

**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF READ 180 ON STUDENT
ACHIEVEMENT IN ONE MIDDLE TENNESSEE MIDDLE SCHOOL**

Tenesha Cannon Hardin

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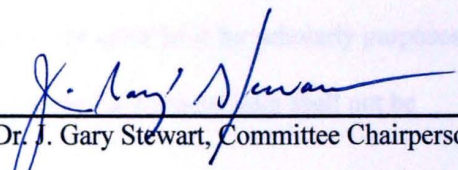
A Field Study
Presented to the
College of Graduate Studies
Austin Peay State University
In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Education Specialist

Tenesha Cannon Hardin

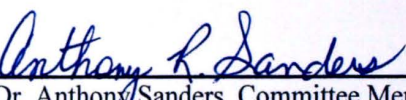
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To the Graduate Council:


I am submitting herewith a Field Study written by Tenesha Cannon Hardin entitled "AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF READ 180 ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT IN ONE MIDDLE TENNESSEE MIDDLE SCHOOL". We have examined the final copy of this Field Study for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Education Specialist, with a major in Administration and Supervision.


Dr. J. Gary Stewart, Committee Chairperson


Dr. Gina Grogan, Committee Member


Dr. Anthony Sanders, Committee Member

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Dean, College of Graduate Studies

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Date

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to GOD, my family, and my students. GOD gave me the drive and will power to persevere. My husband and sons provided me with continuous encouragement and support and gave up many hours of their free time for me to work. My parents instilled in me a desire to be a lifelong learner and always supported my educational endeavors. My students inspire me every day to be the best teacher I can be and to continue searching for ways to help them learn.

I would like to thank my current supervisor, Lynne Rains, and former supervisor, [Name], for their encouragement, supervision, and support from the preliminary to the final stages of this research. I would also like to thank my family for their love and support. I would like to thank my students for their love and support. I would like to thank my friends for their love and support. I would like to thank my colleagues for their love and support. I would like to thank my community for their love and support. I would like to thank my country for their love and support. I would like to thank my world for their love and support. I would like to thank my universe for their love and support. I would like to thank my everything for their love and support.

I would like to thank my family: my husband, children, parents, and grandparents for their love and support. I would like to thank my friends for their love and support. I would like to thank my colleagues for their love and support. I would like to thank my community for their love and support. I would like to thank my country for their love and support. I would like to thank my world for their love and support. I would like to thank my universe for their love and support.

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ABSTRACT

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) strives to increase the performance of schools in America by raising accountability standards, having higher expectations, and setting goals to achieve success for all students (Corcoran and Davis, 2005). Many schools had to implement intervention programs to help the struggling readers. A struggling reader is someone who reads at least one grade level below their current grade. This study defines the five areas of reading instruction: fluency, phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and text comprehension.

This study addresses the middle school READ 180 program. READ 180 is a data-driven program which helps teachers to direct their lessons to the specific skills and concept in which the students are struggling to comprehend. READ 180 is technology based and geared for students in grades 4-12. Students are expected to make significant gains if the program is administered with fidelity.

The focus of this study is to compare at-risk students who are enrolled in the READ 180 program to their at risk peers who are not enrolled in the program. The research focuses on whether or not READ 180 has an effect on reading achievement scores, race, gender, and socioeconomic status. Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) data was examined from a middle Tennessee school system for the 2011 and 2012 school year. Student data was compared from year to year, gender, and ethnicity.

At the conclusion of the study, the data revealed there was no significant change in TCAP

scores for students who were enrolled in READ 180 compared to those who were not enrolled in READ 180.

Mrs. Hardin was born on 11/11/1968 in Clarksville, Tennessee. Her family was military and she lived in several states. She attended Austin Peay State University where she graduated with her undergraduate degree in Interdisciplinary Studies in 1990. She then attended Austin Peay with a Masters in Education. She has been employed by New Providence Middle School, Mrs. Hardin is currently employed at West Creek Elementary School. The Clarksville Montgomery County Schools has employed Mrs. Hardin for the past fourteen years.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) established the Experimental World Literacy Program in 1966 and characterized literacy as being a fundamental human right (UNESCO, 2008). Luckasson (2006) further noted that literacy is a nonnegotiable right and is an “aspect of being human that the social contract must respect” (p. 12).

