findings, the researcher recommends educational leaders staff buildings with reading intervention specialists to provide small-group intervention to struggling readers.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Educators placed a focus on literacy instruction early in elementary school. Dando (2016) defined literacy as "the acquisition and practice of reading and writing" (p. 10). According to Allington and Gabriel (2012), "Every child [becoming] a reader has been the goal of instruction, education research, and reform for at least three decades" (p. 13). Machin, McNally, and Viarengo (2018) wrote, "Learning to read and write is an essential skill for modern life" (p. 217). According to Catts and Kamhi (2017), "proficient reading is one of the most important goals of our education system" (p. 73). Roe and Smith (2012) emphasized the necessity of learning to read by stating, "The ability to read is vital to functioning effectively in a literate society. Many children have a sense of the importance of reading . . . every aspect of life involves reading . . . reading situations are inescapable" (p. 115).

Learning to read served as the basis for learning in other academic disciplines. Without reading, learning in other disciplines was thought to be improbable. According to Marchand-Martella, Martella, Sodderman, Pan, and Petersen (2013), "Learning to read is the most important skill our students can learn in school, serving as the very foundation of all other academic subjects" (p. 161). An article in *Educational Leadership*'s March 2012 issue stated, "Reading is the cornerstone for learning, and it is necessary to know how to read and process information for all other subject areas" (Caughlan, Duke, Jurwik, & Martin, 2012, p. 35). Croninger and Valli (2009) further acknowledged, "Reading is foundational to learning in other subjects like mathematics and science" (p. 100). Roe and Smith (2012) claimed students applied reading skills in other disciplines and across grade levels. Marchand-Martella, Martella, and Przychodin-Havis (n.d.) stated, "Reading is . . .

closely aligned with activities in Mathematics, Writing, Spelling, and the content areas . . .

Science, Social Studies" (p. 2). The literature widely supported learning to read early in

elementary school, and set children on a trajectory to read on grade level throughout

schooling (Allington, 2012; Almasi, Buckman, Carter, Cantrell, & Rintamaa, 2014; Ellery,

2014).

Despite the intense focus on literacy instruction, some children failed to grasp

basic skills in early elementary school. According to some authorities on reading

intervention, "Regardless of the effort spent in development and review of specific

techniques concerning teaching and assessment of reading, many students fall . . . behind

their classmates on basic reading skills" (Harris, Marchand-Martella, & Martella, 2000, p.

23). Marchand-Martella et al. (n.d.) stated, "Unfortunately, approximately eight million

young people between fourth and twelfth grade struggle to read at grade level" (p. 1).

When traditional teaching strategies failed to produce independent readers,

teachers incorporated supplemental reading instruction to reinforce foundational skills.

The research identified decoding and comprehension as the key skills needed for

supplemental reading intervention to support struggling readers (Boushey & Moser,

2014). Scherer (2012) referred to decoding and comprehension as "the essential core

literacy skills" students must master for independent reading (p. 11). The supplemental

reading program needed to incorporate both decoding and comprehension strategies, so

the researched district chose Corrective Reading, because the program incorporated

structured decoding and comprehension lessons.

Corrective Reading was "a highly intensive reading intervention curriculum

designed to help a wide range of students performing below grade level expectations in

reading, including students traditionally diagnosed with learning disabilities" (Marchand-Martella, Martella, & Przychodin-Havis, n.d., p. 3). The decoding strand included phonemic awareness, phonics, and reading fluency lessons, while vocabulary and reading comprehension made up the components in the comprehension strand.

Teachers introduced Corrective Reading instruction with phonemic awareness lessons. Phonemes represented the individual sounds in words (Allington, 2012). Students practiced blending phonemes to form words and segmenting phonemes to decipher unfamiliar words. Teachers introduced systematic phonics second in the Corrective Reading program, which included directions for student learning and teaching delivery (Harris et al., 2000). During phonics instruction, students worked on activities to reinforce the letter-sound (grapheme-phoneme) relationship "in a clearly prescribed sequence . . . to ensure student success" in reading and writing words (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d., p. 5). Student success was attributed to the decodable texts, which allowed students to use familiar sounds while students practiced reading (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d., p. 7). The program also provided teachers with clear scripts for teaching the 44 phonemes in the English language. Corrective Reading placed fluency last in the decoding strand, because fluency "provided the bridge between word recognition and comprehension" (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d., p. 8). Ellery (2014) wrote, "Fluency represents a level of expertise in combining appropriate phrasing and intonation while reading words automatically" (p. 179). Corrective Reading incorporated multiple teacher-monitored, oral reading strategies to improve students' reading fluency. The strategies improved students' skills in the three oral reading fluency areas, "accuracy in word

decoding, automaticity in recognizing words, and appropriate use of prosody or meaningful oral expression" (Rasinski, 2010, p. 60).

The second strand of the Corrective Reading program included comprehension and vocabulary. The program introduced vocabulary lessons after reading fluency (Marchand-Martella, Martella, Sodderman, Pan, & Petersen, 2013). Teachers used direct instructional strategies to help students develop vocabulary. Direct instruction, according to Marchand-Martella et al., (n.d.) was an "explicit, intensive, teacher-directed instructional method based on two principles: All students can learn when taught efficiently, regardless of learning history. All teachers can be successful, given effective teaching materials and presentation techniques" (p. 3). For example, the teacher presented an unfamiliar word, told students the definition of the word, then asked students to use the word in a sentence. To reinforce the word, the teacher provided a synonym for the word and asked students to write the synonym in a unique sentence (W. Jones, personal conversation, January 20, 2015). According to Marchand-Martella et al. (n.d.), "Writing activities . . . extend learning to reinforce . . . the lesson, solidifying knowledge to promote retention and generalization" (p. 9). Serravallo (2017) also described writing as a tool student used to improve reading comprehension. Serravallo (2017) stated, "Asking students to write about their reading may provide the best window into their reading process and comprehension" (p.33). Bridges (2015) stated:

> Every time we enter a text as a reader, we receive a writing lesson: how to spell,
> punctuate, use proper grammar, structure a sentence or paragraph, and organize a
> text. We also learn the many purposes writing serves and the different genres and
> formats it assumes to serve these varied purposes. (p. 134)

Corrective Reading addressed reading comprehension skills last in the program. Literature showed comprehension, or the ability to gain meaning from text, as the goal of learning to read (Fountas & Pinnell, n.d.). Corrective Reading included three instructional strategies to address reading comprehension. Students practiced synthesizing key ideas and drawing conclusions from the text; students used specific words from text to answer questions about the meaning; and teachers monitored students' abilities to organize information from texts by reviewing students' graphic organizers (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d.).

Research supported "there are some clear advantages to using a structured supplemental reading program . . . for students who are at risk for reading difficulties" (Cooke, Helf, & Konrad, 2014, p. 218). In addition, specific literacy components were necessary for a comprehensive, evidence-based, supplementary reading intervention program. According to Carnine, Kame'enui, Silbert, Slocum, and Travers (2017), Corrective Reading met the prescribed guidelines necessary to improve skills in struggling readers. The necessary components included: early intervention (beginning by third grade); extended time (40-50 minutes per day) for supplemental reading instruction; small group instruction; use of the "research-validated" materials in the program; aligned lessons for "cumulative skills development"; frequent progress monitoring where students graphed reading fluency progress; flexible grouping based on placement tests; a "built-in management system where students earn points"; and explicit teacher training to ensure implementation with fidelity (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d., pp. 14-15). Overall, Corrective Reading met all the criteria needed for a comprehensive, supplemental reading

program geared to improve basic skills in struggling readers (Carnine, Kame'enui, Silbert, Slocum, & Travers, 2017).

Background of the Study/Problem

The study occurred in the city of Eastlian, located in St. Clair County, Illinois situated directly across the Mississippi River from the museums, restaurants, and stores on the prosperous and revitalized riverfront of St. Louis, Missouri. Considering the contrast of disparate poverty, crime, high unemployment, and homelessness in Eastlian, St. Louis' prosperity could just as well have been an ocean away. The local press referred to Eastlian as "an inner city without an outer city" (Belleville News Democrat, 2014, para. 1). Although prosperity and services existed minutes away in other predominantly middle-class and affluent neighborhoods in Illinois, Eastlian youth did not fit in and/or were not welcomed (Kozol, 1991).

Table 1

2014 FBI Crime Per 100,000

	Eastlian	United States
Violent Crime		
Murder/Non-Negligent Manslaughter	62.9	4.7
Forcible Rape	221.9	26.9
Robbery	732.2	112.9
Aggravated Assault	3975.6	242.3
Total Violent Crime	4992.6	386.9
Property Crime		
Burglary	3,213.8	670.2
Larceny/Theft	2,104.3	1,959.3
Motor Vehicle Theft	1,438.6	229.0
Total Property Crime Rate	6,756.7	2,859.2

A snapshot of crime in the Eastlian community relative to the rest of the country is presented in Table 1. The statistics further emphasized the significant need for a high-quality education for Eastlian's youth.

Of the total population of 26,708, 98% were African American, 43.5% lived below the poverty level compared to 13.7% state wide, the average family income was $11,802 annually compared to the $28,502 in the United States, and approximately one-third of families lived on less than $7,500 per year (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014, para. 7). Of Eastlian's residents who lived below the poverty level, 63.7% were children under age five, with 75% of the population on welfare of some form (para. 9). The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (2013) described the area as "the most distressed small city in America" (para. 5). Kozol (1991) wrote, "For a first-time visitor, the city seemed like another world. Buildings were boarded up and abandoned, and residents burned their trash because the city did not have trash service" (p. 3). The city was dominated by public housing complexes, described as hotbeds of crime, and the federal government stepped in to help police the city (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014).

The unemployment rate in Eastlian Illinois increased from 8% in December 2006 to 220.6% by August 2011 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014, p. 2). More recently, the unemployment rate for Eastlian was 13.8% in March 2014 compared to 8.3% in Illinois, and 6.7% nationally (p. 4). One in four Eastlian households were single-parent households compared to one in ten single-parent households in the United States (Illinois Department of Human Services, 2013, p. 11).

According to FBI data, the violent crime rate in Eastlian was more than 1,200 times higher than the United States average (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014, para.

3). The school district reported the prevalence of gangs in the community, with an ever-increasing number of elementary students being recruited (K. Mateen, personal communication, March 7, 2016). In response to two deadly days in 2012 in which four people under the age of 21 were killed, "the mayor implemented a curfew for teens and cautioned male residents against wearing the royal blue or bright red clothing commonly associated with gangs" (Belleville News Democrat, 2014, para. 7). The article further explained any residents found wearing the colors risked being taken into custody by the police (para. 8). Eastlian's problems were not just relegated to the streets.

Eastlian school District recognized a growing trend in student suicides (Illinois Department of Human Services, 2013, p. 12).   Also, due to the increasing number of youths who failed academically and were retained in elementary school, the district experienced many youngsters pregnant at the middle school level. Twenty-five students received homebound services for pregnancy during the 2014-2015 school year (K. Mateen, personal communication, February 18, 2016).   Findings from the 2014 Illinois Youth Survey for St. Clair County indicated the myriad of factors putting students at risk of failure in school as detailed in Table 2 (Center for Prevention Research and Development, 2012, pp. 3-4).

The lack of academic achievement was understandable considering the social and economic challenges Eastlian youths faced. In the 2012-2013 school year, only 14% of high school students scored at the proficient level on state reading tests, and only 6% achieved proficiency in mathematics (Illinois State Board of Education, 2015, p. 1). In the 2014-2015 school year, only 3% of Eastlian students scored proficient on the Partnership

for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC) Test (Illinois State Board

of Education, 2015, p. 2).

Table 2

Eastlian School District – Illinois Youth Survey

	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9
Currently belong to a street gang	n/a	11%	7%	4%
Been in a physical fight 1-2 times in last 12 months	24%	1%	54%	66%
Bullied (called names, threatened, physically assaulted, cyber-bullied)	49%	44%	33%	26%
Substance use in the past 12 months (alcohol, cigarettes, inhalants, or marijuana)	16%	43%	51%	59%
Dating Violence	n/a	14%	15%	13%
Feel safe at school (School Climate)	39%	35%	20%	23%
Felt sad and helpless for two weeks in a row in last 12 months	n/a	37%	30%	25%
Considered suicide in last 12 months	n/a	n/a	10%	9%

Lack of nutritious food was widespread in the area, an even greater challenge for

families without personal transportation. Eastlian' largest supermarket, one of two

supermarkets in the city, closed in October 2015, creating a food desert in most of the city

(Realty Trac, 2016, para. 6). Left in the city were the neighborhood confectionaries and

gas stations where "many residents without an automobile bought much of their food"

(para. 4). A quart of milk cost $6.00, and a bottle of Tylenol was $15.00 at one such store,

according to a nurse at a local clinic run by Community Nursing Services of Southern

Illinois University-Edwardsville (J. Brown, personal communication, January 18, 2016).

Additional health indicators from the 2014 Illinois Kids Count Data Center

revealed 14.3% of all births in St. Clair County were teen births, compared to 9.6%

statewide (Voices for Illinois Children, 2014, para. 2). Children in low-income families

were less likely to "receive medical care, more likely to have oral health problems but not

receive preventative dental care, more likely to be overweight or obese, and less likely to

engage in vigorous physical activity" (para. 7). Finally, the number of children in

substitute care in St. Clair County increased 31% between 2007 and 2013, while the

statewide total declined 4% (Illinois Department of Human Services, 2013, p. 11).

      As reported in a news article, "the night clubs, the riverfront casino, and its 157-

room hotel and RV Park in Eastlian are a perpetual crime scene of murder and violence

and is a gathering place for at-risk youth" (Belleville News Democrat, 2014, para. 6). An

area of drug and sex trade known as "Vulture Alley" existed a few blocks away from the

casino (para. 1). On a single night in 2012, police charged four persons with solicitation

of a prostitute and five persons for solicitation of a sex act, as well as seized cocaine and

fire arms (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014, para. 13).

      The poverty in Eastlian also caused families to become homeless.   According to

Whitbeck and Hoyt (2014), "being homeless left children more vulnerable to gang

recruitment, a life of crime, and substance abuse" (p. 6).   A special report by the U.S.

Department of Justice (2015) further explained homeless youth were more likely to drop

out of school and engage in risky sexual behavior, sexual abuse, prostitution, or sexual

exploitation, putting them at risk for HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. The

literature revealed without guidance from caring adults, youngsters wandered aimlessly on

a path of destruction (Voices for Illinois Children, 2014). National statistics indicated,

"Youth 12-17 were at higher risk for homelessness than adults; one out of seven children

ran away sometime between 10-18 and were at increased risk for sexual abuse while on

the streets" (Link et al., 1994, p. 1909).

Eastlian School District staff documented 260 homeless students district-wide and 42 students in foster care, noting the number of homeless students was more likely double, as many cases went unreported (K. Mateen, personal communication, March 7, 2016). Every year, approximately 100 St. Clair County youths, 18 years and under, were locked out of the home by parents or guardians due to family conflict (Illinois Department of Human Services, 2013 p. 9). Essentially, children were evicted from the home (Voices for Illinois Children, 2014).

The research showed many youths in Eastlian lived in crisis, facing dire circumstances--living in abject poverty, engaging in violent and risky behavior, lacking family engagement and support from caring adults, and lacking the finances and physical resources in the community to obtain healthy food (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014; Realty Trac, 2016). The children had few prospects or incentives for finding employment in the city and often ended up on the streets (Voices for Illinois Children, 2014). Many youngsters experienced trauma, violence, and homelessness, which put children at greater risk for substance abuse and/or sexual exploitation (U.S. Department of Justice, 2015).

Poor academic performance further threatened students' options to graduate high school and overcome the dreadful socio-economic circumstances in Eastlian. According to a U.S. Department of Education (2015) study, high school graduation rates were on the rise nationally; however, the dropout rate remained problematic in the Midwest. Graduating from high school proved a critical step in improving students' lives. According to Bowdon et al. (2017):

The consequences of not graduating from high school are severe. When compared with graduating peers, students who drop out of school are more likely to be unemployed or underemployed, live in poverty, have poor health, and become involved in criminal activities, suggesting that increasing on-time graduation rates would benefit both individuals and society (p. 1).

Considering the consequences, urban school and district leaders needed support to ensure Eastlian's students realized academic gains and progressed to graduation. Educators needed to ensure students mastered early literacy skills and became independent readers to set students on a successful academic path.

Purpose for the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool implemented in three instructional delivery models in an urban Midwest school district to make recommendations to principals and superintendents around best practice in reading intervention in elementary schools. For purposes of this study, Corrective Reading instruction was delivered to third through fifth grade students in three instructional models — by the classroom teacher during whole group instruction and in learning centers, by the after-school teacher during whole group instruction, and in a pull-out, small group format by the Title I Reading Teacher. Students took the Northwest Education Association (NWEA) Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) Test three times per year to measure reading growth from Fall to Spring. The MAP Test measured students' reading growth in Rausch Units (or RIT scores). The researcher analyzed students' RIT scores over three school years to determine if a difference existed in students' reading growth relative to the instructional model the students received. From

the analysis, the researcher made recommendations to urban school principals and superintendents on the best instructional model for Corrective Reading.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: How do Title I Reading Teachers perceive the small-group, pull-out Corrective Reading implementation model and student outcomes?

Research Question 2: How do classroom teachers perceive the whole group and small-group learning center Corrective Reading implementation models and student outcomes?

Research Question 3: How do after-school teachers perceive the whole group, after-school implementation model of Corrective Reading and student outcomes?

Research Question 4: How do principals perceive the three Corrective Reading delivery models and student outcomes?

Hypothesis

Hypothesis: There is a difference in pre-post RIT Scores of third through fifth grade students who receive Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading Teacher, the classroom teacher, or the after-school teacher.

Study Limitations

The researcher was unable to mitigate for all circumstances during the study. Choosing a student population, collecting interview data, and selecting participants posed unique challenges. As a result, several limitations existed within the study.

The researcher limited the study to the elementary schools. The district assigned Title I Reading Teachers exclusively to the five elementary schools, which negated the ability to conduct the study on any other campus. Second grade students received

Corrective Reading in all three instructional delivery models - after-school, in general

education classes, and with the Title I Reading Teacher. However, principals in three of

the five elementary schools had ability-grouped second grade students in mathematics and

reading. The researcher eliminated second grade from the study to ensure the ability

grouping did not result in skewed reading growth data.

 The researcher also excluded students with disabilities from the study. Students

with disabilities could not participate because Corrective Reading was not provided in the

self-contained classrooms. Some students with IEPs who received reading instruction in

the general education classroom had been diagnosed with intellectual disabilities or with

specific learning disabilities in reading and written expression. Those factors might also

have skewed the reading growth data, so the researcher eliminated students with IEPs

from the study.

 Another limitation existed during the qualitative data collection. The dissertation

committee member conducted the interviews with teachers and principals to ensure

anonymity. Several limitations resulted. First, the committee member lived across the

country and only came into the district at predetermined times to provide professional

development to teachers. Scheduling the interviews during teacher plan times and in the

after-school block was a challenge and resulted in eight teacher interviews being

rescheduled multiple times. While the committee member conducted all 15 teacher

interviews, the timing of some interviews did not result in thoughtful responses. The

researcher noticed the brevity in teachers' responses whose interview times had been

rescheduled more than once.

Asking questions presented another limitation during interviews. The researcher and committee member met for a nominal length of time to practice questioning and prompting the interviewee to expound on the answers. Time for practice was shortened because of the abbreviated timeframes the committee member was in town. While the researcher did not know which participants were interviewed first and which ones were interviewed last, the responses some teachers provided were clearly more detailed than others. The committee member attributed receiving more thoughtful, reflective responses with practice in asking the questions.

Another limitation existed in the single-gendered population of adult participants and project staff. All the teachers, the principals, the committee member, the content area specialist, the instructional coaches, and the researcher were female. The only males represented in the study were students, as male students' reading growth scores made up one-half of the overall student scores analyzed.