The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) reports global educational achievement statistics that compare countries to one another in various academic areas. PISA proposed a definition of “Reading Literacy” as “An individual’s capacity to understand, use and reflect on written texts, in order to achieve one’s goals, to develop one’s knowledge and potential and to participate in society” (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2006, p. 46). PISA’s definition goes beyond decoding and literacy comprehension.

The majority of students who enter school go with an enthusiasm for learning to read; however, many become progressively less motivated to read (Carbo, 1983). “At virtually all levels of performance...an achievement gap inevitably emerges and enlarges over time that negatively affects students in high poverty schools and minority students” (McCall, Hauser, Cronin, Kingsbury, & Hauser, 2006, p. 43). Carbo (1996) observed that “only one-third of students in the United States read at levels that are likely to assure them academic success and good jobs and that nearly the same number of students cannot

function at the most basic level of literacy” (p. 8). The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reports that 26% of students cannot read material generally deemed essential for daily living, such as road signs, newspapers, and bus schedules (Griggs, Daane, Jin, & Campbell, 2003). Furthermore, low reading achievement is a key risk factor for dropping out of school. Most children reading below grade level find fluency and reading comprehension a challenge. They focus more on decoding words instead of comprehending the meaning of the text (Biancarosa & Snow, 2004).

Purpose of the Study

“READ 180 is a comprehensive reading intervention program designed to meet the needs of students in elementary through high school whose reading achievement is below grade level” (Literacy Matters, 2007, para, 2). The program addresses individual learning styles through adaptive software, interesting literature, and direct instruction with reading skills. The purpose of the study was to compare the achievement of middle school-aged students who were academically at risk who participated in the READ 180 program with the achievement of their academically at-risk peers not enrolled in the intervention program in one Middle Tennessee School System. The scores on the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) of at-risk students enrolled in the READ 180 program were compared to those scores of at-risk students who were not enrolled in the READ 180 program.

Significance of the Study

According to the 2011 National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) reading scores, a significant percentage (68%) of fourth grade students are reading at the basic level or below (i.e., basic level indicating only partial mastery of fundamental skills

required for proficient work on grade level content), which creates an increasing demand for efficient interventions with positive outcomes (Begney & Silber, 2006).

Students reading significantly below grade level have trouble keeping up with academic requirements expected of seventh and eighth-grade students. Students who struggle academically are more likely to develop problem behaviors designed to escape and avoid academic demands (McIntosh, Flannery, Sugai, Braun, & Cochrane, 2008; Moore, Anderson, and Kumar, 2005; Morgan, Farkas, Tufis, & Sperling, 2008; Preciado, J., Horner, R., & Baker, S., 2009).

Because students are unable to read and understand academic textbooks often containing above grade-level language, they become frustrated when trying to complete assignments in the classroom. When the majority of students in a classroom are significantly challenged by grade-level academic expectations, they are also less likely to engage effectively in cooperative or independent learning activities and are more likely to engage in off-task behavior (Preciado et al., 2009). Allington (2005) agrees and states, although standards and expectations are rising, many schools continue to rely on textbooks as the principle source of curriculum delivery even when the average student does not read at the grade level of these texts. According to Stahl (1994), the whole language movement states that: 1) Learning to read can be as natural a process as learning to speak and understand oral language, 2) Learning to read should take place in an environment rich in literacy where written language serves a function and is used for authentic purposes, and 3) By learning to read in such an environment, children will learn to read and write naturally. Literate adults need to be capable readers and capable readers, must enjoy reading (Carbo, 1990, p. 26).

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
2. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
3. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
4. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
5. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
6. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as

compared to black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

7. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
8. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Hypotheses

1. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
2. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
3. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

4. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
5. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
6. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
7. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
8. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
9. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle students who participate in the

READ 180 program as compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

Limitations

One limitation of the study is the small sample population used. The fact that there were only 100 students with fairly homogenous cultural backgrounds and socioeconomic statuses may limit the generalization of the study results. Another limitation is that the school's achievement test content changes from one year to the next. Although the test measures the same concepts each year, the passages on which the questions are based vary. It may be necessary for future research to be conducted longitudinally to ensure that a relationship exists from year to year.

Assumptions

This study was based on these assumptions.

1. Each group of students were taught by teachers who were highly qualified according to the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) to teach Reading/Language Arts.
2. READ 180 teachers received special training before and during implementation of READ 180 in the classroom.
3. READ 180 teachers follow the scripted program.
4. Students who are struggling in reading are probably struggling in other content areas.

Definition of Terms

1. Academic Achievement: A measure of accomplishment on a set of tasks as is determined by the results reported on the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP).
2. Adolescent literacy is described as “the set of skills and abilities that students need in Grades 4 through 12 to read, write, and think about the text materials they encounter” (National Governors Association, 2005, p. 6).
3. At-risk: A student whose reading achievement is below the proficient level and falls in to the lowest quartile for the composite reading score on the TCAP.
4. Automaticity: the reader can recognize and understand individual words four to five times before the word becomes automatic (Honig, 2001).
5. Decoding: the ability to sound out words.
6. Lexile level: Measure of either an individual’s reading ability or the difficulty of a text (MetaMetrics, Inc., 2009).
7. Literacy: “an individual’s ability to use printed information to function in society, to achieve one’s goals, and to develop one’s knowledge and potential” (Kirsch, Juneblut, Jenkins, & Kolstad, 1993, p. 2).
8. Literacy Diet: Key components in literacy programs to ensure students’ growth in literacy (building of vocabulary and fluency and the development of comprehension and composition strategies).
9. Literacy Nutrition: Through the use of the literacy diet metaphor, teachers begin to think in terms of children’s literacy nutrition (Willows, 2002).

10. National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP): the largest continuing and nationally representative assessment of what American students know and can do in core subjects. NAEP results are designed to provide data on student achievement in various subjects, and are released as The Nation's Report Card (*National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2011*).
11. Normal Curve Equivalent (NCE): A test score reported on a scale that ranges from 1 to 99 with an average of 50. NCE's are approximately equal to percentiles. For example, an NCE of 70 is approximately equal to or greater than 70% of its reference group. Assuming a normally distributed population, plotting the distribution of scores will result in a bell shape commonly known as a bell curve.
12. No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB): A law that states all students will achieve proficiency in Reading/Language Arts by 2014 (Tennessee Department of Education, 2006).
13. Scholastic READ 180: A remedial reading intercession which focuses on the needs of at risk readers by putting into practice three components: instructional reading, teacher modeling and independent reading time. These three components will allow a boost in word recognition, word identification, and reading comprehension success for students in grades four through 12 (Hasselbring, 1999).
14. Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI): An interactive computer-assessment for students in grades one to 12 designed to measure varying difficulties on how well students read literature and expository texts. When the assessment has been

completed, students receive Lexile (L) measures to identify the level of texts for reading success (Scholastic, Inc., 1999).

15. Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP): A state mandated test for every Tennessee student in grades 3 through 8. This assessment is timed and uses a multiple choice protocol which provides a measure of knowledge and application skills in various subject areas. The results of the TCAP Achievement Test provide valuable information regarding student progress in Tennessee and for federal funds (Tennessee Department of Education, 1999).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Reading

The National Reading Panel Report (2000) analyzed five areas of reading instruction: fluency, phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and text comprehension. If a student is struggling in one or more of those essential components, reading becomes laborious.

Phonemic awareness is the ability to hear and manipulate the individual sounds within words. The sounds within words are called phonemes, so awareness of these sounds is phonemic awareness. Spoken words are composed of sounds. For instance, the word cat has three sounds or phonemes: /c/ /a/ /t/ (conventional linguistic notation separates individual sounds or phonemes with slash marks).

Phonics refers to instruction in how letters and sounds correspond to each other and how these sound-letter correspondences can be used to decode or pronounce words in text. Decoding means the analysis of the letters in a word to determine its pronunciation; to translate from one form of message to another, such as from printed text to pronunciation. Without phonemic awareness, phonics is harder to learn. In other words, phonemic awareness is something that should be taught before phonics—or at least early in the phonics sequence—so children receive maximum benefit from their phonics instruction.

Oral reading fluency is the ability to read text aloud with accuracy, speed, and proper expression. It is important for students to learn to read an author's words with few deviations (accuracy), to process text with a speed sufficient to permit comprehension to

occur, and with appropriate pausing and emphasis so that the text sounds meaningful and expression. Although it is often assumed that fluency is only the product of high-speed word recognition, studies show that fluency entails more than solely decoding, and that it is possible to teach fluency directly through various forms of oral reading practice.

Vocabulary here refers to word meanings, and vocabulary instruction is about the teaching of word meanings. Unfortunately, because much of reading instruction is focused on words—word recognition, sight words, word attack, word structure, word sorts, and so on—vocabulary is often used to refer to both word recognition and word meaning.