The recommendations for best practice around Corrective Reading implementation might have been more relevant for urban principals and superintendents in smaller school districts. The researcher selected a school district with approximately 6,000 students and a total city population of 26,708 people for the study. While similar student outcomes existed in small and large urban school districts, large school districts may have encountered factors, such as over-crowded classrooms, that made the recommendations less useful for the larger districts.

Definition of Terms

Comprehension skills: For purposes of this study, were reading skills students must master to learn in all academic disciplines. The two comprehension skills included vocabulary and reading comprehension.

Corrective Reading: A comprehensive reading intervention program. There were two strands of the program — decoding and comprehension (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d.).

Decodable text: For purpose of the study "the letter sound relationships the students have been taught up to that point in the [Corrective Reading] program" (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d., p. 6).

Decoding skills: For purposes of this study, skills students must master to learn to read and included phonics, phonemic awareness, and reading fluency.

Direct instruction: According to Marchand-Martella et al. (n.d.), was the intentionality to teach individual reading skills.

Graphemes: For purposes of this study, were defined as the letters of written language.

Northwest Education Association: "A research-based, not-for-profit organization that supports students and educators worldwide by creating assessment solutions that precisely measure growth and proficiency — and provide insights to help tailor instruction" (Northwest Education Association [NWEA], 2011, p. 2). NWEA produced the Reading MAP Tests used in the study to measure students' reading growth.

Measures of Academic Progress Tests:

Adaptive computerized tests offered in Reading, Language Usage, and

Mathematics. When taking a MAP test, the difficulty of each question is based on

how well the student answers previous questions. As the student answers

correctly, the questions become more difficult. If the student answers incorrectly,

the questions become easier. In an optimal test, the student answers approximately

half the items correctly and half incorrectly. The final score is an estimate of the

student's achievement level. (NWEA, 2011, p. 7)

Instructional delivery model: For purposes of this study, one of the three

formats teachers used to teach Corrective Reading. The first was in the general education

classroom. The second model was in the after-school program. The third instructional

model was in a small-group, pull-out setting with a Title I Reading teacher.

Phonemes: For the purpose of this study, were the individual sounds in spoken

words.

Rausch Unit Scale: A curriculum scale using individual item difficulty values to

estimate student achievement, the Rausch Unit (RIT) scale related the numbers on the

scale directly to the difficulty of items on the tests. In addition, the RIT scale was an

equal interval scale (NWEA, 2011, p. 7).

Supplemental reading instruction: "Instruction that goes beyond that provided

by the comprehensive core program because the core program does not provide enough

instruction or practice in a key area to meet the needs of the students in a particular

classroom or school" (Allington, 2012, p. 112). District 7 chose Corrective Reading as the

supplemental reading intervention program.

Supplemental educational services: For the purposes of the study, referred to the legislation passed under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 which mandated privatized reading and mathematics tutoring outside of school hours to low-performing students in Title I schools (Sunderman, 2006).

Title I reading teacher: For the purpose of the study, referred to elementary school teachers who held Illinois reading licenses and taught Corrective Reading in a small-group, pull-out setting (3-5 students) outside of the general education classroom, during the school day.

Word attack skills: For purposes of this study, was defined as skills students used to decode difficult words.

Summary

Over the course of American public-school education, educators focused on the best approach to teach students who lived in impoverished communities, like Eastlian. The research broadly supported learning to read proficiently in early elementary school proved essential for achievement in school and life. "There is a solid evidence base that teachers, and teaching methods, can matter both for literacy and for learning outcomes more generally" (Machin, McNally, & Viarengo, 2018, p. 218). A real concern was the struggle urban teachers faced in teaching literacy skills. According to Marchand-Martella et al. (n.d.), "Only one child in eight who is a poor reader at the end of first grade ever learns to read 'at grade level'" (p. 3). The statistic explained the reason elementary school teachers struggled to accelerate children's reading development in late elementary school. The research further noted how teaching intervention curriculum improved overall teaching skills (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d., p. 18).

The researcher sought to fill the void in the then-current academic literature around the best instructional delivery model for Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool. The study examined Corrective Reading intervention delivered in three distinct models in an urban Midwest school district. The researcher collected and analyzed students' reading scores over three school years to determine possible differences in students' reading growth and used the results to inform urban superintendents and principals about best practice for implementing Corrective Reading as a supplementary reading curriculum. Chapter One provided details on the background and rationale for the study, listed the research questions and hypothesis, explained the limitations of the study, and defined the related terms throughout the text. The remaining chapters detailed the related literature, explained the methods used to conduct the research, summarized the analysis of the data, provided recommendations for school leaders on the best use of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading intervention tool, and provided recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

A Literacy Crisis

Research noted oral language skills as critical prerequisites for independent reading. According to Cunningham and Zibulsky (2013), "Oral language development precedes literacy and parallels it; both oral and written language are developmental language processes that are mutually supportive and develop over time" (p. 91). In fact, the vast consensus in the literature was early oral language skills predicted children's progress toward becoming independent readers (Allington, 2012; Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010; Boulton, 2014; Boushey & Moser, 2014; Dennis & Margarella, 2017; Duff, Nation, Plunkett, & Reen, 2015; Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Gopnick, Meltzoff & Kuhl, 2014; Hart & Risely, 2003; Rasinski, 2010; Serravallo, 2015; Sousa, 2015). The literature described oral language in two distinct components - receptive and expressive. "Receptive language referred to words students recognized or understood" (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013, p. 38). Receptive language was measured by "orally presenting a word and asking the student to identify the corresponding object" (Serravallo, 2015, p. 20). "Strong readers identified colors, numbers, objects, and letters accurately and with automaticity more readily than weak readers" (Duff et al., 2015, p. 848). Expressive language referred to the words students produced. "To measure oral expressive language, students were asked to state the appropriate word for specific objects" (Duff et al., 2015, p. 850). Rasinski (2010) noted children's letter identification and expressive vocabulary were tied to independent reading skills. While all the research affirmed the importance of early oral language development, several findings were worth highlighting.

Duff, Nation, Plunkett, and Reen (2015) noted "a relationship between language development and reading disabilities . . . and speculated difficulty with syntax (word order), phonology (sounds), and semantics (vocabulary for labeling objects and concepts) hindered students' reading abilities" (p. 851).

Hart and Risely's (2003) study, *The Early Catastrophe: The 30 Million Word Gap by Age 3,* supported Duff et al.'s (2015) claim regarding early oral language. Hart and Risely (2003) "recruited 42 families (13 high-income, 10 middle-income, 13 low-income, and 6 families on welfare)" and observed interactions in the homes for one hour per month for four years (p. 7).   The objective was to observe oral language and ascertain how parents' and children's interactions played a role in children's language and vocabulary development. The researchers found a chasm of disparity between the number of spoken words across socio-economic levels and the message parents consistently communicated to children (Hart & Risely, 2003). In the summary, Hart and Risely (2013) reported,

> Children from families on welfare heard about 616 words per hour and received on
> average two discouragements for every encouragement, while those from working
> class families heard around 1,251 words per hour and received two
> encouragements to one discouragement, and children from professional families
> heard roughly 2,153 words per hour and experienced a ratio of six encouragements
> for every discouragement. Thus, children from better financial circumstance had
> far more language exposure [and positive reinforcement] to draw from. (2003, p.
> 2)

The findings of a follow-up study (when the children were ages eight and nine) on the same families revealed the 30 million-word gap held long-term implications for poor

children. Once students reached third grade, "researchers found that measures of

accomplishment at age three were highly indicative of performance at the ages eight and

nine on various vocabulary, language development, and reading comprehension measures"

(Hart & Risely, 2003, p. 7). The study revealed early oral language experiences in the

home stymied poor children's learning, particularly reading ability. Klein (2014) wrote,

"They [children] latch themselves to their caregivers and learn from their every move,

including absorbing the almost innumerable ways in which adults use language, both oral

and written" (p. 5). The limited, positive, oral language exposure in early childhood

resulted in poor and minority children struggling to read throughout secondary school and

thereby perpetuated the poverty cycle. According to Machin et al. (2018), "Poor literacy

drives low social mobility, since children from disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely

to start school with lower literacy skills" (p. 217).

　　　The research broadly supported learning to read in early elementary school

correlated closely to independent reading and success in other academic disciplines

(Allington, 2012; Boulton, 2014; Boushey & Moser, 2014; Dennis & Margarella, 2017;

Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Gopnick et al., 2014; Rasinski, 2010; Serravallo, 2015; Sousa,

2015), particularly for poor and minority children, (Allington & Baker, 2007; Amrein-

Beardsley, 2012; Tatum, 2013), yet reading data across the nation revealed persistent

minority student failure over the few decades previous to this writing. The 2015 National

Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reported only "37% of fourth grade students

and 36% of eighth grade students could read at or above the proficient level" (National

Assessment of Educational Progress [NAEP], 2018, p. 1). According to National Reading

Panel (NRP) report (2000b), "The inability to decode single words was the most reliable

indicator of a reading disorder" (p. 44). In addition, the NRP (2000b) report noted, "Phonological awareness appears to be the most prevalent linguistic deficit in disabled readers" (p. 48). According to Juel (2008), "children classified as poor readers were characterized by a lack of phonemic awareness at the beginning of first grade … and would likely be poor readers by the end of fourth grade" (p. 441). Miller and Moss (2013) noted "The decline in reading scores and the increase in the number of children having difficulty reading go hand-in-hand with a change in how reading is being taught in our schools" (p. 122).

Researchers agreed the reading process required learners to master several complex skills (Greenspan, 2011; Lyons, 2003; Sousa, 2015). The research showed by the end of first grade, most children would have acquired the skills needed to read with relative ease (Lyons, 2003). For the children still unable to grasp complex reading skills, learning to read proved a difficult undertaking (Boulton, 2014). Juel (2008) agreed, "The children who had poor early reading skills were more likely to have poor reading skills later in school" (p. 446). Allington (2012) wished there were some "quick fix" but acknowledged the best evidence pointed to a complete and prolonged intervention endeavor (p. 2). Snow, Burns and Griffin (2009) explained, even with excellent instruction in the early years, some children failed to make progress. Allington and Baker (2012) realized classroom teaching to be complex, and therefore surmised, "the classroom teacher would never be able to meet the challenges of some children" (p. 41). Educators grappled with ideas around the best approach to teach challenging students, but broader school-wide issues also hindered students' learning.

Allington and Baker (2012) noted schools hired and assigned paraprofessionals to provide reading intervention to struggling readers. However, evidence indicated struggling readers made little progress when paraprofessionals delivered the reading intervention (Allington & Baker, 2012, p. 31). Allington and Walmsley (1995) believed, "Schools have not thought enough about what efforts might be required to increase struggling readers' learning rates" (p. 7). Allington (2012) further asserted classroom teachers excused themselves from the responsibility to educate low-achieving students and believed general education teachers lacked the skill to provide reading intervention support; as a result, the assumption was the accountability for low-achievers and special needs students resided with the remedial or special education teachers. The plethora of socio-economic and academic deficiencies left public school educators at a disadvantage to support the neediest students (Tatum, 2013). In response to poor and minority student failure, the federal government passed laws and provided financial support to public schools.

Reading and the Law

One major effort to improve reading achievement occurred in 1965 when the federal government passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and the implementation of Title I (ESEA, 1965). The purpose of Title I was "to ensure that all children had the opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach proficiency on challenging state standards" (ESEA, 1965, para. 12). Title I legislation mandated schools to set aside funds for literacy instruction to support students who performed below state standards.

In 1997, President Clinton's administration formed the NRP (Gopnick et al., 2014). The NRP's objective was to "assess instructional methods and make recommendations on which methods were most effective when teaching reading" (National Reading Panel [NRP], 2000b, p. 14.) The NRP's (2000b) report recognized the significance of phonological awareness in learning to read (p. 23). The panel also acknowledged mastering decoding and comprehension skills early in elementary school linked to independent reading later in school. Finally, the NRP identified a list of variables indicating the strongest link to proficient reading outcomes, including: a) alphabet knowledge, b) concepts about print, c) phonological awareness and memory, d) rapid naming of letters, digits, colors, and objects, e) invented spelling, and f) name writing (National Early Literacy Panel, 2002).

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 strengthened the assessment and accountability provisions of ESEA, particularly Title I (Greenspan, 2011). According to Gopnick, Meltzoff, Kuhl (2014), "Changes to the law were intended to increase the quality and effectiveness of the Title I program and the entire elementary and secondary education system" (p. 16). The goal of NCLB focused on "raising the achievement of all children, particularly those with the lowest achievement levels" (No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2001, p. 29).

One piece of legislation in the NCLB Act, Supplemental Educational Services (SES), was established to improve reading and mathematics achievement with students attending low-performing Title I schools (Ascher, 2006). Low-performing schools failed to make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), as measured by individual states' standards, for three straight years (Ascher, 2006, p. 117). SES included tutoring services in reading

and mathematics, customarily delivered by a third-party provider, after school hours for the lowest performing students in Title I schools (Sunderman, 2006).

While the idea of providing additional tutoring to students performing below grade level in reading and mathematics seemed solid, SES programs had numerous detractors (Harding, Harris-Jones, & Rebach, 2012). First, limited research existed proving after school tutoring improved low-achieving students' reading and math achievement. According to Sunderman (2006), "Research has provided little evidence to guide policy makers and educators on the benefits of SES, particularly in improving the education of low-income and minority students" (p. 121). Deeney (2008) wrote, "Merely providing tutoring does not guarantee success. Even with well-planned instruction, tutoring that exists in a curricular vacuum has the potential to result in a confusing and unhelpful conglomeration of reading activities" (Deeney, 2008, p. 218). Second, the federal government required providers to use 'research-based' strategies with students but provided no guidance for schools to evaluate providers' materials and/or teaching strategies (Harding et al., 2012). According to Deeney (2008), "Many service providers instruct without consideration of what goes on in school, potentially making it difficult for struggling readers to . . . connect [instruction] to what they learn in the classroom" (p. 218). Third, the federal government required states to remove providers that did not yield positive student outcomes but provided no guidance on how to do so (Ascher, 2006). According to a report by the Center on Educational Progress (CEP), as cited in Ascher (2006), "Some states had removed providers for quality issues, but most states remained unclear about their authority to do so" (p. 139). Another concern from critics of the SES provision noted the law required schools to "set aside"

20% of Title I funds to pay for SES providers, regardless of whether a school had

enough students requesting the service (Sunderman, 2006, p. 119). Further, the federal

guidance required schools to prioritize and offer SES services to the "most needy"

students; however, only the students whose parents requested SES received the

intervention (p.119). Critics of SES further pointed out Title I funds previously used to

support all students and employed proven learning strategies such as "Title I curriculum

that is coordinated with the general education curriculum. . . hiring qualified teachers,

and reducing class size" were diverted to provide SES services only for the students

whose parents requested SES (Ascher, 2006, p. 141). The mandated 20% set aside for

SES reduced funding for the research-based strategies (Sunderman, 2006).

        In 2002, President Bush's administration initiated the Reading First Grant

program, which provided funds to schools with large populations of students with low

reading achievement levels (U.S. Department of Education [USDOE], 2003). The

purpose of the program was "to prepare preschool age children to enter kindergarten with

the language, cognitive, and early reading skills necessary for reading success, thereby

preventing later reading difficulties" (USDOE, 2003, p. 5). Lyon, former Chief of the

Child Development and Behavioral Branch within the National Institute of Child Health

and Human Development Department (NICHD) assisted in the design of the Reading First

program (NRP, 2000a). In a 2001 statement before the U. S. House Subcommittee on

Education Reform, Lyon replied to the question if children with reading deficits ever

overcome the obstacle. Lyon's (2014) response was, "Most children entering elementary

school at risk for reading failure could learn to read if identified early and provided

systematic, explicit, and intensive instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency,

vocabulary and comprehension" (as cited in Boulton, 2014, para. 3). Allington (2012)

agreed, without early reading intervention "many of these children would continue to have

reading problems into adulthood" (p. 101).

History of Reading Pedagogy and Best Practice

Throughout time, educators investigated specific teaching pedagogy and research-

based practices when adopting a dominant approach for literacy instruction. "Historically,

experts have been divided between proponents of 'whole language' approaches versus

supporters of 'phonics' approaches" (Machin et al., 2018, p. 218). One side believed

"skills-based instruction that emphasizes phonics are the link for children to read and write

. . . the other side suggests children naturally construct ideas and act out reading and

writing behaviors" (Bingham & Hall-Kenyon, 2013, p. 14-15). During the early 1980s

through the 1990s, researchers challenged one another's ideas and methodologies

regarding literacy instruction to determine the most appropriate common ground. In 1985,

the United States Government's Commission on Reading released *Becoming a Nation of*

Readers, and the report indicated "phonics instruction was still important in the early

grades because it helped students improve their reading abilities" (Walker, 2013, p. 40).

The report emphasized the importance of phonics instruction, but some teachers continued

to implement the whole language approach and continued the long-standing debate of

phonics versus whole language instruction (Flippo, 1999). "The conflicting theories

amongst researchers and educators came to be known as the Reading Wars" (Flippo, 1999,

p. 39).

According to Caughlan, Duke, Jurwik, and Martin (2012), "Whole language

moved reading instruction from basal readers and phonics to a more authentic learning

approach, utilizing novels and texts; while emphasis on whole words, building meaning, and real-life application increased" (p. 9). According to Bingham and Hall-Kenyon (2013), "Most educators would suggest that literacy instruction should promote the interaction between skill-based aspects of reading (phonemic awareness, alphabetic knowledge, letter-sound association) and the meaning-based aspects of reading (vocabulary, comprehension)" (p. 15). Scherer (2012) agreed, "Together, all instructional methods combined to make a more comprehensive program, as whole language and phonics both played an integral role in shaping current reading instruction" (p. 10). Foundational blended learning programs of the 1970s, such as "Marie Clay's Reading Recovery, also laid the foundation for the Guided Reading and Balanced Literacy strategies teachers currently implement across the country" (Boushey & Moser, 2014, p. 44). The research showed "teachers combined phonics instruction, whole language, and guided reading (teacher-led small groups) to form the balanced literacy framework" popular in current literacy instruction (Roe & Smith, 2012, p. 56). The balanced literacy framework also included "authentic instruction and guided reading groups with explicit instruction in skills and strategies" (Boushey & Moser, 2014, p. 96).

Then-Current Reading Pedagogy and Best Practice

At the time of this writing, current literacy theorists presented a variety of designs to enhance literacy instruction and ensure students became independent readers (Allington, 2012; Boulton, 2014; Boushey & Moser, 2014; Fountas & Pinnell, n.d.; Rasinski, 2010; Serravallo, 2015). Some researchers expanded the definition and description of an optimal literacy and learning environment by listing required components of literacy instruction. Ford and Opitz (2008) identified 10 different common

understandings about guided reading, which included: the ability to become literate, to be taught by a skilled teacher, to become independent readers through scaffolding, to read for meaning, to learn to read by reading, to become meta-cognitive (self-reflective), to become self-extending in terms of strategies, to be exposed to higher-level thinking, to experience joy as a result of reading, and to exhibit elements of successful characteristics from guided reading lessons.

Boushey and Moser (2014) presented the Daily Five as a premier instructional model. The five components considered essential in a comprehensive literacy program included: read to self, read to others, listen to reading, work on writing, and word work (p. 4). Boushey and Moser (2014) believed incorporating the five components into daily literacy instruction produced independent readers.

Strickland, Ganske, and Monroe (2002) designed an optimal literacy and learning environment developed with a literacy curriculum which emphasized four components. The researchers' design: focused on basic literacy skills, valued and built on the knowledge students brought to school, emphasized the construction of meaning through activities requiring higher order thinking, and offered extensive opportunities for learners to apply literacy strategies and underlying skills in the context of meaningful tasks. The researchers believed literacy skills became a part of the long-term memory primarily when combined with real-world application of literacy content (Strickland, Ganske, & Monroe, 2002).

Balanced Literacy. The balanced literacy framework incorporated all the components of best practice in literacy instruction over the five decades before this writing, in public school education. According to Boushey and Moser (2014), balanced

literacy incorporated both the phonics and whole language approach, including guided

reading strategies. Dando (2016) wrote, "A balanced literacy approach integrates explicit

teaching such as guided reading and word study with read-alouds and shared reading" (p.

10). Caros, Lambert, Robinson, and Towner (2016) defined balanced literacy as "an

approach to reading instruction that seeks to use a variety of ways to engage students with

literature" (p. 148). Finally, Bingham and Hall-Kenyon (2013) recognized, "Balanced

literacy is a philosophical perspective that seeks to combine, or balance, skill-based and

meaning-based instruction in order to ensure positive reading and writing results in young

children" (p. 15). The balanced literacy framework incorporated scaffolded instruction, or

gradual release of responsibility, based on students' needs (Rasinski, 2010). Balanced

literacy instruction incorporated 'specific instructional routines,' such as guided reading,

interactive read-alouds, shared reading, interactive writing, word study, and readers' and

writers' workshops (Fountas & Pinnell, n.d.). According to Fisher, Frey, and Lapp (2012)

the instructional strategies "allow for differentiated literacy instruction . . . helping

children gain access to developmentally appropriate literacy knowledge skills" (p. 87).

Balanced literacy included eight instructional strategies, namely, interactive read-alouds,

guided reading, shared reading, interactive writing, shared writing, reading workshop,

writing workshop, and word study (Allington, 2012). Benjamin and Golub (2015)

expressed, "All of the pieces of balanced literacy are necessary for the success and growth

of students" (p. 1).

     Interactive read-alouds. Reading aloud was foundational for developing early

oral language, a precursor to literacy skills (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013). The

American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) recommended parents read to infants daily and

continued through adolescence (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2018). More than 30

years of research noted the benefits of interactive read-alouds in literacy instruction. The

report, *Becoming a Nation of Readers,* acknowledged, "The single most important activity

for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to

children" (as cited in Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985, p. 14).

      During an interactive read-aloud, a fluent reader read a book aloud to students,

shared the illustrations, prompted the group to make predictions, and asked questions to

gauge comprehension (Allington, 2012; Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013, Fountas &

Pinnell, 2012). Teachers routinely read aloud to sharpen students' thinking skills in early

childhood and elementary classrooms. Read-alouds built students' vocabulary,

comprehension, and creative thinking skills (Anderson et al., 1985; Fountas & Pinnell,

2012; Serravallo, 2013). Neuman and Wright (2013) further emphasized the importance

of the interaction between the reader and the audience stating, "Children are more likely to

remember new words in a read-aloud when teachers offer a brief definition of the words

before or during the read-aloud" (p. 44). Dando (2016) believed, "The ultimate outcome

[of the read-aloud] is that students' enthusiasm for engaging in higher-level thinking leads

to accomplished independent reading and benefits student learning across disciplines" (p.

11).

      Guided reading. In the early 1940s, guided reading (then called directed reading

 activity) was implemented in the classroom (Walker, 2013). In directed reading, the

teacher provided explicit direction for the students learning to read (McGraw-Hill SRA,

n.d.). The teacher "acted as facilitator and met with each group individually, while other

groups worked independently" (McGraw-Hill SRA, n.d., p. 8). Teachers arranged

directed reading groups by skill, ability, or interest, and students rarely changed from one

group to another. Neither the rigidly-tracked grouping, nor the small group instruction

met students' needs, partly because the reading series dictated the instructional focus

(Walker, 2013). With guided reading, the traditional approach of teaching one skill to the

entire group was replaced with smaller group instruction to meet the individual students'

needs. According to Ford and Opitz (2008), "Guided reading was prevalent in the 1940s

through the 1970s, then again from the 1990s to the present" (p. 330).

Guided reading changed immensely after the 1940s, as researchers described and

defined the qualities of student-centered, small-group instruction, most likely to produce

strong readers. Researchers noted guided reading practice scaffolded reading skills for

students by "providing greater supports in the beginning and then slowly removing the

support as the learner progressed" through a lesson, a unit, a school year (Staff

Development for Educators, n.d.b, p. 1). Most researchers agreed guided reading lessons

should focus on the specific reading deficits identified by the teacher. Ford and Opitz

(2011) wrote reading should be "planned, intentional, focused instruction where the

teacher helps students, usually in small-group settings, to learn more about the reading

process" (p. 227). Fountas and Pinnell (n.d.) wrote, "The purpose of guided reading is to

meet the varying instructional needs of all the students in your class, enabling them to

greatly expand their reading powers" (p. 6).

Harris and Hodges (1995) defined guided reading as "reading instruction in which

the teacher provided the structure and purpose for reading and for responding to the

material read" (p. 82). Roe and Smith (2012) noted, "Guided reading occurred in a small-

group context because the small group allowed for quality interactions among readers that

benefit them all" (p. 51). Fountas and Pinnell (n.d.) wrote, "During a guided reading group, the teacher selects and introduces texts to readers, sometimes supports them while reading the text, engages the readers in discussion, and makes teaching points after reading" (p. 51). Allington and Baker (2012) further described guided reading activities, noting, "Sometimes the teacher extended the meaning of the text through writing, text analysis, or word work (vocabulary)" (p. 11).

In the decades after the 1940s, teachers favored flexible grouping. Flexible grouping allowed students to move in and out of guided reading groups based, on teacher-identified, individual student needs (Allington & Baker, 2007). The literature showed teachers "formed reading groups based on students' needs, including ability groups, strategy-based groups, and interest-based groups . . . and considered similar reading behaviors, students' text processing needs, and reading strengths" (Fountas & Pinnell, n.d., p. 8). According to Ellery (2014), when teachers implemented flexible grouping, "literacy instruction was specific and focused" (p. 102).

Another major shift with the guided reading implementation was the instructional materials. Teachers moved away from teaching solely from the traditional basal and incorporated leveled readers into instruction (Allington, 2012). Leveled readers were supplemental books separated according to students' instructional or independent reading level (Jones, Conradi, & Amendum, 2016). Book companies recognized reading instruction changed and added leveled readers as a complement to the basal series. Leveled readers aligned the literature in the basal to students' reading levels and allowed teachers to incorporate guided reading and balanced literacy components more readily into the daily literacy instruction (Roe & Smith, 2012).

Shared reading. Shared reading occurred when "adults engage children in rich dialogic discussion about the storybooks" (Bridges, 2015, p. 23). Benjamin and Golub (2015) described shared reading as "a collaborative learning activity, typically involving a teacher and a large group of students sitting closely together to read (and reread), in unison, carefully selected enlarged texts, poems or songs" (p. 5). "In shared reading, all children have their eyes on the text and all are held accountable for participating in text reading and activities" (Daugherty-Stahl, 2012, p. 48).

During shared reading, the teacher read aloud to the audience and drew attention to key details in the text (conventions of print, predicting, high-frequency words, rhyming), to teach or reinforce specific reading and writing skills (Boushey & Moser, 2014). Kesler (2010) noted, "Explicitly teaching word meanings within the context of shared storybook reading is an effective method for increasing the vocabulary of young children at risk of experiencing reading difficulties" (p. 272). The research broadly revealed teachers addressed critical skills during shared reading and described shared reading as an ideal activity for stretching students' reading abilities because the teacher modeled and supported reading during the entire lesson (Jones et al., 2016; Benjamin & Golub, 2015; Boushey & Moser, 2014; Bridges, 2015; Roe & Smith, 2012). Daugherty-Stall (2012) agreed, "The instructional support provided by the teacher in the whole-class setting provides the bridge that enables a student to gain new insights that later allow him or her to successfully engage in the reading process independently" (p. 48).

Interactive writing. Dabrowski and Roth (2016) described interactive writing as "a dynamic instructional method during which the teacher serves as the expert writer for students as they work together to construct a meaningful text while discussing . . . the

writing process" (p. 45). The sequence of activities remained the same for each

interactive writing lesson, and included: a shared, whole-group experience with the

teacher, a prewriting stage, a composing stage, a 'sharing the pen' session, a review of

skills, and an extending the learning stage (Serravallo, 2017). The interactive writing

components remained consistent for each session, but the students determined the

direction and outcome of the writing and created a useful classroom resource tool

(Dabrowski & Roth, 2014).

The teacher and students began the interactive writing process with a common

activity (reading a story, discussing a current event, reviewing a science or social studies

lesson). In preparation to write, the teacher led a class discussion "to think about who

the audience is, the overall message they [students] want to convey, and why it is

important" (Dabrowski & Roth, 2014, p. 34). The teacher then led students through a

composing exercise, where the teacher captured and combined students' ideas, proposed

vocabulary choices, and taught writing skills through think-alouds. According to

Clemens, Patterson, and Schaller (2008) interactive writing "reaches all students and

ability levels by developing language and building schema" (p. 496). The teacher-led

writing activity served as an expert exemplar for future writing assignments. The

teacher transitioned the group into "the 'sharing the pen' technique where students do

the scribing" back and forth with the teacher. (Dabrowski & Roth, 2014, p. 45). During

'sharing the pen,' the teacher reviewed discrete skills like punctuation, grammar usage,

and spelling and helped to draft the writing into final (publishable) form (Dabrowski &

Roth, 2014). After the piece was completed, the teacher orally reviewed the important

skills covered during compose and 'sharing the pen' stages (Clemens, Patterson, and

Schaller, 2008). Finally, the teacher posted the writing in the classroom to serve as an

exemplar for future independent lessons (Serravallo, 2017).

Researchers noted some benefits of interactive writing. The scaffolding

(support) for emergent writers in the teacher-led sessions along with peer input allowed

emergent writers to contribute to a completed and published piece of writing (Benjamin

& Golub, 2015). The student-teacher interaction and collaboration supported the

gradual release of responsibility from the teacher to the individual student (Staff

Development for Educators, n.d.b). The published document engaged students in the

writing process and ensured students had a deep understanding of how to reproduce a

similar document independently. "These discussions strengthen advanced students'

independent writing, which is the ultimate goal" (Dabrowski & Roth, 2016, p. 45).

Students also used the published document as a reminder of the editing skills taught in

the interactive writing session with the teacher (Serravallo, 2017). A final notable

benefit of interactive writing included improved student motivation and confidence in

writing. According to Clemens et al. (2008) "Teachers generating high expectations for

reading and writing while providing time to share and discuss can expect a higher level

of literacy engagement in students" (p. 496).

Shared writing. "Shared writing is a whole-group activity where the teacher sits

at the front of the meeting and, with input from the class, composes a writing piece on

chart paper or interactive whiteboard" (Benjamin & Golub, 2015, p. 2). Xerri (2011)

further described shared writing as "an activity in which the teacher acts as the scribe

and the students, either as a class or else in small groups, help the teacher rewrite the

model text" (p. 178). According to Mather and Lachowicz (1992) shared writing was "a

method by which a student shares the actual process of composition with the teacher, another student, or a group of students. The co-authors alternate turns to produce the composition" (p. 26).

The research supported the many benefits of shared writing. "Shared writing may help motivate reluctant writers to increase their productivity in writing, develop writing skill, and enjoy the writing process" (Mather & Lachowicz, 1992, p. 30). Xerri (2011) agreed as ELL students demonstrated confidence to write poetry, because the shared writing technique provided a model text for students to follow. Benjamin and Golub (2015) identified shared writing was the ideal activity upper elementary school teachers used to introduce various writing genres; while Routman (2005) noted shared writing supported reading comprehension because the technique "encouraged students to engage in close examination of the text" (p. 40). According to Mather and Lachowicz (1992), "The technique appeared to be beneficial for the less skilled writer because the teacher consistently modeled correct writing skills, supporting the ultimate goal of all writing instruction, developing mature, independent writing" (p. 30).

Word study. Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, and Johnston (2008) defined word study as "cognitive learning processes comparing and contrasting categories of word features and discovering similarities and differences within and between categories" (p. 2). Park and Lombardino (2013) noted, "Word study focuses on supporting students' abilities to understand patterns in words and decode words based on letter-sound correspondence" (p. 81). Leko (2016) agreed, "Word study instruction provides students with tools to decode and spell unknown words, as well as determine word meanings based on word parts" (p.

17). According to Park and Lombardino (2013), "Word study contributed to reading

ability by developing decoding skills and supporting reading comprehension" (p. 28).

The research promoted some teaching strategies for word study over others.

According to Ganske and Jocius (2013), "Inquiry, Response, Evaluation (IRE) is the most

common form of teacher student interaction" during word study" (p. 24). During Inquiry,

Response, Evaluation (IRE), the teacher made an inquiry about a word, the students

responded, and the teacher evaluated the students' response (Benjamin & Golub, 2015).

IRE was considered a weak strategy because the strategy limited students' interactions

with new words, with classmates, and with the teacher (Park & Lombardino, 2013).

Teachers used the word sorting strategy and allowed students to scrutinize and classify

words according to spelling features, such as prefixes, silent letters, and double letters.

"With word sorting, children discover different patterns of letters in words, thus deriving

rules that can be applied to new, unknown words" (Benjamin & Golub, 2015, p. 4). An

even more desired word study strategy proposed by Ganske and Jocius (2013) occurred in

small group meeting time. The researchers noted small-group meeting time could be used

to incorporate a variety of interactive activities, such as "stimulating conversations about

word meanings, pondering and marveling about words rather than recalling and reciting,

exploring academic vocabulary, and used as a time when talk is characterized by student-

generated questions" (Ganske & Jocius, 2013, p. 23). Finally, Overturf (2015) included "a

popular, two-week word study cycle called *Word Nerds*" in the book *Vocabularians* (p.

28). The steps in the cycle included introducing new words, adding synonyms and

antonyms, practicing vocabulary through the fine arts, celebrating word learning, and

assessing word knowledge. Teachers nation-wide used the *Word Nerds* study cycle and

reported the strategy showed success with students in high-poverty schools and with English-Language Learners (Overturf, 2015).

Reading workshop. The workshop served as the culminating activity incorporating all the discrete skills in the Balanced Literacy framework. Lause (2004) described reading workshop as "combining the study of classic literature with free-choice reading that builds their [students'] reading skills" (p. 25). Benjamin and Golub (2015) expressed, "If the first six components [of the balanced literacy framework] are the practice and the scrimmages, then your reading and writing workshops are the games" (p. 5). Meyer (2010) noted three components in the reading workshop, namely, "reading minilessons, independent silent reading, and reader response tasks" (p. 501). Benjamin and Golub (2015) listed the six components for reading workshop were "the minilesson, mid-workshop interruption, independent work time, partner time, and teaching share" (p. 7).

During the mini-lesson, the teacher shared background on a topic and helped students build a schema for the upcoming reading. In *In the Middle,* Atwell (1987) wrote, "The minilesson is a forum for sharing my authority—the things I know that will help writers and readers grow" (p. 150). During the second phase of the reading workshop, students read independently. According to Benjamin and Golub (2015), "Independent work time is the time when the most powerful teaching happens. During the independent work time, you are conducting one-to-one conference with individual students" (p. 7). Regarding the individual conference, Atwell (1987) explained, "My purpose in conferencing about content and craft is to help writers discover the meanings they don't know yet, name problems, attempt solutions, and make plans" (p. 224). In

the final part of the reading workshop, the teacher debriefed skills, and students shared

ideas learned in the reading workshop.

The purpose for the reading workshop was to produce "better readers" where

students discussed books and the books' ideas in depth and with interest and enthusiasm

(Lause, 2004, p. 24). Meyer (2010) expressed, "It is evident that the collaborative

reading workshop process itself, through its student-generated questions, wonderings,

and connections, scaffolds students to deeper levels of thinking and engagement with

texts and ownership of their learning" (p. 506). The research noted reading workshop

rested on the premise students became better readers by reading. In *The Power of*

Reading, Krashen (1993) pointed out readers did not improve in reading via grammar,

comprehension, or vocabulary instruction; readers became better by reading.

Writing workshop. Kissel and Miller (2015) described the writer's workshop as

a "writing space where students can play around with the processes they use to craft

texts" (pp. 77-78). The activities in a writing workshop were structured into three parts

minilessons, teacher conferences, and the author's chair process. Chambre' (2016)

described writer's workshop as "a popular model of classroom writing instruction . . .

composed of a minilesson, guided practice, independent work time, and a group share"

(p. 497).

During the minilesson, the teacher taught discrete writing skills to the whole

class. The teacher then worked with individuals or groups of students on "strategy

instruction" during the independent writing period while most students composed

independently (Chambre, 2016, p. 497). Students shared the finished writing with the

whole class in the last part of the workshop (author's chair) and teachers reviewed writing skills covered in the lesson (Serravallo, 2017).

"Writing workshop follows a thread of beliefs centering around the idea that when children are engaged with self-selected [writing] topics, they can put all of the parts and pieces together in a meaningful way" (Benjamin & Golub, 2016, p. 6). In a writer's workshop, the students' thoughts and ideas became the focus. "Children generate their own ideas . . . learn strategies for thinking of ideas, elaborating upon them, and revising the writing that grows out of them" (Benjamin & Golub, 2015, p. 6). "In the classroom, students learn variations in their writing process via scaffolded and motivational support from within a community of writers" (Kissel & Miller, 2015, p. 78). According to Benjamin and Golub (2015), "What children have learned about reading helps them learn to write coherently. Writing is informed by reading far more than writing is improved by direct instruction in writing" (p. 6). Kissel and Miller (2015) agreed:

> When young children connect their reading and writing experiences, they listen to their own voices, notice decisions peers make in their writing, read texts written by published authors and emulate their writing techniques, seek and accept evaluative responses from others, and maintain self-discipline when composing texts. (p. 77)

Reading and the Brain

Lyons (2003) expressed learning to read was probably the most difficult task the brain undertook (p. 8). Studies in brain research showed the brain interpreted and perceived information based on the brain's structure (Greenspan, 2011). According to

Greenspan (2011), "A network of neurons makes up the human brain, and working together, they help to make sense of the world" (p. 156). Lyons (2003) explained, "When a child reads, his eyes look at the words on the page, but his brain tells him what words the marks he is looking at make" (p. 33). Lyons (2003) described the brain process as visual perception and explained to become literate, a child must learn how to use visual information. Gopnick et al.'s (2014) research explained the most unique attribute of the brain was the ability to change neural tissue through activation. The brain's plasticity allowed children to learn and adapt in response to new stimulations or to re-learn (Lyons, 2003). Gopnick et al. (2014) further explained the brain's ability to acquire and process spoken language and emphasized how children learned words at an early age.

Jensen (2015) explained learning as a product of a person's experiences and noted some children entered school with a limited amount of experience. Lyons (2013) wrote, "Limitations were not a result of brain deficits but the lack of experiences to support the child's cognitive development" (p. 22). Lyon (2014) agreed, "The reading process is complex and, to a large degree, independent of intelligence" (as cited in Boulton, 2014, p. 5). Clay (1998) passionately believed all children were different and brought different background information to learning. Clay (1991) expressed, "If children are to achieve common outcomes . . . it will be necessary to recognize that they enter school having learned different things in diverse ways in different cultures and communities" (p. 61). Clay (1991) did not want early childhood educators to wait and begin teaching children early literacy skills when they started elementary school, but Clay (1998) encouraged teachers to be proactive by observing and interacting with each child to discover what they already knew.

Sousa (2015) believed, "Children are not born with the ability to read" (p. 185). In agreement, Allington and Baker (2007) theorized children were born with only the ability to understand the principles and organizations of all common languages. Jensen (2015) believed children acquired vocabulary by listening to others using words in conversation long before they started to read. Sousa (2015) explained, "In the beginning, the ability to learn to read was strongly dependent on the word forms learned during the child's early period" (p. 184). Lyons (2003) further supported, "When children were provided with an enriched environment with positive social interaction and meaningful conversations, children were motivated and determined to learn and re-learn language" (p. 8).

Learning to Read

The research recognized decoding and comprehension as the two main skills in literacy instruction. The preliminary literacy skill was decoding, which Serravallo (2015) defined as "the act of translating language from printed text" (p. 12). Decoding included three components of reading — phonemic awareness, phonics, and reading fluency (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d.). Some educators mistook one literacy component for another. Ellery (2014) noted phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, and phonics were often mistaken for each other and emphasized the importance of understanding the unique roles of each component by stating, "They are not interchangeable . . . rather they are necessary components of an effective, comprehensive reading program designed to develop proficient readers with the capacity to comprehend texts" (p. 4)

Phonemic awareness. According to Ellery (2014) "Phonological awareness is the general consciousness of language at the spoken level and encompasses larger units of sound, whereas, phonemic awareness refers to smaller units of sound called phonemes" (p.