Reading comprehension is the act of interpreting the information within a text. Comprehension is about the construction of meaning more than about passive remembering. It is a form of active and dynamic thinking and includes interpreting information through the filter of one's own knowledge and beliefs, using the author's organizational plan to think about information, or imposing one's own structure on the ideas, inferring what the author does not tell explicitly, as well as many other cognitive actions. Successful comprehension requires the thoughtful interaction of a reader with a text.

Phonemic Awareness

Successful reading requires phonemic awareness, an ability to decode unfamiliar words, word attack skills, and an understanding of language structure (Honig, 2001). This means that accomplished readers recognize letters and words, know how to pronounce them correctly, understand what they mean, and know how these words work together in phrases and sentences to create meaningful language. Phonemic awareness is

the understanding that spoken language is made up of individual sounds (phonemes), and decoding is the ability to turn spellings into sounds or sound words out (Honig, 2001). Children who have developed basic phonemic awareness are capable of isolating, identifying, categorizing, segmenting, blending, and manipulating phonemes in spoken words (Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement, 2003).

Phonetic instruction generally proceeds through a developmental sequence that explicitly teaches each of the components of phonemic awareness and decoding. Honig (2001) suggests the following sequence: 1) word segmentation, 2) rhyme recognition and production, 3) syllable blending, segmentation, and deletion, 4) onset and rime blending, 5) phoneme matching and isolation, 6) phoneme blending and segmentation, and 7) phoneme deletion and substitution.

In addition, phonetic instruction also includes mastering the recognition of sight words- high frequency words.

Phonics

Research has shown that recognizing letter shapes and learning letter names is a crucial component of the process of learning to read. Beginning readers progress much more quickly if they have previously learned the alphabet. First, children who recognize the letters learn letter sounds and word spellings more quickly than children who cannot distinguish between letters. Second, children who recognize letters can concentrate on recognizing patterns of letters-a crucial component of skilled reading. Finally, children who recognize letters often have a better grasp of the alphabetic principle that letters have corresponding sounds that create words when combined (Adams, 1990).

According to the International Reading Association (IRA) (1996), the teaching of phonics is an important aspect of beginning reading instruction. They found classroom teachers in the primary grades do value and teach phonics as part of their reading programs. Phonics instruction, to be effective in prompting independence in reading, must be imbedded in the context of a total reading-language arts program.

Many educators now look for ways to use phonics as part of whole-language instruction by striving to teach meaningful phonics in context of literature (Cromwell, 1997). In 1969, new enthusiasm was brought to phonics instruction with the introduction of Sesame Street. The program directly delivered sound and letter instruction in a fun format (Sherman & Ramsey, 2006).

Phonic skills are important, some have argued, for children to become independent and fluent readers. However, Clay (1991) maintained that this skill had little value unless children also learn how to make use of it in context.

Vocabulary

Explicit instruction in vocabulary includes teaching students the meanings of words, techniques to determine word meanings from context, and the meanings of word roots and affixes. These kinds of instruction have been found to provide students with clear and consistent gains in reading. There also were benefits from less directive approaches—reading to children or encouraging them to read—which presents vocabulary more implicitly (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Most of the vocabulary studies reviewed by the panel focused on students in Grades 3–8, but there also were some studies in Grades PK–2 and Grades 9–11; all had appreciably the same results. Explicit and implicit approaches to vocabulary teaching

were found to be effective across the grades, so the panel concluded, “Vocabulary should both be taught directly and indirectly” (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000, p. 4).

Most of the specific instructional practices for teaching vocabulary that were examined by the panel conferred an advantage in learning to read. Often, these studies compared an enriched form of vocabulary teaching with a more traditional form, usually copying definitions and sentences from the dictionary. The experimental procedures repeatedly led to the best performance, making it easy to conclude that traditional dictionary work is not particularly helpful in increasing student vocabulary.

On the other hand, multiple or enriched definition procedures, semantic mapping and categorization, computerized approaches, keyword methods, and mixed-method procedures all provided some learning advantage. That means there are many instructional procedures that can be used to teach vocabulary successfully (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Reading texts to younger children can influence their vocabulary learning, and teachers should show care in the selection of these materials to ensure that they introduce useful words with sufficient context and illustration. For example, when a teacher is reading to children, he or she might stop and ask, “What does it mean when it says, ‘The baby ducks waddled after their mother?’ What does waddled mean?” Some students might know the answer, or the teacher might have to provide an explanation and perhaps a demonstration. Reading to students can be an important venue for the discussion of words. According to Biemiller (1999), older students become aware of new vocabulary more often through their own reading, and, again, it is crucial to find ways to support

their learning of the new words they meet in reading. Studies suggest lower achieving readers acquire less incidental vocabulary than good readers acquire, so bringing attention and support to these new words is vital.

It is important that the texts used for supporting vocabulary growth in reading and listening include plenty of repetition or extended use of the new words throughout the text. A single contact with a word will rarely lead students to know a word's meaning (Nagy, Anderson & Herman, 1987). This is true with explicit vocabulary instruction as well; review has been found to be an important ingredient in stimulating long-term vocabulary learning (Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982), and many programs fail to provide sufficient review (Beck & McKeown, 2005), which may be why students can perform well on a weekly vocabulary quiz but not know the word later. Using texts with systematic repetition of words in many contexts and maintaining ongoing lists of taught words are good ideas, as they permit frequent review. The panel found that research showed superior learning in programs that continually recycled words throughout the school year.

The goal of vocabulary teaching is to build an understanding of the words, and it should be no surprise that successful instructional approaches lead students to deeply engage in thinking about the word meanings. Activities like copying definitions from a dictionary are not effective because they can be done superficially, without thinking about what the word means or how the word approach to vocabulary instruction engages students in formulating several kinds of definitions and explanations for the words (National Reading Panel Report, 2003).

Vocabulary refers to the teaching of word meanings. Studies have shown that teaching students the meanings of words and of word parts such as prefixes and suffixes can have a powerful impact on reading comprehension. Vocabulary instruction should be both indirect and direct. Indirect activities such as reading to students or encouraging them to read independently allow many opportunities for students to gain knowledge about words (National Reading Panel Report 2000).

Direct instruction of vocabulary, in which teachers provide students with explanations and a thorough analysis of word meanings, can foster such a thorough knowledge of word meanings that reading comprehension improves. The most effective direct instruction in vocabulary helps children gain deep understanding of word meanings (more than simple dictionary definitions); requires plenty of reading, writing, talking, and listening; emphasizes the interconnections among words and word meanings and the connections of words to children's own experiences; and provides abundant ongoing review and repetition (National Reading Panel Report, 2000).

Text Comprehension

Chall (1967) stated, "Reading is the meaningful interpretation of symbols- a process through which we understand. It is a process of communication between readers and writers, and a means to an end. It is not an end in itself" (p. 54). Therefore, the end goal of reading is comprehension. Comprehension is a "clear grasp of what is read at the levels of literal meanings, implied meanings, and possible applications beyond the author's meanings" (Spache & Spache, 1969, p. 460). It requires the reader to utilize previously learned knowledge and knowledge gained from the passage to discover meaning. Teaching vocabulary can enhance comprehension of text if the kind of

instruction provided helps students build meaningful associations to their knowledge-base and more than a brief definition is provided (Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003). Therefore, comprehension relies heavily on word meaning, ideas, and reasoning (Spache & Spache, 1969). Reading comprehension is defined as a “crafting process-one in which understanding is constructed by students, authors, and teachers working artistically together to create knowledge” (Bock, 1999, p. 108).

Nuttall (1996) suggested that the overriding purpose to reading is to get the correct message from a text-the message the writer intended for the reader to receive. Allen (2003) maintained that the idea of reading has changed and moved from what was considered a receptive process to what is now an interactive process. Reading can be done using a number of processes that can be divided into two main categories: bottom-up processing and top-down processing. Bottom-up processing refers to the reader obtaining meaning from the letters and words of a text and reconstructing the intended message that way. Top-down processing refers to the reader's ability to look at a text as a whole and to connect and relate it to his existing knowledge base. Both processes are needed to obtain a message from a text.

Pinnel, Pikulski, Wixson, Campbell, Gough, and Beatty (1995) agrees that text comprehension is the reason for reading. Text comprehension must be purposeful, and the student must be actively involved. Text comprehension includes reading the material and then being able to answer questions related to the text. Developing text comprehension occurs through teaching comprehension strategies, through explicit instruction, and cooperative learning. Strategies must be flexible, and a variety of

strategies must be taught and utilized so that children with different learning styles can learn the required strategy (Pinnell et al., 1995).