32). Allington (2012) defined phonemic awareness as "the understanding that speech is composed of a sequence of sounds combined to form words, and it is the main component of phonological awareness" (p. 32). Phonemic awareness; therefore, referred to children's understanding of the sounds heard in spoken words (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012). Elhassan, Crewther, and Bavin, (2017) noted, "Although phonological awareness may be influential in the development of reading skills, it alone is not sufficient for an individual to become a skilled reader" (p. 9). Explicit phonics instruction ensured students mastered the skill (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d.)

Teachers connected phoneme awareness with several teaching strategies. A common strategy was teaching phoneme awareness simultaneously with teaching the alphabet. The NRP (2000b) report noted, "Using letters to manipulate phonemes helps children make the transfer to reading and writing" (p. 58). In the early years, children also developed phonemic awareness through "rhyming words in poems and through rhythm in songs" (Fountas & Pinnell, n.d., p. 8). "Phonemic awareness skills included perceiving words as a sequence of various sounds, isolating and segmenting individual phonemes, blending phonemes into whole words, and rhyming" (Ellery, 2014, p. 7). Ellery (2014) further noted phonemic awareness did not come naturally for most children; therefore, "skills needed to be taught in an explicit manner" (p. 30).

The research showed a consistent link between phonemic awareness skills and reading acquisition. Snow et al., (2009) concluded good phonemic awareness skills were "the most successful predictor of future superior reading performance" (p. 102). The NRP (2000b) report agreed phonemic awareness was foundational to early literacy, but cautioned, "Phonemic awareness training alone does not constitute a complete reading

program . . . there is no single key to success. Teaching phonemic awareness does not ensure children will learn to read" (p. 66). The overarching goal of phonemic awareness was "for students to become familiar with the sounds (phonemes) that letters (graphemes) represent and to become familiar with hearing those sounds within words to determine meaning" (Ellery, 2014, p. 32).

Phonics. Researchers defined phonics in numerous ways. Fountas and Pinnell (n.d.) defined phonics as children understanding "the important (and complex) relationship between the sounds in words and the letters or groups of letters that represent them" (p. 9). Ellery (2014) described phonics as the relationship between phonemes and graphemes. Machin et al. (2018) described synthetic phonics as "a focus on sounding out letters and blending sounds to form words" (p. 218). Likewise, the NRP (2000b) report described synthetic phonics as "teaching students to convert letters (graphemes) into sounds (phonemes) and then to blend the sounds to form recognizable words" (p. 90). Phonics instruction included several strategies students needed to learn to read, including rhyming, blending, and segmenting sounds, and recognizing sounds.

Ellery (2014) defined rhymes as "end parts [of words] that sound alike but do not necessarily look alike" (p. 36). According to Caughlan et al. (2012), rhyming helped students sharpen alertness to sounds. Teachers also incorporated rhymes into lessons to assist students in expressing, or reading with expression (Serravallo, 2015).

According to Ellery (2014), the blending and segmenting strategy involved "listening to a sequence of spoken sounds and combining the sounds to form a meaningful whole (blending) and hearing a word and breaking it into its separate parts (segmenting)" (p. 54). Mixan (2013) recognized students blended words successfully when students

recognized and substituted sounds in the initial (pat, put, pet), medial (mutt, luck, touch),

and final (back, took, peek) positions and created a completely different word (puck). The

same skill demonstrated segmenting proficiency, as students recognized the individual

phonemes made three separate sounds, /p/-/u/-/ck/ to create the word, 'puck.'

Recognizing was another foundational phonics strategy used to support reading

fluency. Recognizing occurred when students "identify words quickly and automatically"

(Ellery, 2014, p. 98). Sight words (a, and, the) and high frequency words (was, know,

who) represented word groups students recognized to demonstrate proficiency with

recognizing (Neuman & Wright, 2013). According to Allington (2012), students

recognized sight words, read more fluently, and improved comprehension as a result.

Fluency. Staff Development for Educators (n.d.a) defined reading fluency as "the

ability to read with speed and accuracy" (p. 1). Elhassan et al. (2017) noted, "Fluency is

characterized by a shift from conscious decoding to rapid and accurate visual recognition

of words" (p. 1). "Students who read fluently read with accuracy. The accuracy strategy

focuses on being able to identify and apply the graphophonic cueing system (the

relationship between letters and sounds) with ease and precision" (Ellery, 2014, p. 183).

According to Ellery (2014), reading fluency bridged phonics instruction with

comprehension strategies and created a reciprocal bridge between word study, vocabulary,

and comprehension.

Reading fluency allowed students to begin to focus on the meaning of words and

phrases instead of focusing on decoding letter sounds. According to Rasinski (2010),

"Good readers are fluent readers; they read a variety of texts with ease. These readers

understand how to navigate common words and new words based on their phonics skills"

(p. 7). Benjamin and Schwanenflugel (2010) stated, "Fluid readers read with expression and effortlessly merge word decoding with comprehension" (p. 398). Students also needed to become adept at phonics and phonemic awareness strategies to become fluent readers (Rasinski, 2010). Students demonstrated reading accuracy after mastering high-frequency sight vocabulary and applying phonics and word attack skills for decoding (Staff Development for Educators, n.d.a, p. 2.). In addition, students used context clues to check comprehension and self-corrected mistakes by re-reading the text if necessary. Gaskins (2005) noted, "Fluent readers are capable of these skills and more. True reading fluency extends beyond decoding to comprehension, and it includes not just accuracy, but pacing, phrasing, and rereading" (p. 102).

According to Staff Development for Educators (n.d.a), students demonstrated appropriate pacing by "reading at a tempo which improved accuracy, expression, and comprehension" (p. 3). Teachers monitored students' pacing to ensure meaning-making was possible and ensured the students met the fluency target norms for words read correctly per minute (Young-Suk, 2015). "This strategy encompasses reading rate, which is the speed at which one reads, as well as reading flow and flexibility with the text to alter the pace as needed to comprehend" (Ellery, 2014, p. 210). The literature described word phrasing as an important skill for reading fluently.

Ellery (2014) defined phrasing as reading word groups in succession before pausing, instead of "reading in a choppy word-by-word manner" (p. 181). "Being able to decode automatically, fluent readers chunk or parse text into syntactically appropriate units — mainly phrases" (Rasinski, 2010, p. 39). Chunking and parsing were important for comprehension, because meaning often lay in word groups or phrases, not in

individual words (Young-Suk, 2015). Phrases consisted of entire sentences or several

phrases within a long sentence. According to Staff Development for Educators (n.d.a),

"When we speak, we tend to talk in phrases that help to convey meaning" (p. 3). Phrasing

helped the listener make sense of spoken words. One of the most common characteristics

of a disfluent reader was word-by-word reading (Gaskins, 2005). Allington (2012) noted,

"Several observable behaviors accompanying difficult reading [are] . . . a slowing of

reading rate, which is often accompanied by finger pointing, even in adults" (p. 99).

        "Rereading is a strategy used to develop rapid, fluent, oral reading and is one of

the most frequently-recognized approaches to improving fluency" (Raschotte & Torgesen,

1985, p. 185). "When students repeated the reading, the amount of word recognition

errors decreased, reading speed increased, and oral-reading expression improved,"

potentially influencing higher-level comprehension (p. 191). Foster, Ardoin, and Binder

(2013) noted, "Readers need the same opportunity to rehearse as do professionals in the

areas of music, athletics and acting. The consistent repetition allows individuals to

achieve fluency, independence and confidence in their craft" (p. 149). Rasinski (2010)

stated, "Whether you're learning to drive a car, bake a cake, make a jump shot, knit a

blanket, or type, practice is required to gain proficiency. The same is true for fluency" (p.

37). While accuracy, pacing, phrasing, rereading, and observing punctuation were

common fluency strategies, several other strategies worth noting included expressing,

wide reading, and assisted reading.

        Through expressing (or reading with expression) "students learn that reading

comes to life and has meaning and purpose" (O'Connor, White, & Swanson, 2007, p. 41).

Song lyrics, scripts, poetry, and speeches "encouraged students to apply prosodic (the use

of pitch, loudness, tempo, and rhythm in speech to convey information about the structure

and meaning of an utterance) functions" and allowed the reader to convey a text's mood

and meaning (Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010, p. 391). Ellery (2014) noted the

importance of using a variety of genres and written materials to explicitly teach

expressing. "It is important that students express during reading, instead of droning on

and on in a monotone fashion. Fluid expressing allows the teacher to gauge student

comprehension of texts" (Ellery, 2014, p. 79).

Another fluency strategy, wide reading, provided many opportunities for students

to read a variety of genres (Young-Suk, 2015). Teachers employed strategies to

encourage wide reading, including building large, leveled, classroom libraries and forming

book clubs (Ellery, 2014). Wide reading "exposes the readers to a plethora of words,

increasing word consciousness and allowing students to personalize more of the

vocabulary found within rich texts" (Vadasy & Sanders, 2008, p. 278). According to

Allington (2012), "Voluminous, independent reading is the primary source of reading

fluency. Unless children read substantial amounts of print, their reading will remain

laborious, lacking fluency and limited in effectiveness" (p. 84). Whyte agreed, "There are

a thousand ways to learn to read, and they all involve reading" (D. Whyte, personal

communication, January 5, 2015).

Assisted reading was a broad category of strategies used to scaffold learning while

the reader practiced fluency skills (Serravallo, 2015). Staff Development for Educators

(n.d.a) suggested teachers used oral reading as a scaffold to "ease the transition from

modeling to independence" in developing and struggling readers (p. 4). Some assisted

reading strategies included: model reading by the teacher or fluent classmate, shared book

experience, echo reading, choral reading, paired reading, and read-alongs (Klauda &

Guthrie, 2008). During a shared book experience, "The teacher read a text aloud while

highlighting the text and modeling the appropriate reading fluency skills" (Samuels &

Farstrup, 2006, p. 33). During echo reading, the teacher read texts, and students repeated

the words exactly as the teacher had read while the teacher gradually increased the speed

and length of text to be echoed to allow students practice with fluent reading (Staff

Development for Educators, n.d.b). "The benefit of this method is that it introduces new

words and gives the readers a sense of the story, as well as a fluent model to emulate"

(Pressley, Allington, Wharton-McDonald, Block, & Morrow, 2010, p. 112). Choral

reading involved the whole group reading (or singing) one text in unison. "As the group

reads, members of the group may point to the words in the text to track them visually"

(Rasinski, 2010, p. 70). Paired reading employed the same strategies as choral reading,

but used a pair of readers, usually one more proficient than the other (Bridges, 2015).

Read-alongs occurred when the teacher, or a more fluent classmate, read a text with the

student (Klauda & Guthrie, 2008). The pair reread passages several times to allow the

novice reader opportunity to gain confidence, eventually taking the lead as the pair

progressed through the text (Ellery, 2014). All but one fluency strategy assisted students

by using another person to support the novice and/or struggling reader.

A final fluency strategy used recorded materials to support struggling readers.

Recordings allowed the reader to listen to a fluent reader reading text while following

along and reading the same passage (Rasinski, 2010). As in all other assisted reading

strategies, students benefitted from hearing a fluent, oral rendition of the text. According

to Klauda and Guthrie (2008), "These fluency demonstrations can serve as outcome

measures for reading proficiency and for reading acquisition skills [in disfluent readers]" (p. 308).

   Vocabulary. Marchand-Martella et al. (2013) defined **v**ocabulary skills as "knowing the meaning of words" (p. 169). "Increased vocabulary knowledge helps students understand what they read, and reading comprehension is enhanced when students understand the meaning of words" (Carnine et al., 2017, p. 15). Research widely supported the more children read, the more their vocabularies grew (Allington, 2012; Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013; Kuhn, McCarty, Montgomery, Rausch, & Rule, 2017), but also emphasized young children learned words primarily through incidental learning (Gopnick et al. 2014).

   According to Mixan (2013), incidental learning occurred when "they [children] listen to others talking or when they are reading. Students are remarkably adept at picking up new words . . ." (p. 118). The research also supported children's vocabularies increase relative to the words read. According to Cunningham and Zibulsky (2013), "The majority of vocabulary growth occurs not as a result of incidental learning or direct instruction, but as the result of reading voluminously" (p. 257). Reading contributed to vocabulary growth, but regular vocabulary instruction was considered critical to improved reading comprehension (Marzano & Pickering, 2005).

   Just as students needed practice to become fluent readers, students also needed repetition utilizing all the language arts (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) to develop rich vocabulary (Ellery, 2014). Mixing vocabulary strategies afforded students a plethora of chances to manipulate and incorporate unfamiliar words into everyday reading, writing, and speaking vocabularies. Some teachers improved vocabulary connections

through teaching with nonfiction (informational) texts (Marchand-Martella et al., 2013).

Teachers enriched students' vocabularies through instruction in mathematics, science, and

social studies. Content-specific vocabulary provided students the opportunity to connect

new words to previously-learned information, and to appropriately incorporate the new

vocabulary in original ways (Ellery, 2014). According to Kuhn, McCarty, Montgomery,

Rausch, and Rule (2017), "Students performed significantly better on the vocabulary

assessment following the nonfiction unit as opposed to the fiction unit" (p. 295). Teachers

recognized the importance of encouraging students to approach learning new words

strategically and acknowledged for students to commit words to long-term memory and

apply words in novel situations, students needed numerous exposures to a variety of texts

over time (Allington, 2012).

Research supported vocabulary instruction be explicitly taught daily (Mixan,

2013). Neuman and Wright (2013) wrote, "Children benefit from both implicit and

explicit vocabulary instruction" (p. 25). Vocabulary instruction included specific teaching

strategies, such as contextualizing, categorizing, analyzing, personalizing, wide reading,

referencing, and utilizing non-fiction texts (Marzano & Pickering, 2005).

Contextualizing occurred when students used context clues (words surrounding an

unfamiliar word) to determine the meaning of the word (Serravallo, 2015). Teachers

recognized contextualizing as one of the most common strategies students used to expand

vocabulary and strengthen reading comprehension. Students contextualized in many

ways, including using synonyms to clarify the meaning of words or making an inference

based on the context clues (Hiebert, 2015). Teachers helped students to enrich

vocabularies by utilizing the same word as different parts of speech in sentences. For

example, "The judge wanted order in the court" (noun) versus "I may order a milk shake" (verb).

Categorizing was defined by Ellery (2014) as "a strategy that actively engages students and encourages them to organize new concepts and experiences in relation to prior knowledge about the concept" (p. 127). Students routinely used graphic organizers to represent relationships between words and concepts (Marzano & Pickering, 2005). The research broadly supported categorizing vocabulary words as a strategy students developed to help "make connections between word meanings" (Kuhn et al., 2017, p. 288). To reinforce categorizing in daily instruction, teachers created academic word walls and assigned category word-sort projects for students (Ellery, 2014).

Analyzing words was another strategy used to increase students' vocabularies. Students analyzed words by studying the prefix, suffix, and root to determine the word's meaning (Hiebert, 2015). According to Ellery (2014), "Studying word morphemes (the smallest meaningful unit in language) allows students to acquire information about the meaning, phonological representation, and part of speech of words from their prefixes, roots, and suffixes" (p. 145). Students demonstrated proficiency when students manipulated morphemes and created new words to use in unique ways (Neuman & Wright, 2013).

Personalizing occurred when students used new vocabulary in speaking and/or writing in a substantive way (Allington, 2012). According to Ellery (2014) "Personalizing, also known as word awareness and word consciousness, is a strategy that bring one's thinking about the usage of a word to an application level and brings ownership to word learning" (p. 155). Students demonstrated proficiency in personalizing

when students created sentences using synonyms of newly-learned vocabulary words (Martella, Martella et al., n.d., p. 16).

Wide Reading (or voluminous reading) was defined as "a combination of the time students spend reading plus the numbers of words they actually consume as they read" (Allington, 2012, p. 177). Allington and Gabriel (2012) described "wide reading [being] driven by access to abundant books and personal choice" (p.13). "Wide reading can also be thought of as reading extensively on their own" (Ellery, 2014, p. 162). The research supported wide reading as a best practice, citing numerous benefits. Marzano and Pickering (2005) regarded "wide reading, related to voluminous reading, as a key strategy for building academic background knowledge" (p.143). Simply, wide reading supported vocabulary acquisition by providing numerous opportunities for students to read a variety of genres. Ellery (2014) noted, "Encountering words in reading passages or speaking them in context multiple times is one of the best ways to commit words to long-term memory" (p.198).

Another vocabulary strategy teachers used to reinforce vocabulary was referencing. During referencing, students used a resource material such as a dictionary, thesaurus, or the internet, to find the meaning of a word (Mixan, 2013). Students generally refined reference skills alone or with peers.

Catts and Kamhi (2017) noted, "Utilizing nonfiction text in the primary grades has a positive impact on student engagement, reading comprehension, and vocabulary achievement" (p. 75). Teachers emphasized the importance of vocabulary development. According to Mixan (2013), "One of the most important tasks . . . is to increase the level of students' terminology to prepare them for life experiences such as further school or

career development" (p. 119). Students demonstrated academic vocabulary proficiency

when students used words from the various academic disciplines in novel situations in

personal writing (Kuhn et al., 2017, p. 290).

Comprehension. The research revealed numerous definitions for reading

comprehension. According to Catts and Kamhi (2017), "Comprehension is a skill that

allows readers to understand and remember content that has been read" (p. 45).

Cunningham and Zibulsky (2013) wrote, "Comprehension is the "ability to understand the

meaning of what is said, or read, as well as its intent" (p. 15). Others defined reading

comprehension as "the ability to deeply and actively glean meaning from written text"

(McGraw-Hill Wright Group, n.d., p. 1). "Comprehension is the ultimate goal of reading

instruction" (Montanaro, Ritchey, Schatschneider, Silverman, & Speece, 2012, p. 318).

Proficient reading comprehension allowed students to read to learn in all academic

disciplines (Miller & Moss, 2013). According to Carnine et al. (2017), "Reading to learn

meant students could move beyond . . . decoding to making sense of written text,

particularly in expository materials such as content area books and reference books"

(p.22). Catts and Kamhi (2017) noted reading comprehension "cannot be reduced to a

single ability or improved with general instruction. Instruction is effective when tailored

to students' abilities with specific texts and tasks and when adequate content knowledge is

available" (Catts and Kamhi, 2017, p. 73). Caros et al. (2016) agreed, "Comprehension

was taught most effectively through systematic and explicit instruction" (p. 149).

"Explicit instruction involves direct teaching including teacher modeling, guided student

practice with feedback, and independent student practice" (Marchand-Martella et al.,

2013, p. 166). According to Harvey and Goudvis (2013), "Comprehension instruction is

most effective when students integrate and flexibly use reading and thinking strategies across a wide variety of texts and in the context of challenging, engaging curriculum" (p. 438). Students became independent readers when students mastered comprehension strategies, such as previewing; activating and building schemas; predicting; questioning; inferring and drawing conclusions; determining importance; summarizing; and synthesizing texts.

Previewing was one strategy teachers used to reinforce reading comprehension. During previewing, students skimmed the text to get a general idea about the text contents and structure (Ellery, 2014). Students activated prior knowledge and anticipated what they might learn as they read (Serravallo, 2015). During previewing, the teacher created two-column graphic organizers, and labeled the columns, "What I Know" and "What I Wonder" and guided students through the exercise to activate background knowledge and stimulate students' thinking around details pertinent to the text (Fisher & Frey, 2013, p. 77).

Teachers encouraged students to activate and build the schema (prior knowledge) when preparing to read new texts. Serravallo (2013) stated, "Effective teachers of reading facilitate the expansion of background knowledge by providing frequent and varied opportunities for their students to interact with a variety of trade books" (p. 79). Research broadly supported connecting prior knowledge to new situations assisted readers to make sense of unfamiliar ideas and concepts in the literature (Bohme et al., 2014; Catts & Kamhi, 2017; Serravallo, 2015; Young-Suk, 2015). According to Ellery (2014) "When text is read in isolation from these relevant thoughts, information is dismissed and considered unimportant. For assimilation of information to occur, readers must call on

existing knowledge" (p. 235). Students demonstrated skills in activating and building a

schema by relating incidents in the story to real-world situations and explaining how the

two situations were related (Cunningham & Zibulsky 2013).

Predicting was another commonly-used strategy teachers used to spark students'

interest in the text. Predicting helped students to decide a goal for reading, relate to the

text, and to anticipate what the text is about (Miller & Moss, 2013). Teachers used story

titles, pictures, and other text features and prompted students to guess the outcome of the

story (Serravallo, 2015).

"Questioning [is] a comprehension strategy that helps readers to review content

and relate what they have learned to what they already know" (Ellery, 2012, p. 248).

Teachers asked questions prior to reading, so students established a purpose for reading

and anticipated learning outcomes from the text (Serravallo, 2015). As students gained

confidence in reading, students moved from asking broad questions to asking text-

dependent questions to support understanding of the text (Ellery, 2014). Fisher and Frey

(2013) listed six text-dependent question types, including: "general understanding; key

details; vocabulary and text structure; author's purpose; inferences; and opinions,

arguments, and intertextual connections" (p. 40). Students demonstrated skills in

questioning when students used words from the text to support assertions (Miller & Moss,

2013).

According to Ellery (2014), "Inferring is a strategy that permits readers to merge

their background knowledge with text clues to arrive at a conclusion about an underlying

theme or idea" (p. 264). During inferring, students gathered information presented in the

text and reached a logical conclusion based on the facts and evidence presented

(Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013). Students then identified specific words or highlighted specific details in the text to support the conclusion (Fisher & Frey, 2013). Inferring and drawing conclusions required students to develop and apply several complex reading skills (Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013). Harvey and Goudvis (2013) wrote, "Inferencing is the bedrock of comprehension . . . it is reading faces . . . body language . . . expressions . . . and tone, as well as reading text" (p. 90).

Another comprehension strategy required students to determine the key details supporting the main idea or central theme in a text. Determining importance meant students separated key ideas and concepts from less important details and was considered a critical skill in reading comprehension (Miller & Moss, 2013). Harvey and Goudvis (2013) noted, "The ability to sift salient information and identify essential ideas is a prerequisite to developing insight and deciding what to remember" (p. 436).

Summarizing represented another higher order thinking skill. Summarizing required the student to identify, organize, and produce a succinct, authentic, recap of the key details in the text (Serravallo, 2015). Teachers strengthened students' comprehension of texts by providing students numerous opportunities to identify key details and retell stories (Fisher & Frey, 2013).

According to Ellery (2014) "Synthesizing is the merging of new information with prior background knowledge to create an original idea . . . which allows readers to make judgements that promote higher-order 'elaborative' thinking" (p. 284). Students demonstrated comprehension of texts when they analyzed ideas and organizational structure and pulled out key details across the text (Serravallo, 2015). In so doing, students created a unique interpretation of the text that did not previously exist

(Cunningham & Zibulsky, 2013). "The ability to synthesize when reading requires that

readers integrate all of the comprehension strategies . . . which itself, actually, is

synthesizing" (Ellery, 2014, p. 284).

Supplemental Reading Instruction

"Although many children succeed in classrooms with effective reading

instruction, there remains a subset of students who struggle" (Case et al., 2010, p. 402).

"Despite considerable federal and state funds directed to increase reading comprehension,

63% of fourth graders and 64% of eighth graders are still reading below the proficient

level on national assessments" (NAEP, 2018, p. 1). Early literacy intervention proved a

critical education component considering a 30-million-word learning gap existed between

children from well-educated families and children from poor families (Hart & Risely,

2003, p. 2). According to Duff et al. (2015), "infants in their second year of life with

delayed vocabulary development and a family history of language/literacy difficulties

have an elevated risk of developing reading difficulties" (p. 854). According to

Bornhorst, Gibson, Jacobs, Keyes, and Vostal (2017), "Nowhere is this truer than with

African Americans and other minorities who attend urban schools" (p. 10). In a report by

the National Center for Education Statistics, 18% of Black fourth graders and 16% of

Black eighth graders scored at or above proficient in reading while 46% and 44% of

White students, respectively, scored at or above proficient" (as cited in USDOE, 2015, p.

4). Cartledge and Musti-Rao (2007) noted, "Reading failure is most extensive among

children of poverty, especially children of color in urban schools" (p. 44).

When traditional teaching strategies failed to produce independent readers,

educators incorporated supplemental reading instruction into the curriculum. Case et al.

(2010) acknowledged, "The overarching aim is to provide increasingly intensive instruction to children who do not demonstrate progress" (p. 402). Snow et al. (2009) emphasized non-readers needed "supplementary reading services from a reading specialist who provided individual or small-group instruction coordinated with high quality instruction from the classroom teacher" (p. 17). Howard (2011) agreed and stressed instruction for struggling readers should be in addition to the classroom instruction, offering "more time, more support, and more opportunities to reach higher success levels" (p. 41).

Educators pondered the best way to provide supplemental reading intervention and argued which factors produced the greatest outcomes (Almasi et al., 2014; Bornhorst, Gibson, Jacobs, Keyes, & Vostal, 2017; Case et al., 2010). Cartledge and Musti-Rao (2007) expressed, "Impoverished at-risk learners need explicit, systematic, and intensive instruction in the key elements universally accepted as important for reading acquisition" (p. 71). The research supported "effective primary reading programs include scientifically based instruction in phonemic awareness and phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension (Case et al., 2010, p. 402).

Other studies advocated different intervention strategies and factors resulted in students' literacy gains. One study advocated student engagement was critical to independent reading and noted, "As readers develop toward proficiency, they increase their use of cognitive strategies . . . however, if students experience repeated failure in reading, they disengage [and] fall behind" (Almasi et al., 2014, p. 53). Almasi, Buckman, Carter, Cantrell, and Rintamaa (2014) noted in one study, after sixth graders received supplemental reading interventions, the students used more and varied deep-

level comprehension strategies and displayed more willingness to persevere through

challenging texts. The research also supported motivation as a key factor, which caused

students to experience reading failure. Montanaro, Ritchey, Schatschneider, Silverman,

& Speece (2012) wrote, "In designing an intervention for readers who may have been

struggling for several years, it is essential to include components aimed at increasing

motivation" (p. 320).

Teacher skill and/or shortages in some schools with large numbers of struggling

readers prompted educational leaders to seek alternative methods to provide supplemental

reading intervention. Some literacy experts denounced paraprofessionals providing

literacy intervention to struggling and emergent readers (Allington, 2012), while others

(Cartledge & Musti-Rao, 2007) supported the practice. "If classroom teachers cannot be

released from their large group instructional activities to provide differentiated

instruction to students who need small-group or one-on-one instruction, training

instructional assistants is a viable alternative" (Cartledge & Musti-Rao, 2007, p. 82).

Another study touted the value of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) in supporting

schools to provide reading intervention strategies for struggling readers and claimed,

"CAI can be used to enhance the oral reading fluency of at-risk students" via the repeated

reading technique (Bornhorst et al., 2017, p. 16). Montanaro et al. (2012) agreed,

"Significant gains in comprehension and fluency have been found using repeated reading

intervention" (p. 320). According to Cartledge and Must-Rao (2007) alternative methods

to deliver reading intervention were "especially relevant in an urban setting where

resources are severely limited relative to the large numbers of young students at risk for

reading failure" (p. 82).

Summary

Learning to read independently required a combination of factors, including early oral language skills development (Allington, 2012; Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010; Boulton, 2014; Boushey & Moser, 2014; Dennis & Margarella, 2017; Fountas & Pinnell, 2012; Gopnick et al., 2014; Rasinski, 2010; Serravallo, 2015; Sousa, 2015), a word-rich home environment (Hart & Risely, 2003), and early, explicit, systematic instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension in the primary grades (Cartledge & Musti-Rao, 2007). When students failed to read 'on grade level' (Almasi et al., 2014; Cartledge & Must-Rao, 2007; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 2009), the federal government passed legislation and provided support to public schools with high numbers of students at risk of having reading difficulties (ESEA, 1965; NCLB, 2001; USDOE, 2003). The laws mandated early identification and intervention be provided for at-risk students, districts 'set aside' Title I funds for early literacy and numeracy instruction, and after-school tutoring (SES services) be delivered through external services providers(ESEA, 1965). Districts complied with the laws, but some students still failed to meet state reading proficiency standards (Illinois State Board of Education, 2015; NAEP, 2018).

For many years, educators disagreed on the best approach to educate struggling readers (Flippo, 1999). Some educators believed in implementing skills-based instruction (phonological awareness, phonics, fluency) while others believed in a holistic approach to literacy instruction (Anderson et al., 1985). The Balanced Literacy framework emanated from the competing philosophies (and approaches) and became the dominant approach to literacy instruction (Boushey & Moser, 2014).

While balanced literacy instructional strategies enhanced Tier One instruction in the general education classroom, some students continued to fail to meet state standards for reading proficiency (Illinois State Board of Education, 2015; NAEP, 2018). To support the students, educational leaders introduced supplemental reading intervention into the students' regular literacy programs. The research universally endorsed structured, systematic, supplemental reading intervention as a viable tool to improve literacy skills and ensure positive learning outcomes for students who struggled to read (Carnine et al., 2017; Caros, Lambert, Robinson, & Towner, 2016; Kesler, 2010; Marchand-Martella et al., n.d.; Marchand-Martella et al., 2013). In Chapter Three, the researcher details the design and methodology for a mixed-methods examination of Corrective Reading as an intervention tool taught in three instructional delivery models to third through fifth grade students in an urban Midwest school district. Chapters Four and Five summarize the analysis of the data, provide recommendations for school leaders on the best use of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading intervention tool, and provide recommendations for future research.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Research Study Context

Eastlian School District 7, located in St. Clair County, Illinois, sat on the Mississippi River directly across from St. Louis, Missouri. The students in District 7 resided in the communities of Eastlian, Centreville, Washington Park, Alorton, and Fairmont City. The deputy superintendent shared the district operated one preschool center, five elementary schools, two middle schools, one senior high school, and one alternative school (D. Norris, personal communication, October 5, 2015). Staff at the five elementary school campuses participated in the study, with general education teachers and Title I Reading Teachers delivering supplementary reading instruction during the regular school day, and with general education teachers delivering the instruction in the after-school program. Principals also participated in the study and observed the supplementary reading instruction during the school day and in the after-school program.

The researcher evaluated students' reading growth data and analyzed participants' responses to interview questions to determine best practice for implementing Corrective Reading as the reading intervention tool for supplemental reading instruction. In Chapter Three, the researcher details the methodology, hypothesis, research questions, research procedure, data collection, and analysis procedures implemented in the study. The purpose of the study was to examine Corrective Reading instruction delivered to third through fifth grade students in three different instructional delivery models - by the classroom teacher, by after-school teachers, and in a pull-out, small group format with Title I Reading Teachers, in an urban Midwest school district, and to make

recommendations to urban principals and superintendents on best practice around

Corrective Reading's use as a supplemental reading tool.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: How do Title I Reading Teachers perceive the small-group, pull-out Corrective Reading implementation model and student outcomes?

Research Question 2: How do classroom teachers perceive the whole group and small-group learning center Corrective Reading implementation models and student outcomes?

Research Question 3: How do after-school teachers perceive the whole group, after-school implementation model of Corrective Reading and student outcomes?

Research Question 4: How do principals perceive the three Corrective Reading delivery models and student outcomes?

Null Hypothesis

Null Hypothesis: There is no difference in pre-post RIT Scores of third through fifth grade students who receive Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading Teacher, the classroom teacher, or the after-school teacher.

Data Collection and Procedures

Several district staff members assisted in data collection for the study. The researcher worked as the Director of Curriculum and Grants in a non-evaluative role in District 7. A dissertation committee member also served in a non-evaluative role and worked as a literacy consultant for the school district. In addition, a district level English Language Arts (ELA) Content Specialist, five instructional coaches (one working at each elementary school), and five elementary school principals conducted classroom

walkthroughs, a component of daily operating procedures, during Corrective Reading

instruction to ensure fidelity of program implementation.

Classroom Walkthroughs

According to Cooke, Helf, and Konrad (2014), "When teachers or other instructors

are provided with structure, they are likely to be more efficient in their instruction for

students at risk of reading difficulties" (p. 219). To ensure staff had a clear and consistent

understanding of what constituted accurate Corrective Reading instruction, the researcher

and research assistant attended at least one six-hour professional development session with

the teachers who implemented the program. McGraw-Hill trainers led the Corrective

Reading professional development sessions during the months of July and August 2013.

As a part of the researcher's district responsibilities, a McGraw-Hill trainer then worked

with the researcher to develop a classroom walkthrough tool to gauge fidelity of

Corrective Reading implementation (see Appendix A). The researcher, the ELA Content

Specialist, five instructional coaches, and the five principals conducted daily classroom

walkthroughs utilizing the classroom walkthrough tool, for one week at the beginning of

the 2013-2014 school year to ensure the Corrective Reading program was implemented

with fidelity. Instructional coaches, as an ongoing responsibility, conducted follow-up

visits to support teachers, as needed. For security, all staff used an electronic device to

record walkthrough data, which was uploaded to the district's secured server in real time.

The researcher reviewed each classroom walkthrough to ensure Corrective Reading

teachers received support needed to implement the program with fidelity.

Participant Interviews

Participant recruitment was the first step to begin the interview process. The dissertation committee member requested a roster with the names of all Title I Reading Teachers, after-school teachers, and third, fourth, and fifth-grade teachers from the elementary school principals. The committee member then sent an e-mail to all eligible teachers and principals to solicit participation in the study.

Eligible teachers included all third through fifth-grade general education teachers, after-school teachers, and Title I Reading Teachers who previously attended Corrective Reading training. Not all teachers were assigned to deliver the Corrective Reading intervention, so teaching Corrective Reading was an eligibility requirement. All the teachers held Illinois State elementary school teaching licenses. Title I Reading Teachers held an additional endorsement that uniquely qualified them to teach remedial reading. The five elementary school principals received a participation request. Special Educators were excluded from the study because Corrective Reading was not utilized in self-contained classrooms or with special needs students during small-group instruction.

The next step in setting up interviews included accepting the first five respondents from each elementary school, according to a specific Corrective Reading delivery model; classroom teachers, Title I Reading Teachers, and after-school teachers. Some of the eligible teachers responded to the e-mail after the fifth teacher was selected. The committee member kept track of teachers' responses and placed individuals in a queue. The committee member held individual conversations with the teachers who were not initially selected to explain the selection process and to invite teachers to participate should a previously-selected teacher drop out of the study. The researcher used the same

process to select four teachers (two classroom teachers and two after-school teachers)

from the pool of late respondents when other teachers could not be scheduled for an

interview. The five elementary school principals agreed to participate in the study.

To maintain anonymity during data collection, the committee member devised a

coding system for teachers, principals, and schools. The coding system included: a)

classroom teachers, T1, T2, T3, T4, and T5; b) Title I Reading Teachers, TT1, TT2, TT3,

TT4, and TT5; c) after-school teachers, AT1, AT2, AT3, AT4, and AT5; and d) principals

and schools, P1/S1, P2/S2, P3/S3, P4/S4, and P5/S5.

During the fall semester of the 2015-2016 school year, several data collection

processes took place. First, the ELA Content Specialist, instructional coaches, and

principals conducted classroom walkthroughs for one week, to ensure teachers

implemented Corrective Reading with fidelity. The instructional coaches served as

floating substitute teachers throughout the semester, so Corrective Reading teachers could

conduct peer observations during Corrective Reading instruction times. Classroom

teachers, Title I Reading Teachers, and after-school teachers conducted at least two peer

observations of Corrective Reading instruction during the school day as a part of the

researched district's ongoing professional improvement. The three groups of teachers also

observed at least one Corrective Reading class during the after-school program. Once a

teacher completed the three peer observations, the teacher scheduled an interview with the

committee member. The dissertation committee member conducted all teacher and

principal interviews, then coded and transcribed the responses. Interview questions (see

Appendices B, C, D, and E) addressed two main categories; namely, experience and

perceptions regarding Corrective Reading as an intervention tool and reading growth

related to the students' instructional delivery model.

Upon completion of all interviews, the dissertation committee member maintained

all interview data as electronically submitted on the district's secured server and

forwarded all coded and de-identified interview data to the researcher at the end of the

data collection period. The ELA Content Specialist collected and secured data and

answered participants' questions when the committee member was not working in the

district.

The researcher coded the interview responses according to themes aligned with

each research question and separated questions into two categories. Table 3 categorizes

the two question types for each set of questions.

Table 3

Categories for Interview Questions

Interview Groups	Question Types	
	Experience	Perception
Title I Reading Teachers	1, 3, 5, 7, 8	2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11
Classroom Teachers	1, 3, 5, 7, 8	2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11
After-School Teachers	1, 3, 5, 7, 8	2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12
Principals	1, 3, 5, 7, 8	2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11

Secondary D**ata Analysis**

Corrective Reading reinforced decoding and comprehension skills, which allowed

students to read grade-level text upon completion of the program (Marchand-Martella et

al., n.d.). General education students with RIT scores indicating the student read two or

more years below grade level qualified for the supplemental reading intervention. District

7 initially adopted Corrective Reading intervention into the curriculum and implemented

the program during Summer School 2013. A typical student took a full school year to

complete one component of Corrective Reading (decoding or comprehension). Classroom

teachers and Title I Reading Teachers continued to implement Corrective Reading

intervention with the summer school attendees once the 2013-2014 school year started.

Principals also expanded Corrective Reading sessions into the after-school programs. In

the 2013-2014 school year, the district staffed 52 sections of Corrective Reading across

the five elementary schools. To improve students' reading growth, district leaders

extended Corrective Reading sessions through Summer School 2015 and 2016 and

included additional sessions in each elementary school in school throughout school years

2014-2016. The study included students' NWEA, MAP Reading RIT scores from Spring

2014 through Spring 2016.

The school district required the NWEA MAP Reading assessments to be

administered three times per year, to track students' reading growth. Each year beginning

in the 2013-2014 school year, all students participated in a fall reading assessment in

September to establish a baseline score, a winter assessment in January to gauge reading

growth from the beginning of the school year, and a spring assessment in May to

determine reading growth for the school year. The district stored students' NWEA data on

its secured, password-protected server. Principals analyzed students' MAP scores as a

regular function of the role after each test administration, to make instructional decisions

in the schools.

The researcher worked as District 7's Curriculum Director and held a password to

access all disaggregated NWEA MAP data as a matter of routine responsibilities. For the

study, the researcher conducted a stratified random sample of 150 students from the 480

total students district-wide who received Corrective Reading. The researcher identified 30

students from each elementary school (15 girls and 15 boys). In each school, 10 students

received reading intervention from a teacher in the general education classroom, 10

students received reading intervention from a general education teacher in the after-school

program, and 10 students received reading intervention from a Title I Reading Teacher in

a small-group, pull-out environment during the school day. The student gender make-up

for each of the three instructional delivery models was five males and five females. All

the selected students received a full year of Corrective Reading instruction prior to taking

baseline data in the Spring 2014. The researcher analyzed students' pre-to-post reading

RIT scores (Spring 2014 and Spring 2016) across the three instructional delivery models

for the study.

The researcher left no identifying criteria after transferring students' scores from

the district's server to the researcher's records. The researcher maintained student

anonymity by labeling students as Student 1, Student 2, Student 3 . . . Student 150 (See

Table 4).

Table 4

Coding for Student Selection at Elementary Schools

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	Totals
General Education Classroom Model	10	10	10	10	10	50
After-School Classroom Model	10	10	10	10	10	50
Title I Classroom Pull-Out Model	10	10	10	10	10	50
Students Counts Per School	30	30	30	30	30	150

Note: *S1, S2 denoted School 1, School 2 . . .

For the quantitative analysis, the researcher applied an Analysis of Variance

(ANOVA) test. An ANOVA "is used to test the hypothesis concerning the means of three

or more populations" (Bluman, 2013, p. 603). The researcher applied an ANOVA to compare students' pre-to-post test scores (Spring 2014-Spring 2016) for the three different Corrective Reading instructional delivery models. Results are discussed in Chapter Four.

Summary

This study added to the existing body of knowledge in many ways. Elementary school principals could use results of the study to determine staffing needs in the schools, specifically related to hiring credentials of teachers who delivered supplemental reading instruction. In addition, superintendents could use the results of the study as a research base for selecting Corrective Reading as a reading intervention tool. The researcher read extensively in three broad areas to narrow the focus for the study: literacy instruction and pedagogy, supplemental reading, and urban school achievement. To make an educated decision, an urban school principal or superintendent would need to put forth the same effort when making decisions around supplemental literacy practices in schools and districts. The results of the study may allow urban school principals and superintendents insight into best practice on implementing Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading intervention leading to informed decisions to strengthen the literacy programs and improve the learning outcomes for urban youth. Chapters Four and Five summarize the analysis of the data, provide recommendations for school leaders on the best use of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading intervention tool, and provide recommendations for future research.

Chapter Four: Analysis

Chapter Four details the researcher's analysis of qualitative (interview) and

quantitative (NWEA MAP Reading RIT scores) data. During the study, 15 public

elementary school teachers (five classroom teachers, five after-school teachers, and five

Title I Reading teachers) delivered Corrective Reading intervention to 150 students in the

five elementary schools. The five elementary school principals also observed Corrective

Reading instruction in the selected teachers' classrooms. The qualitative analysis included

reviewing and coding teacher and principal interview responses around common themes

related to participants' experiences and perceptions of Corrective Reading, as delivered in

three different instructional models. Quantitative analysis consisted of a comparison of

pre-to-post mean reading RIT scores for third through fifth-grade students across three

school years, from Spring 2014 through Spring 2016 and across three instructional

delivery models. The researcher applied an ANOVA test to the RIT scores to determine if

a difference existed among the instructional delivery models. The results provided

information on best practice for Corrective Reading delivery.

Educator Experiences and Perceptions

Research Question 1: How do Title I Reading Teachers perceive the small-

group, pull-out Corrective Reading implementation model and student outcomes?

To address the research question, the researcher analyzed answers to 11 questions

from five Title I Reading teachers (one in each elementary school). Title I Reading

teachers worked in two classroom environments during the school day. First, Title I

Reading teachers pushed into general education classrooms during the 120-minute reading

block at the start of each day, while general education teachers delivered Tier 1 reading

instruction using the on-grade-level McGraw-Hill reading curriculum. During the

morning reading block, Title I Reading teachers assisted all struggling readers in the

independent study portion of reading class. During the remaining four instructional

periods in the school day, Title I Reading teachers pulled the lowest-achieving students

out of science or social studies class to deliver Corrective Reading intervention in small-

groups. Students who received supplemental reading instruction from the Title I teacher

qualified because the RIT scores indicated students read at least two or more years below

grade level.

The district established a system for identifying and assigning students for reading

intervention with the Title I Reading teacher. All students took the NWEA MAP Test in

Reading three times per year, which produced a Reading RIT score in the fall, winter, and

spring. Principals analyzed the baseline, mid-year, and end-of-year RIT scores and moved

students into and out of Title I Reading groups accordingly. Once a student demonstrated

on-grade-level reading ability, as measured by the RIT score, the student returned to the

social studies or science classroom. Conversely, if a student's RIT score fell two or more

years below grade level, the student was placed with a Title I Reading Teacher for

Corrective Reading intervention in place of the science or social studies class.

The system worked well in getting students identified but failed in placing large

numbers of the students with Title I Reading teachers. Many struggling readers identified

as needing small-group, pull-out intervention sat on a wait list, because schools lacked the

number of Title I Reading teachers needed to serve the volume. In addition, students took

a full school year to complete one component of Corrective Reading (decoding or

comprehension), so small-groups tended to remain together with little-to-no student

movement in or out during a school year. Within the four periods of instruction beyond

the morning reading block, one Title I Reading teacher could serve a maximum of 20

students per year in the small-group, pull-out instructional model.

Title I reading teachers' experiences and perceptions. When asked to describe

the teaching experience during the Corrective Reading intervention time and share

thoughts about Corrective Reading as an intervention tool, Title I teachers unanimously

perceived Corrective Reading as positive. Teachers discussed the daily structure of the

program as a strength; particularly, the program required a gradual release of

responsibility from the teacher to the student. Teachers modeled a skill, then practiced the

skill with students, and then allowed students to practice the skill. One teacher noted the

tool's greatest strength as 'starting at the basest level, with letter-sound recognition and

working through decoding and blending skills' (TT4).

Teachers also noted the program required a review of the previous day's skill,

which allowed all students to have a 'quick win' during the lesson (TT1). Teachers

emphasized the importance of struggling readers experiencing success early and often

during reading instruction. 'It makes them feel like they can do it [read] too, despite all

their struggles,' one teacher exclaimed (TT1). Another teacher commented, 'I am seeing

hands waving frantically at the start of the lesson because so many students know the

answers to the review questions' (TT3).

Perhaps the greatest strength teachers expressed about teaching Corrective Reading

was the structure the program provided. Prior to the district adopting the program,

teachers devised individual interventions or used the supplemental materials from the

textbook series, which all teachers agreed were still beyond some struggling readers'

comprehension. The teachers' sentiments were consistent with Cooke et al.'s (2014) study which found "students identified as needing strategic support, who received instruction in the structured supplemental reading program, finished Kindergarten with better scores on DIBELS than did students who received teacher-designed or teacher-selected instruction" (p. 218). Teachers praised Corrective Reading's scaffolded structure, which started with simple skills and built toward more complex ones.

All the Title I teachers noted the program allowed teachers flexibility to move at the pace the students were learning. One teacher who had four small groups (two third grade, one fourth grade, and one fifth grade) told the interviewer the third-grade groups out-paced all the groups. The teacher reported feeling grateful to finally have a tool which helped 'meet her kids where they were' instead of forcing the students to keep pace with 'where I know they should be' (TT3). Title I Reading Teachers unanimously reported success with all the students.

Teachers tended to define success as students' reading growth (as measured by the RIT score) improving at least 1.5 years or more in one school year. Title I teachers felt confident the students would be reading on grade level within two school years, and all but one teacher credited Corrective Reading intervention with students' success. The fifth teacher credited the small group format and the ability to put students with like-reading deficits in the same groups 'without regard for which grade level they were in' (TT5).

Teachers provided positive reports on students' behavior both during supplemental reading time and during the regular reading block. Teachers credited the simplicity of skills in Corrective Reading as the reason students 'felt a sense of accomplishment' during the supplemental reading period (TT3). Title I teachers pushed in to general education

classrooms during the morning reading block as co-teachers, to observe the pull-out

students during general education instruction. All Title I teachers stated students in the

pull-out program showed increasing confidence and exhibited less off-task behaviors as

the school year progressed. One teacher commented, 'The biggest change was with my

boys. At first, all they did was play. When the first boy gave a correct answer, all his

group mates started competing to raise their hands first' (TT5). Another teacher reported,

'I dreaded calling on some of my weaker students at the start of the year. Now I dread the

end of Q and A because I can't call on everybody' (TT2). A third teacher exclaimed,

'Simply amazing is how I describe my kids who are getting "a double" in reading. They

used to be the worst behaved, now they are the best—and the smartest!' (TT3). Teachers

attributed the change in students' personal and classroom behaviors to the improved

confidence with reading. One teacher said, 'I was always so proud to see my kids [from

the pull-out group] volunteer to read to classmates or lead the lesson during independent

reading time' (TT5).

Title I teachers also shared the disappointment students, families, and staff felt

when students were pulled from science or social studies class for supplemental reading.

One teacher wrote, 'I just hate when my kids have to leave science class because they

almost always have to drop off the robotics team, and that's the only place some kids

excel' (TT2). Another teacher wrote, 'Social studies is really important because of the

current events and geography site visit units. The only time some kids leave Eastlian is

when they go to St. Louis' (TT1). A third teacher expressed frustration at falling out of

favor with some parents, noting, 'They [parents] blame me for their child's low reading

score. If they only knew, some of these low scores were caused by not being read to at

home!' (TT4). In one elementary school, some students attended science and social

studies classes with a different teacher from the homeroom teacher. The Title I teacher in

the school described students' and families' reactions to students being pulled from a

popular social studies teacher's class. The Title I teacher wrote, 'They cry. The kids cry

then the mamas cry. I know the double reading period is the right placement, but it's just

hard on everybody involved' (TT3). All five teachers reported the need to provide

incentives, so students could see some benefit to missing the other classes in favor of

attending a second reading class — which 'students absolutely, positively, unquestionably

hated' one teacher recounted (TT2).

Title I Reading Teachers co-taught in the general education setting daily and could

observe peers implementing Corrective Reading during the 120-minute reading block.

Title I teachers also observed Corrective Reading instruction in the after-school program

at least once prior to the interview. Title I teachers described the similarities and

differences between the two Corrective Reading delivery models.

Title I teachers highly praised Corrective Reading for the consistency. Teachers

pointed out the scripted nature of the program ensured all teachers covered the same skills

in the same order. The research agreed, "A scripted program has the advantage of

controlling the communication so that it is unambiguous, efficient, and ensures corrective

feedback" (Cooke et al., 2014, p. 219). The teachers believed being scripted strengthened

Corrective Reading's validity as a supplemental reading tool. One Title I Reading teacher

said, 'Even though I'm a second year teacher, I know I'm teaching Corrective Reading the

right way because the classroom teachers are covering the materials exactly the same way

I do it' (TT3). Another teacher expressed, 'Finally, we all have one program that keeps us

on the same page. We move at our own pace, but we follow the same script, and it's

working' (TT2). A third Title I teacher wrote about teaching Corrective Reading, 'It's

refreshing. Pulling intervention curriculum from the internet and other places was just so

random. The CR directions are clear and consistent, and the kids respond to it' (TT5).

Another teacher reported, 'I know CR is working because the scripts keep all teachers

consistent, so all students receive the same instruction regardless of their teacher's years

of experience' (TT1).

Title I Reading teachers expressed the benefits of all students being exposed to

basic reading skills and repetition of previously-taught skills; however, teachers expressed

frustration with not being able to work with more students who needed one-on-one or

small-group reading intervention. 'I can only bring five students in at a time, but I know

so many more need the help,' one teacher noted (TT1). Another teacher said, 'I wish I

could expand my pull-out groups to at least eight. That would help my third and fifth

grade co-teachers to have smaller learning center groups' (TT3). TT2 stated, 'I know I

can help more students. Some of them don't even need a whole year of CR to catch up,

just a little more one-on-one time would do it.' Teachers reported Corrective Reading

provided many students a chance at learning skills the students lacked.

Corrective Reading instruction was generally provided in two different formats in

the general education classroom. One format occurred when the teacher rotated small

groups (3-5 students) into a learning center to complete a 15-minute mini-lesson. The

other format occurred during large group instruction when the teacher covered Corrective

Reading lessons with the whole class. As a routine of the job, Title I Reading Teachers

made separate reports to principals on the reading progress for students in the pull-out

groups, as well as other struggling readers in the general education classroom. All the

Title I Reading Teachers' reports noted students in classroom teachers' small group

learning centers posted slightly higher reading gains than other low-scoring classmates.

One teacher noted, 'It appears small-group intervention is working' (TT1). Another Title

I Reading Teacher agreed, 'Even though the classroom teacher only spends 15 minutes a

day reinforcing basic skills, the improvement [students' RIT scores] is irrefutable' (TT3).

A third teacher said 'At first, I thought it was just a fluke that RIT scores for kids in the

learning centers were rising faster than other students. Now I have seen the mid-year

scores, and I am convinced they are' (TT4). 'The improvement has to be attributed to the

small-group instruction. Students in learning centers are accelerating in growth faster than

the kids who are already performing on grade level' (TT5).

Title I Reading Teachers noted the inability of the classroom teachers to assess

individual students' progress daily. One Title I Teacher wrote, 'Learning centers times are

too short. Teachers maybe need to expand the time by five minutes, so they can check to

see if all the students understood the lesson or got enough practice' (TT5). 'I notice the

classroom teachers move kids quickly through the lessons and transition the next learning

center group without checking for understand or summarizing the skills. That's the most

important part' (TT3). Title I teachers generally expressed positive comments regarding

the structure of Corrective Reading instruction, but saw the shortened timeframe for

implementing Corrective Reading as a shortfall of implementation in the general

education classroom. One teacher commented, 'The whole group instruction is good

overall, but some individuals fall through the cracks because they need individual

attention to practice skills and to receive feedback on their progress' (TT1). Another

teacher said, 'I commend classroom teachers for working with all the students. I believe it works for most but definitely not for the ones who need more practice' (TT 2). The other Title I Reading Teacher expressed concern regarding 'the general nature of implementing Corrective Reading to the whole class possibly weakened greater academic and behavioral student outcomes' (TT4). A different Title I teacher supported the sentiments by stating, "I witness students becoming stronger and more confident readers and school citizens every day, and I know more time and practice would accelerate and magnify those qualities' (TT1).

A final theme from Title I teacher interviews was the position individuals took on one instructional model being superior to another. Title I teachers believed the small-group instruction model allowed for more opportunity to interact with students and to provide one-on-one support in real time. Teachers highly praised and appreciated the delivery model. However, some Title I teachers believed Corrective Reading was such a powerful intervention tool, classroom teachers and after-school teachers implementing the tool with fidelity might have an advantage. 'Corrective Reading works, and they get to use it with the whole class then double down with some kids in the learning centers. I can't do that' (TT2). 'Classroom teachers get to teach the kids all day and reinforce reading skills in other content areas. That is a clear advantage' (TT3). After-school teachers have smaller class sizes than classroom teachers, so they can provide individual feedback and really make an impact on reading scores' (TT4). Title I teachers expressed the other two instructional models had the potential to improve more students' reading growth; and therefore, could be considered superior to the small-group pull-out model. When asked if there was anything more they wanted to share, Title one teachers reiterated

the strengths of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool and praised the focus

the program provided for instruction.

       Research Question 2: How do classroom teachers perceive the whole group and

small-group learning center Corrective Reading implementation models and student

outcomes?

       To address the question, the researcher analyzed responses to the same 11questions

Title I teachers answered regarding individual experiences teaching Corrective Reading

and the perceptions of students' academic and behavioral outcomes. The classroom

teacher group consisted of one third through fifth-grade teacher from each of the five

elementary schools, for a total of five classroom teachers. All the classroom teachers

participating in the study taught the 120-minute reading block at the start of the school day

and four additional subjects (writing, spelling, science, and social studies) throughout the

school day. Classroom teachers observed Title I Reading Teachers and after-school

teachers during Corrective Reading instruction at least once prior to the interviews, as a

component of ongoing professional development. Several themes emerged in the

classroom teachers' answers.

       Classroom teachers' experiences and perceptions. The first set of questions

asked teachers to describe individual observations as they taught Corrective Reading, and

how teachers perceived the program as a reading intervention tool. All classroom

teachers' responses included a variation of how teachers' explicit phonics instruction was

improved by receiving Corrective Reading professional development prior to

implementing the program. Teachers reported previously mispronouncing letter sounds

when teaching phonics. For example, one teacher said she was teaching students to

pronounce the letter 'b' by saying 'bu,' 'p' as 'pu,' 'd' as 'du,' and so on. When students

began to decode words with those consonants, the students pronounced the letters

incorrectly, and failed to decode words correctly. One teacher recalled an incident in class

with a student who played baseball with the teacher's son. The student was attempting to

decode the word base. The teacher asked the student to sound the word out. The teacher

noticed the student kept verbalizing 'bu' for the /b/ sound, and never realized the word

was base. At one attempt, the student sounded the word out using 'bu' at the beginning

and smiling, incorrectly guessed the word as bus. The teacher recounted being

flabbergasted, because the student failed repeatedly to sound out the printed word, base,

even though he was exposed to the words base, baseball, base hit, and first base, in real

world situations on a regular basis.

    During the initial Corrective Reading training, teachers reported learning to

correctly pronounce consonant sounds, and in turn, improved the teaching of consonant

sounds. The McGraw-Hill representative modeled the lessons for teachers and gave time

for teachers to practice with each other. The newly-acquired skill ensured teachers were

no longer teaching consonant sounds incorrectly; thereby, eliminating the cause of

students stumbling through decoding and blending skills.

    Another common thread in classroom teachers' responses was the relative ease

students began to experience once teacher's re-taught basic skills emphasized in

Corrective Reading. Teachers described the program as a 'catch-all' for re-teaching all the

basic reading skills struggling readers needed. Teachers also reported high class

participation during choral response, including struggling readers and students who

already read on grade level. One teacher recounted, 'choral reading was the one time

when low readers took a risk to respond orally . . . because all the other students were

participating' (T3). Teachers noted by modeling skills first, struggling readers gave

correct responses along with strong readers. As struggling readers gained confidence in

reading, the group dynamic changed for the better, and overall classroom morale

improved during the reading block. Teachers reported having no reluctant readers by the

end of the first semester, after incorporating Corrective Reading lessons into the 120-

minute reading block. Classroom teachers credited Corrective Reading with providing

teachers with the scripts, which opened the opportunity for all students to demonstrate

success with reading.

Classroom teachers described the differences and similarities between the

classroom implementation of Corrective Reading versus the Title I Reading Teachers'

implementation and the after-school implementation. Teachers recounted the structure of

each lesson and the required teaching style modeled in Corrective Reading professional

development as similarities. The teachers reported having a confidence boost during the

peer observation and specifically when the observed teacher approached the lesson

similarly to the way the teacher completing the observation approached the lesson.

Classroom teachers noted other classroom teachers and after-school teachers

sometimes mispronounced consonant sounds while teaching synthetic phonics, while Title

I Reading Teachers seldom, if ever, made the mistake. 'I used to get so frustrated with my

students after I practiced with them for days and they still couldn't sound out words,' one

teacher wrote (T3). Another teacher agreed, 'I did everything I knew to do and conceded

after awhile that some kids are going to guess words no matter how much I model for

them and practice with them' (T1). A third teacher expressed, 'It seems so clear why my

kids' fluency isn't improving. After watching other teachers and thinking about how I

taught phonics, I know my teaching was a big problem' (T5).

The most commonly-addressed difference classroom teachers noted was the

benefit Title I Teachers had to focus instruction on individuals every day. Several

teachers who pulled students into small groups for Corrective Reading mini-lessons in the

classroom, talked about the benefit of teaching in small groups, but recognized similar

gains could not occur in 15 minutes, compared to Title I teachers who taught full

Corrective Reading lessons for 50 minutes per day. One teacher described, 'I am

responsible for all the learning centers, even when I pull my phonics groups into my

center. I know I have to maintain classroom discipline, and that's a distraction from

teaching' (T2). Another teacher agreed, 'If I had no other responsibilities when I teach

Corrective Reading in the learning centers, I would make so much more progress with

them [students]' (T3). T4 stated, 'I am always popping up and down, so my other students

know I am paying attention to what is happening around the classroom. In the meantime,

I am missing out on quality time teaching the students in my learning center.' Classroom

teachers expressed the small-group, pull-out scenario as being a superior instructional

model to whole-group instruction.

Teachers expressed the importance of being able to assess and address individual

students' needs was the best possible teaching and learning situation, and all the classroom

teachers believed the Title I Reading Teachers' instructional format would yield the

greatest student reading growth in the shortest possible time. T5 said, 'I sometimes think I

make more of a difference with students in the learning centers because I can tell when

they don't understand, and when they make a mistake, I can re-teach.' T2 stated, 'Title I

teachers only have the students in front of them during pull-out, so they can monitor and

adjust instruction according to students' behavior and learning in real time' (T2). T3

described, 'the pull-out group format allows enough uninterrupted time for Title teachers

to cover every skill in depth, every day and practice with each student until they get it.'

Classroom teachers consistently pointed out another dynamic in the after-school

program was administrators provided after-school teachers with snacks and other tangible

items (stickers, toys, games) to incentivize students for academic gains and/or positive

behavior. T1 stated, 'If I gave my students game time, snacks, and extra playground time

in exchange for trying harder to read, write, do math . . . they would probably do a better

job.' T3 remarked, 'I think parents hold their children more accountable [in the after-

school program] because we know some kids only eat regular meals when they're at

school. They can't risk getting kicked out' (T2). Regarding whether students in the after-

school program performed and/or behaved better because of the incentives, a fourth

classroom teacher remarked, 'We will never know because they [students] do get to play,

do crafts, eat snacks, socialize . . . you would have to remove all that to know' (T5).

Another teacher stated, 'Of course the kids are going to behave better and apply

themselves to the work in that [after-school] program. They are literally kids in a candy

store!' (T4).

Classroom teachers also saw the after-school Corrective Reading academic period

as superior, citing extrinsic motivators and a smaller class size as reasons. Although

students attending Corrective Reading intervention in the after-school program also

qualified, based on RIT scores indicating the students read two or more years below grade

level, the after-school class sizes were limited to 20 students per teacher for programmatic

and safety reasons (compared to as many as 28 students per teacher in the general

education classrooms).   As was noted by classroom teachers, students in the after-school

program received an enrichment period and an athletic period in a three-part rotation with

the academic intervention period. Because of the perceived fun atmosphere, classroom

teachers believed students in the after-school program would experience greater reading

growth over students receiving Corrective Reading intervention in the general education

class whole-group format during the school day.

Research Question 3: How do after-school teachers perceive the whole group,

after-school implementation model of Corrective Reading and student outcomes?

The after-school teacher group consisted of five general education teachers (one

from each school) who taught in grades three through five during the school day and were

hired to teach three groups of 20 students in a 25-minute rotation of activities after school.

The rotation of activities included: academics (Corrective Reading), seasonal athletics,

and enrichment such as robotics club, art club, computer club. The after-school

coordinator grouped students according to academic needs and provided after-school

teachers with the Corrective Reading lessons relevant for each student group. The after-

school Corrective Reading lessons served as an extension and reinforcement for the skills

students worked on during the school day. All after-school teacher participants completed

three peer observations, one of a Title I Reading Teacher, one of a classroom teacher, and

one in another after-school teacher's classroom during Corrective Reading instruction,

prior to the interview.

After-school teachers' experiences and perceptions. After-school teachers

expressed some unique challenges. First, each one of the after-school teachers reported

putting forth excessive energy to re-focus students on learning. Teachers reported

students displayed the full range of emotions at the end of the school day; some students

had high energy, while others showed signs of fatigue. Some students attended to teacher

cues, while others displayed only off-task behavior. Students' lack of focus was the

number one concern expressed by after-school teachers. According to one teacher, 'By

the time I get them settled in for instruction, half the time is gone' (AT2). Another teacher

complained, 'These kids cannot handle four transitions in two hours . . . from the

homeroom to the gym . . . library . . . after-school classroom . . . pick-up/bus area. It's too

much transition' (AT1). AT5 described the academic period was 'like pulling teeth for me

to get and keep some students focused on learning. It's the wrong time of day for teaching

and learning.' AT4 noted, 'You get a mixed bag — some students you know and others

you don't. You have to learn what motivates each one to make progress with them.' AT3

stated, 'If I only had the students in my class, and we could meet in our classroom, that

would help me, help them pay attention to the lessons.'

When asked about observations during Corrective Reading in the after-school

program, the teachers compared the after-school teaching experience with classroom

instruction. Teachers expressed confidence to teach the lessons with fidelity and noted

classroom management skills as an asset to work with students, but teachers perceived

instructing a different group of students in the after-school program was a drawback. One

teacher stated, 'I know my kids, and I have credibility with them. The kids in the after-

school program come from different teachers. It takes a while to convince them I mean

business' (AT3).

After-school teachers also expressed teaching after school was less stressful. Teachers reported feeling pressure to demonstrate to the principals reading growth gains with students on the daily classroom roster. Teachers felt reading instruction in the after-school program served primarily as support for struggling readers; whereas, teachers perceived reading instruction during the school day as a requirement to improve student reading growth.

When asked to compare the after-school teaching model with the general education classroom and Title I Reading Teachers' models, after school teachers noted few differences between teaching Corrective Reading strategies after school and during the school day. However, after-school teachers did praise the small-group, pull-out model and unanimously agreed the model was superior to teaching Corrective Reading lessons in a large-group format. Three after-school teachers believed students taught by Title I teachers would realize greater reading growth scores. AT1 stated, 'Title I Teachers have the opposite situation as after-school teachers when it comes to time-on-task with students. They get to maximize instruction every day. We rarely get that chance.' Regarding small-group, pull-out instruction, AT2 believed 'it's the best way to deliver instruction, no matter what the subject matter is.' 'The teacher is in total control of the environment, and that has to happen first' (AT4). The other two after-school teachers believed classroom teachers and Title I teachers had an equal chance of having students show reading growth. According to AT5, 'I think my kids in the learning centers will read as well as the ones that work with the Title teachers.' AT4 agreed 'a lot of my kids just needed a good program like Corrective Reading to reach their full potential. I don't think any student in my class will be left behind now.'

All after-school teachers articulated the after-school program was the least

favorable environment, of the three, to deliver supplemental reading instruction. AT1

wrote, 'If we structured the after-school schedule to teach in small groups, even if it meant

we didn't cover the lessons as fast, the kids would actually learn more.' AT2 said, 'I

would rank the successful teaching environment like this: Title I groups, learning center

groups, whole class groups . . . no after school. After school groups feel like a setup for

failure.' 'The program [after-school] has its strengths. Teaching in it and learning in it

are not among those strengths' (AT3). AT4 agreed, 'I think we often lose more than we

gain trying to focus all twenty students on a learning activity after a full day of school.'

AT5 exclaimed, 'If my job depended solely on students' reading scores, I'd still choose

Corrective Reading, but I would teach it exclusively in small-groups, never after school!'

Teachers reported the number and degree of off-task student behaviors negated any

benefits of having a smaller class size after school. When asked about the benefits of the

20-student cap on after-school class sizes, one teacher commented, "An article I read said

class sizes needed to be reduced to 15 or fewer students for class size to matter. Imagine

what the after-school class size would have to be!' (AT5). Further, teachers expressed few

students would make noticeable reading gains if the student received reading support

solely in the after-school setting. One teacher noted, 'I am sure some students learn in the

after-school program, after all, everything works for some people, right?' (AT3).

Research Question 4: How do principals perceive three Corrective Reading

delivery models and student outcomes?

Five elementary school principals participated in the study in several ways. First,

principals attended at least one day-long professional development session with teachers

to ensure principals understood program components and could recognize and support

Corrective Reading implementation with fidelity in the individual schools. Principals

conducted classroom walkthroughs to ensure teachers had support to deliver high quality

instruction to struggling readers as a routine of daily duties. Principals also observed

classroom teachers, Title I Reading Teachers, and after-school teachers during Corrective

Reading instruction prior to the interviews.

Principals' experiences and perceptions. Principals were asked to describe the

observations of students and teachers during Corrective Reading instruction and to share

thoughts on Corrective Reading as an intervention tool. All principals noted the scripted

nature of Corrective Reading ensured one teaching style. One principal initially expressed

some concern the scripted programs like Corrective Reading stifled teacher creativity and

'lead to students' loss of interest in a lesson, and eventually, in school,' but the principal

agreed to 'keep an open mind about the program' (P3). The other four principals praised

the ease teachers had with delivering Corrective Reading instruction. P1 wrote, 'I have a

number of new teachers who really need those scripts and materials included in Corrective

Reading to be sure they are teaching the right content in the right manner.' Another

principal commented, 'This program flows so well that I will showcase it via peer

observations with teachers who struggle to deliver high-quality instruction' (P2).

All principals acknowledged the quick pace and repetitive nature of the lessons,

engendered a positive classroom climate during reading time. One principal noted, 'All

students seemed to follow teacher cues and enjoy the lessons' (P5).

Another principal commented, 'I never knew which students read well and which

ones struggled when I observed Corrective Reading instruction because the students

responded with confidence, and they all seemed to know the right answers' (P4). All

principals credited Corrective Reading instruction with reinforcing basic reading skills and

promoting on-task behaviors. One principal acknowledged, 'The program was needed to

help address the large numbers of students who read below grade level in our

schools'(P1). The principals also agreed Corrective Reading boosted students'

confidence, and students experienced fewer incidents of 'acting out' in the classroom (P4).

Another principal agreed, 'The structured teaching is keeping more students engaged.

Frequent flyers to the principals' office are remaining in the instructional environment,

instead of being removed for disciplinary reasons.' One principal noted, 'I consistently

see children responding in chorus with their classmates who I've never seen participating

at such high levels before' (P2). P3 admitted, 'I just knew this curriculum would dumb

down classroom instruction, but it appears the strong readers are as engaged as the weak

readers, and the weak readers have stopped disrupting the class. P4 stated, 'Not only do

the students seem confident in their answers, but the teachers also look and sound

confident because of the pace and correct answers students are providing.' 'I notice all the

kids are engaged in the lessons (not just going through the motions) but genuinely

engaged' (P5).

Principals all expressed one of the toughest roles was developing new teachers.

Interview responses revealed principals' stress associated with finding time to work with

teachers to improve instructional strategies in the classroom. P1 wrote, 'It is a daily fight

for time to observe teachers, and it is even harder to provide timely feedback.' P2 agreed,

'My goal is to observe all my new teachers at least two times per month or at least assign

my assistant principal and instructional coaches to go in and provide feedback (P3). P4

stated, 'I do instructional rounds with my AP [assistant principal] one day out of every week, and I still don't always get to send follow-up notes timely.' P5 echoed the other principals' sentiments and said, 'Observing in classrooms is time-consuming, but the CR [Corrective Reading] walkthrough tool helps me to provide clear and consistent feedback on program implementation. I just check the boxes on the form and leave them on teachers' desks.'

All five principals reported new and veteran teachers implemented Corrective Reading with fidelity after receiving the training. 'Attending the CR training removed all doubt I had about evaluating teachers on teaching requirements for the program, and teachers did not disappoint!' (P3). P4 acknowledged, 'The scripts allowed all the teachers to be successful with the program.' P2 agreed, 'I could not tell novice teachers from seasoned teachers during CR instruction, but I could tell which teachers really spent time prepping for the lessons.' P5 credited Corrective Reading with improving teacher instruction overall by stating, 'Immediately, I noticed teachers incorporating some of the Corrective Reading strategies into lessons in other disciplines. For instance, teachers modeled science and social studies vocabulary words, then had students repeat the words. I never saw teachers use that before we adopted CR.' P1 agreed and added, 'CR training leveled the playing field by providing the weaker teachers with solid teaching strategies.' Principals further noted, unlike teaching the reading series, novice teachers learned to teach Corrective Reading, as well as veteran teachers, and the students produced similar reading growth data as veteran teachers.

Another emergent theme from principals' interview responses was the positive response Corrective Reading received from parents. Every principal credited the structure

of the Corrective Reading program with cultivating the instructional environment where

every student could experience success quickly, so parents of struggling readers began to

receive encouraging reports on the children's reading gains. One principal exclaimed, 'I

just rolled my eyes when I saw parent x's phone number on the display, but I picked up

and was pleasantly surprised when she told me how happy she was with her son's reading

teacher and all the wonderful things the teacher's notes said about her child' (P5).

Another principal admitted 'I felt awkward at the last parent-teacher conference when I

saw several parents (who never returned our phone calls) meeting with teachers. I learned

later that teachers had been sending home positive notes about their kids' reading

progress' (P1). 'I'm that principal who encourages my teachers to find something positive

to say about every child when communicating with parents. Since we started

implementing corrective reading, the teachers have been generous with genuine reports

about students' reading progress' (P2). P4 wrote, 'I was on a call with one of my ELL

parents and the interpreter. At first, I thought the parent was upset because she was

speaking so loud and fast in Spanish, then the interpreter told me the parent was thanking

me for bringing Corrective Reading into the school.' P3 wrote, 'My parents love CR. My

teachers love CR. Kids who said they hate reading are responding to the CR lessons. I

totally respect CR.'

Principals also noted improved student behavior, especially with struggling

readers, once Corrective Reading was added to the daily curriculum. Four principals (P1,

P2, P4, and P5) noticed the lowest-performing students spent extensive time removed

from the instructional environment and placed in the principal's office for off-task and/or

outright misbehaviors. P1 commented, 'It was not uncommon for the boys to spend most

of the reading block in the office - at least three days out of a week. I believe they were trying to avoid reading because they never missed other classes.' P2 said her students 'will not stop talking out of turn during whole group instruction, so the teacher keeps sending them out.' According to P3, 'They just don't respect learning center leaders. Unless they are with the teacher the whole time, they stop their classmates who are trying to follow the learning center instructions.' P4 expressed a similar sentiment, 'If the students are not out of their seats, they are talking out . . . if not that they are throwing things — anything to avoid paying attention in class.' All five principals reported low-performing students were suspended in-school or out of school for repeated misbehaviors more often than other students, which put them further and further behind academically.

Four principals assigned struggling readers to small-group, pull-out teams with the Title I Reading Teachers for literacy intervention and to provide another caring adult role model for the students. Title I Reading Teachers reported, once students began to experience success with reading, students participated in classroom reading instruction more often and remained in the instructional environment. TT2 expressed pride when the pull-out students 'raised their hands first or earned the privilege to be the learning center leader or received a positive note for the parents.' P5 recounted, 'Over the course of one school year, my Title I students' RIT scores improved, which enabled some of them to qualify for extra-curricular clubs and teams for the first time. I think I was happier than some of their parents!' P2 noted, 'Once students began participating in extra-curricular events, parents came to the school to support the students, and that strengthened relationships between parents and the school staff.' P1 said, 'I probably would never have

met some of their parents in a non-confrontational setting if I hadn't put them in the small

group. It's one of the best decisions I've ever made' (P4).

Principals reported more similarities in Corrective Reading instruction across the

three instructional delivery models than differences. The responses revealed respect for

the scripted nature of the program. P3 noted, 'I can tell when teachers are leading a CR

lesson because the pace is fast, and time-on-task is at a maximum regardless of who is

doing the teaching.' Another principal agreed, 'My assistant principal and I noticed that

Corrective Reading instruction looks the same irrespective of the talent or skill of the

teacher' (P4).

Principals also perceived Corrective Reading was a valid and reliable supplemental

reading tool, and simply needed to support teachers to use the program with fidelity. 'I

think CR teachers are using the feedback they receive on the classroom walkthrough tool.

All of them seem to like it, and some of my other teachers have started to take notice of

CR teachers' new teaching style' (P1). According to P2, 'Whether the teacher has been

with the district one year or 30 years, they practice the same drills using the same

language in each Corrective Reading lesson.' P4 acknowledged, 'Corrective Reading

provides teachers with clear directions for teaching that allow students to approach

learning to read in a systematic, routine fashion' (P5).

Three principals preferred the model of Corrective Reading delivered in the

general education classroom and cited the potential for the program to show reading gains

with the maximum number of students. P3 said, 'My teachers are pretty skilled; I have

every confidence they will make progress with their whole class.' Another principal

expressed confidence in the teachers and stated, 'I like that all the kids in the class get to

experience the intervention curriculum. Advanced students have skills reinforced, and

slow learners receive the explicit focus on skills they missed prior' (P4).   P5 stated, 'I

believe even good readers need a refresher on basic skills, so teachers are improving

learning for all students with the whole group approach' (P5). One principal believed the

small-group pull-out environment was superior to the others 'because of the highly-

individualized instruction students received daily' (P2).

Overall, principals tended to have a positive opinion of Corrective Reading as a

supplemental reading tool. P3 exclaimed, 'It [Corrective Reading's structure] has already

made some good teachers even better.' Principals believed all students who received the

instruction would make gains so long as the program was implemented with fidelity. As

P1 noted, "Anything we implement with fidelity, in school or in life, will yield some

result. CR has promise, and I can't wait to see our next set of reading MAP scores.'

Null Hypothesis

Null Hypothesis: There is no difference in pre-post RIT Scores of third through

fifth grade students who receive Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading

Teacher, the classroom teacher, or the after-school teacher.

Results of Students' Reading Growth

To begin examination of student reading growth from Spring 2014 through Spring

2016, the researcher first calculated the actual growth of each student during the period, as

measured by the RIT scores. To do so, the researcher subtracted the Spring 2014 score

from the Spring 2016 score. The figure represented the actual growth for each student

during the 2014-2015 and 2015-2016 academic years. The data were then placed into

groups according to the Corrective Reading instructional delivery model. Table 5 displays

the descriptive statistics of the data.

Table 5

RIT Scores Across Three Instructional Delivery Models: Descriptive Statistics

Delivery Model	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance	St Dev
Classroom Teacher	47	696	14.8085	91.77	9.58
After School Teacher	46	443	9.63043	145.04	12.04
Title I Teacher	57	988	17.3333	133.08	11.54

To determine whether the means of the three groups were significantly different,

the researcher applied an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). An ANOVA "is used to test

the hypothesis concerning the means of three or more populations" (Bluman, 2013, p.

603) (see Table 6).

Table 6

Results of ANOVA Test

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	F crit
Between Groups	1537.4793	2	768.7397	6.209	0.0026	3.058
Within Groups	18200.661	147	123.81402			
Total	19738.14	149				

The *p*-value of 0.0026 compared to the α-value of .05, and the *F*-value of 6.209 compared

to *F*-critical of 3.058, indicated a significant difference among the means, so the

researcher rejected the null hypothesis. To determine exactly where the differences were,

the researcher conducted both the Tukey and Scheffe post hoc analyses. The post hoc

tests were run because "additional examination of the differences among means was

needed to provide specific information on which means were significantly different from

each other" (Hsu, 1996, p. 106). Both analyses revealed the mean of the Title I Reading

Teacher group was significantly higher than the mean of the After-School group.

Summary

Chapter Four detailed the qualitative and quantitative results of mixed methods analysis the researcher completed to examine elementary school educators' experiences and perceptions of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool and to determine best practice around implementing Corrective Reading in an urban Midwest school district. Qualitative analysis yielded evidence to suggest elementary school teachers and principals were overwhelmingly positive regarding the Corrective Reading program. Classroom teachers, after-school teachers, and principals acknowledged the initial Corrective Reading training improved the overall teaching. Title I Reading Teachers credited the structure of the program with providing focus for small-group instruction. Principals praised Corrective Reading for the way the program's structure set all students up for success and cultivated a supportive relationship between classroom teachers and parents of students who struggled to read. Also, participants reported consistency with teaching styles across the three instructional delivery models as positive and perceived Corrective Reading was a valid supplemental reading tool.

Whether instruction was delivered in a small-group, pull-out format with a Title I Reading Teacher, in a small-group learning center or whole-group format in the general education classroom, or in a whole-group format in the after-school program, participants reported students' learning was enhanced. While the after-school teachers believed after school was not the best time to deliver supplemental reading instruction, all participants unanimously agreed students would show reading growth, so long as Corrective Reading was implemented with fidelity.

Quantitative analysis of students' pre-post Reading RIT scores across the three instructional delivery models revealed a significant difference between students who received Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading Teacher and students who received Corrective Reading instruction in the After-School program. Students who received the small-group, pull-out instruction posted significantly higher reading growth scores than the after-school peers. In Chapter Five, the researcher discusses the results to make recommendations to urban principals and superintendents around best practice for implementing Corrective Reading as a supplemental intervention tool, along with recommendations for future studies.

Chapter Five: Discussion

Chapter Five discusses the results of the analysis completed on interview data and students' reading data collected in the study. The researcher compared the results, reflected on the discoveries, and provided recommendations for instructional best practice and future research. The purpose of the study was to use mixed methods to examine Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool taught in three instructional delivery models to determine best practice for implementation and make recommendations to urban principals and superintendents.

First, the researcher selected 150 third through fifth-grade students from general education classrooms across the district's five elementary schools, using a stratified, random sample to ensure 50 students represented each school. The researcher then selected the first five classroom teacher, after school teacher, and Title I Reading Teacher respondents for interviews on Corrective Reading instruction. Finally, the researcher solicited and received affirmation from the five elementary school principals to participate in the study.

Interview questions centered around participants' perceptions of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool, on students' reading growth and behaviors, and on the perception of each instructional delivery model. All participants observed Corrective Reading instruction delivered in the general education classroom (in large group and in learning centers), with whole groups in the after-school classroom, and in the small-group, pull-out format with the Title I Reading Teacher. Several themes emerged around participants' perceptions of Corrective Reading as a supplemental reading tool,

students' reading growth and behaviors, and the perceptions of each instructional delivery model.

In addition to interview data, the researcher analyzed students' reading growth data, as measured by NWEA Reading RIT scores, over the course of three school years (Spring 2014 through Spring 2016). Students took the NWEA Reading test three times per year - in the fall to establish a baseline score, in the winter to determine if the student was on track to make one year's growth, and in the spring to determine a student's reading growth for the school year. The principals analyzed seven data points (RIT scores) from each student over three school years to determine students' placement in Corrective Reading. General education students scoring two or more years below grade level were scheduled to receive small-group or after-school Corrective Reading intervention, in addition to the daily core instruction to ensure basic reading skills were consistently remediated. The research questions and hypothesis considered in the study were:

Research Questions

Research Question 1: How do Title I Reading Teachers perceive the small-group, pull-out Corrective Reading implementation model and student outcomes?

Research Question 2: How do classroom teachers perceive the whole group and small-group learning center Corrective Reading implementation models and student outcomes?

Research Question 3: How do after-school teachers perceive the whole group, after-school implementation model of Corrective Reading and student outcomes?

Research Question 4: How do principals perceive the three Corrective Reading delivery models and student outcomes?

Hypothesis

Hypothesis: There is a difference in pre-post RIT Scores of third through fifth grade students who receive Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading Teacher, the classroom teacher, or the after-school teacher.

Corrective Reading

To determine the perception of Corrective Reading as a reading intervention tool and to gauge student learning as measured by increased RIT scores, the researcher asked several questions and analyzed students' reading growth. Results of the data revealed a strong theme: teachers and principals unanimously endorsed Corrective Reading as a positive support for teaching and learning in the five elementary schools. Teachers showed a comfort level with delivering instruction after the initial Corrective Reading training. Both teachers and administrators cited various benefits of Corrective Reading; including the structure and consistency the program instilled across teachers of varying years of experience and talent levels; the positive classroom climate resulting from struggling readers gaining confidence to read; and the opportunity to provide positive reports to parents regarding children's progress in reading. The findings contradicted the literature, which overwhelming characterized urban literacy instruction as a failure (Allington & Baker, 2007; Allington & Walmsley, 1995; Amrein-Beardsley, 2012; Gaskins, 2005). A statistical difference in students' RIT scores between the small-group, pull-out instructional model and the after-school instructional model also supported the participants' endorsement of Corrective Reading delivered in small groups.

Students' Reading Growth

The researcher analyzed students' NWEA Reading RIT scores taken from the school spring 2014 and spring 2016 end-of-year test administrations. Students took the NWEA Reading Test three times per year, producing a total of seven RIT Scores each, from Spring 2014 through Spring 2016. For the study, researcher randomly selected 150 third through fifth-grade students' Spring 2014 RIT scores to use as a baseline to examine reading growth through the end of the 2015-2016 School Year and across all three instructional delivery models, namely with the general education teacher in the classroom, with the after-school teacher, and in a small-group pull-out format with the Title I Reading Teacher.

The Spring 2014 and Spring 2016 RIT Scores for the student group did support the researcher's Hypothesis: There is a difference in pre-post RIT Scores of third through fifth grade students who receive Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading Teacher, the classroom teacher, or the after-school teacher. The researcher rejected the null hypothesis and supported the alternate, as evidence revealed a significant difference between the two groups.

While students receiving Corrective Reading intervention in all three instructional delivery models posted some gains, students receiving the intervention with Title I Reading Teacher showed marked gains above students receiving intervention in the after-school program. Students receiving Corrective Reading from the Title I Reading Teachers posted a mean reading growth of 17.3; students receiving instruction from the classroom teachers posted a mean growth of 14.8; and the students receiving Corrective Reading instruction from the after-school teachers posted a mean reading growth of 9.6. Also,

Title I Teachers reported students who received small-group mini-lessons in the learning

centers with the classroom teachers did post slightly higher scores than peers who received

only the large group instruction in the general education classroom. Consistent with the

literature, individual and small-group instruction were widely accepted as best practice

across grade levels and academic disciplines. Allington and Gabriel (2012) noted

"struggling readers need consistent monitoring of skills deficits, followed by

individualized, explicit instruction" (p. 14).

Students' Behavior

Classroom teachers, Title I Reading Teachers, and principals noticed a difference

in behavior for struggling readers receiving instruction during the school day. Classroom

teachers and Title I Reading Teachers described the growing confidence of struggling

readers over time and how students' confidence translated into more on-task classroom

behaviors. Principals shared the sentiment and added a benefit of students remaining in

the classroom instead of being removed for off-task and/or outright misbehaviors.

Teachers and principals credited Corrective Reading's structure and consistent teaching

strategies with improved students' behaviors in class.

Principals, however, went further to express how the lowest-performing students'

overall behaviors improved. Four of the five principals had begun to track low-

performing students' time out of the instructional setting due to discipline problems.

Principals assigned the students to small-group, pull-out teams with the Title I Reading

Teachers, and the teachers and principals indicated once students experienced some

success in reading class, the students displayed fewer off-task behaviors, received fewer

discipline referrals, and consequently, received fewer in-school and out-of-school

suspensions. The research broadly supported strong readers experienced success in

subject areas beyond reading class (Allington & Gabriel, 2012; Boulton, 2014; Clay,

1991, 1998; Greenspan, 2011; Rasinski, 2010; Vadasy & Sanders, 2008). Further,

principals reported having more amenable relationships with parents of struggling readers.

Principal participants noted the ability to cultivate more open, two-way communication

with parents of struggling readers, specifically citing improved attendance at parent-

teacher conferences and school events, as welcome changes resulting in improved

relationships between school staff and parents. The research supported the principals'

observations regarding parents' participation and involvement in school functions. Dennis

and Margarella (2017) stated, "Students who fare well in school have parents that are

deeply invested in every aspect of their child's growth and development. Their [parents']

responsibility does not stop at the school door" (p. 51).

Data analysis of interview responses and the ANOVA on students' reading scores

showed Corrective Reading was a powerful supplemental reading intervention tool.

Interview respondents praised Corrective Reading's comprehensive script, which allowed

teachers to practice and remediate reading skills at a variety of levels. Participants also

commended the program for the structure Corrective Reading brought to reading

intervention across teachers with varying years of experience and talent; teachers noted the

structure proved the program's validity. Consistent with the teachers' perceptions, Cooke

et al. (2014) noted, "Because a structured program provides clear directions for

implementation, a wider range of personnel can be used to deliver instruction" (p. 218).

Principals also gave credit to Corrective Reading's structure because struggling readers

succeeded early and often during literacy instruction, which in turn provided an

opportunity for all parents to receive positive notes from reading teachers. Corrective

Reading, therefore, was credited with providing tangible and intangible rewards for

students, teachers, administrators, and parents.

Likewise, reading growth data improved for all students in the study. Students

who received Corrective Reading in the small-group, pull-out format with the Title I

Reading Teacher made the most growth, followed by those receiving supplemental

instruction in the general education classroom, and finally students who received

Corrective Reading in the after-school program made the smallest gains. Since students in

all the Corrective Reading groups showed reading growth, some merit existed in hiring

licensed teachers to provide supplemental reading intervention.

Title I Reading Teachers made the most gains with students identified as scoring

two or more years below grade level in reading. What remained unclear was whether

struggling readers posted the greatest reading growth scores because students received

instruction from a teacher with a reading endorsement, or if the students made the greatest

growth because of the small-group instruction. While Title I Reading Teachers believed

the other teachers helped more students in need, the small group, pull-out model produced

irrefutable evidence in the strength of the strategy.

Recommendations to School Leaders

Corrective Reading was endorsed unanimously by participants as a supplemental

reading intervention tool with numerous benefits to urban students, parents, teachers, and

administrators. The researcher recommends principals and superintendents consider

adopting Corrective Reading as the supplemental reading curriculum, particularly when

the supplemental curriculum in the core textbook series proves too challenging for

struggling readers. Corrective Reading is especially useful in unit school districts, as it

covers grades 3 through 12. Also, Corrective Reading could be used with students who

have special needs.

A limitation in the study was Corrective Reading instruction was delivered

exclusively to general education students; no students with a diagnosed disability

(intellectual or physical) participated in the study. The researcher recommends teaching

Corrective Reading to students with special needs, especially students with no diagnosis of

intellectual disability or diagnosis in reading and written expression. Students with

physical disabilities stood as much to gain (academically and as a confidence builder)

from Corrective Reading intervention as non-disabled peers. Additionally, parents of

students with disabilities could also gain from receiving positive feedback on their

children's reading progress. Unfortunately, in this study Corrective Reading was not an

option in the special education, self-contained classrooms, or the resource rooms.

Another consideration for principals and superintendents was to staff urban

elementary schools according to the most successful reading intervention model. In the

study, students who received Corrective Reading intervention from the Title I Reading

Teachers in a small-group, pull-out format showed the greatest reading growth. The Title

I students' reading growth provided guidance for urban school administrators in staffing

the schools to hire as many reading specialists as budgets allowed. The researcher

recommended principals and superintendents use funds to maximize the number of

licensed reading intervention teachers (Title I Reading Teachers), followed by creating

opportunities for classroom teachers to deliver small-group reading intervention. The

120-minute reading block allowed teachers time to create the reading intervention learning

centers in the general education classroom. Title I Reading Teachers noticed students receiving teacher intervention in the learning centers posted slightly higher scores than classmates reading on grade level. Principals could also use instructional coaches (also licensed teachers who received Corrective Reading intervention professional development) to teach some small-group, pull-out reading intervention groups during the school day.

Explicit training and support in a structured, supplemental reading intervention program cannot be overlooked. Veteran classroom teachers reported mispronouncing phonemes during instruction prior to receiving explicit training to teach Corrective Reading from the McGraw-Hill specialist. Principals should ensure all teachers receive explicit training from a highly-qualified specialist to ensure consistent, high-quality instruction for students who struggle to learn. In addition, training the instructional coaches, principals, and ELA content specialist ensured the observations during classroom walkthroughs and the follow-up teacher support met the fidelity standards to implement Corrective Reading.

Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher had several recommendations for replication of this study in an elementary school environment. First, limited resources prevented all students identified as reading two or more years below grade level from immediately receiving small-group, pull-out intervention from a Title I Reading Teacher. Since Title I teachers' students showed the greatest reading growth, it would be best for the research to be replicated with a larger sample of students in a district with resources to support enough Title I Reading Teachers to meet all students' needs. The researcher additionally recommends a study

where all licensed teachers who have no classroom responsibilities (such as instructional

coaches) are trained to deliver Corrective Reading intervention and assigned to teach some

small-group, pull-out teams, since students receiving small-group intervention from the

classroom teachers also showed reading growth beyond their peers.

Second the study's validity would be strengthened by balancing the participants'

genders closer to 50% male and 50% female. Including no male participants in the

interviews suggested the possibility of bias, since male subjects may have perceived the

instructional delivery models and student outcomes differently. This is particularly

important considering the recommendations for best practice were provided to the

district's highest-level administrators, who happened to be predominantly male.

Third, the exclusion of special needs students from the study suggested bias, as

well. The researcher recommends the study be replicated with Corrective Reading

intervention delivered with disabled and non-disabled students, as Corrective Reading's

literature outlined the benefits of implementation with English Language Learners and

students who exhibited signs of reading disability (Marchand-Martella et al., n.d.).

Conclusion

Considering the plethora of adverse circumstances students faced in urban schools

and communities, school leaders sought every opportunity to improve students' learning

outcomes. Academic achievement represented a way out of abject poverty and was a non-

negotiable for students in urban communities (Tatum, 2013). Educational leaders needed

guidance in making decisions on how best to improve student learning. When students

struggled to read, principals and superintendents in urban school districts sought ways to

embed one-on-one and/or small group reading intervention into students' daily routines

(Roe & Smith, 2012) to ensure all students read independently, persisted to high school

graduation, and looked forward to a better life.

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Appendix A

Corrective Reading Classroom 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			

Continued

Story Reading:			
Student errors are corrected with, "that word is _____			
Fluent reading praised. Diffluent reading corrected with model-test.			
Appropriate question strategies are used			
• Teacher gets attention.			
• Teacher asks question.			
• Teacher gives wait time for individual responses.			
• 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.			

Appendix B

Title I Reading Teacher Interview Questions

1. Please describe what you observed with students when you implemented the Corrective Reading intervention.

2. How do you perceive Corrective Reading as an intervention tool?

3. What, if any, reading skills have students mastered since beginning Corrective Reading?

4. To what do you attribute students 'skills mastery (Corrective Reading, additional intervention time, other)?

5. What, if any, difference have you noticed in students' behavior since beginning Corrective Reading intervention?

6. To what do you attribute the difference in students' behavior?

7. Consider your peer observations of the classroom teacher and after school teacher during Corrective Reading instruction. Describe your perception of similarities and or differences between their classes and yours.

8. Describe your perception of an optimal delivery model for Corrective Reading.

9. Do you perceive one delivery model to be superior to another? If so, why?

10. Do you believe one delivery model will yield greater gains in student reading growth? Please explain.

11. Is there anything more or different you would like to share?

Appendix C

Classroom Teacher Interview Questions

1. Please describe what you observed with students when you implemented the Corrective Reading intervention.

2. How do you perceive Corrective Reading as an intervention tool?

3. What, if any, reading skills have students mastered since beginning Corrective Reading?

4. To what do you attribute students 'skills mastery (Corrective Reading, additional intervention time, other)?

5. What, if any, difference have you noticed in students' behavior since beginning Corrective Reading intervention?

6. To what do you attribute the difference in students' behavior?

7. Consider your peer observations of the Title I Reading Teacher and after-school teacher during Corrective Reading instruction. Describe your perception of similarities and/or differences between their classes and yours.

8. Describe your perception of an optimal delivery model for Corrective Reading.

9. Do you perceive one delivery model to be superior to another? If so, why?

10. Do you believe one delivery model will yield greater gains in student reading growth? Please explain.

11. Is there anything more or different you would like to share?

Appendix D

After-School Teacher Interview Questions

1. Please describe what you observed with students when you implemented the Corrective Reading intervention.

2. How do you perceive Corrective Reading as an intervention tool?

3. What, if any, reading skills have students mastered since beginning Corrective Reading?

4. To what do you attribute their skills mastery (Corrective Reading, additional intervention time, other)?

5. What, if any, difference have you noticed in students' behavior since beginning Corrective Reading intervention?

6. To what do you attribute the difference in students' behavior?

7. Consider your peer observations of the Title I Reading Teacher and classroom teacher during Corrective Reading instruction. Describe your perception of differences and/or between their classroom and yours.

8. Describe your perception of an optimal delivery model for Corrective Reading.

9. Do you perceive one delivery model to be superior to another? If so, why?

10. Do you believe one delivery model will yield greater gains in student reading growth? Please explain.

11. Are there any advantages or disadvantages to implementing Corrective Reading intervention in the after-school program? Please explain.

12. Is there anything more or different that you would like to share?

Appendix E

Principal Interview Questions

1. Please describe what you observed students doing when they received Corrective Reading intervention.

2. How did you perceive Corrective Reading as an intervention tool?

3. What, if any, student reading data has improved since Corrective Reading has been implemented in your school (NWEA, Study Island, Common Assessments, other)?

4. To what do you attribute the improvements or lack thereof?

5. Consider your students who receive Corrective Reading intervention. What, if any, difference have you noticed in students' behavior since beginning Corrective Reading intervention?

6. To what do you attribute the difference, if any, in students' behavior?

7. Describe Corrective Reading in the three different instructional models: general education classroom, the after-school classroom and the Title I Reading classroom. Describe your perception of similarities and/or differences in these classrooms.

8. Do you perceive one delivery model to be superior to another? If so, why?

9. Do you believe one delivery model will yield greater student reading growth? Please explain.

10. Is there anything more or different you would like to share?

Appendix F

LINDENWOOD

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

Title of Project: A Mixed Method Study Examining Corrective Reading Implementation
Models in an Urban Midwest School District

Principal Investigator: <u>Claudette Denean Vaughn</u>

Telephone: <u>314-412-0666</u>   E-mail: <u>cdv996@lionmail.lindenwood.edu</u>

Participant: _____   Contact info: _____
_____

1. You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by C. Denean Vaughn under the guidance of Dr. Lynda Leavitt. The purpose of this research is to examine three Corrective Reading implementation models and their possible relationship to student reading growth.

2. a) Your participation will involve:
   ➤ Participation in a classroom observation during Corrective Reading instruction
   ➤ An interview related to your experience with Corrective Reading implementation

   b) The amount of time involved in your participation will be one year.

   Approximately 15-20 adults will be involved in this research. The total number of sites included in the research project is five elementary schools. Each Corrective Reading teacher will have five ten-minute classroom walkthroughs (one per day) for five days in order to monitor the fidelity of implementation of Corrective Reading instruction utilizing the Corrective Reading Decoding Walkthrough Form (Appendix A). Teacher and principal participants will have one face-to-face interview to answer 10-12 questions (Appendices B, C, D, and E). The interview is anticipated to take between 15-30 minutes, depending on the length of the participants' answers.

3. While there are no anticipated risks associated with this research, there is some slight risk colleagues could learn of your participation in the study.

4. There are no direct benefits for your participation in this study. However, your participation will contribute to the knowledge related to Corrective Reading implementation and student achievement in reading in an urban, elementary school environment.

5. Your participation is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any

question(s) that you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way should you choose not to participate or to withdraw.

6. We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. As part of this effort, your identity will not be revealed in any publication or presentation that may result from this study, and the information collected will remain in the possession of the investigator in a secured location. Further, the staff conducting classroom walkthroughs and interviews work in a non-evaluative capacity; their role is solely for data collection for this project. In some studies, using small sample sizes, there may be risk of identification.

7. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, or if any problems arise, you may call the Principal Investigator, Denean Vaughn at 314-41-0666 or the Supervising Faculty, Dr. Lynda Leavitt 636-949-4756. You may also ask questions of or state concerns regarding your participation to theLindenwood Institutional Review Board (IRB) through contacting Dr. Marilynn Abbott, Vice President for Academic Affairs at 636-949-4846.

8.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

_____   _____

Participant's Signature   Date   Participant's Printed Name

Claudette Denean Vaughn

Signature of Principal Investigator Date   Investigator Printed Name

CLAUDETTE DENEAN VAUGHN

Revised 8-8-2012

Vitae

Claudette Denean Vaughn

Denean Vaughn graduated from Southern Illinois University at Carbondale in 1989 with a Bachelors Degree in Secondary Education and taught English to students from grades 6 through 12 for nine years in school districts in the St. Louis Metropolitan Area and in the Northwest Suburbs of Chicago. Denean continued her academic pursuits and earned a Master's of Science in Secondary Education from the Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville, a second Master's of Education Degree from the University of Missouri-St. Louis, and an Education Specialist Degree from the St. Louis University. While earning those degrees, Denean became an assistant principal and served in the role for six years until she was promoted to principal. Denean served as a principal for the next seven years of her career. She accepted the position as Director of Curriculum and Grants and served in that role for four years prior to relocating to Las Vegas, Nevada.

Currently, Denean works as a Grant Coordinator in the Clark County School District in Las Vegas, Nevada. Upon completing her doctorate, Denean plans to continue her teaching career in higher education.