Bedard (2003) suggests that another strategy to improve reading comprehension is sticky notes. Sticky notes allow students to make notes while reading. While students are note taking on the sticky notes, their attention to the task increases, they are actively involved in their own learning, and it does enhance small group discussions. They also help the teacher guide students to become aware of their self-monitoring to improve reading comprehension. After modeling the process to a group of four to eight students, the teachers must model the self-monitoring strategy again, and remind the students where to place the sticky note. The students then need to try the process with support from the teacher. The sticky notes aid the students to examine their comprehension by making connections with visualizations during the reading of the passage. Students were expected to create a picture in their mind, predict what would happen, ask questions, re-read, summarize, personalize the text, make connections, and ask others for help as they read the passage. Writing on the sticky notes as they read permitted them to ascertain meaning and discuss strategies that they utilized in order to understand the text.

The balanced method of teaching reading uses three main strategies to develop reading comprehension skills: 1) explicit, systematic teaching of phonemic awareness, decoding, comprehension strategies, and text organization, 2) discussions about literature, and 3) reading a large amount of varied text.

Thus, the balanced method allows teachers to explicitly instruct their students in reading skills such as alphabet recognition, phonemic awareness, the alphabetic principle,

phonics, decoding, and other word attack skills while immersing them in language and literature-based activities (Honig, 2001).

The end-goal of the process of learning to read is comprehension. In order to comprehend a reading selection, accomplished readers rely on two sources of meaning: individual words and the passage as a whole. Honig (2001) claimed that “the key to unlocking meaning starts with the automatic recognition of each written word, which brings the meaning of that word to consciousness” (p. 17).

Students need to be taught that some good readers must read slowly in order to reflect, respond, and comprehend the meaning of the text. Modeling comprehension strategies with all reading is essential. Students should be taught to look at the title, pictures, and headers. Predicting, reflecting, and developing mental images are all strategies that good readers use as they read. Additionally, good readers re-read, slow their reading, check for understanding, and make inferences and connections as they read. As struggling readers become more actively involved, their comprehension improves. Daily comprehension instruction and continuous addition of strategies will enable students to construct meaning from text through imagery, prediction, connections, questions, clarification, and summarization (Duke & Pressley, 2005).

The National Reading Panel (2003) concluded there was sufficient evidence supporting the teaching of seven comprehension strategies. These strategies are (with the numbers of studies synthesized on each strategy in parentheses): question asking (27), monitoring (22), summarization (18), question answering (17), story mapping (17), graphic organizers (11), and cooperative grouping (10). Two other strategies—prior knowledge (14) and mental imagery (5)—also were successful in many studies.

However, as useful as any of these single strategies were, the most learning was obtained when multiple strategies were taught in combination. There is a large amount of evidence supporting the effectiveness of teaching reading comprehension directly by focusing on student strategy use (National Reading Panel Report, 2003).

Texts differ in the nature of the vocabulary as well. Due to these significant differences in narrative and expository text, it is important that reading comprehension instruction focus on different kinds of texts. For many years, the reading comprehension practice and instruction provided in schools has focused heavily on the reading of literature texts alone (Duke, 2000). The problem with that approach, due to the big differences between literature and exposition, is that students cannot easily generalize these literature-reading skills to science or social studies. Well-formed reading comprehension instruction includes substantial emphasis on both narrative (such as stories and novels) and expository or explanatory texts (such as those that should be common to the social studies, mathematics, or science classrooms) (National Reading Panel Report, 2003).

The National Reading Panel (2000) highlighted seven categories of text comprehension instruction which had solid scientific bases for instruction including:

- 1) Comprehension monitoring, 2) cooperative learning, 3) use of graphic organizers,
- 4) question-answering, 5) question generation, 6) story structure, and 7) summarization

(p. 15).

Reading comprehension strategies assist students to become experts at comprehending difficult texts. Consistently practicing the strategies is essential for students (Carbo, 2005).

Guided Reading (Past and Present)

Harris and Hodges (1995) offer the following definition of guided reading in *The Literacy Dictionary*: “reading instruction in which the teacher provides the structure and purpose for reading and for responding to the material read” (p. 35).

In his now classic text, *Foundations of Reading Instruction*, Betts (1946) elaborated on the importance of providing students with direction in order to best help them learn how to read. Guided reading was the second of four basic principles of the directed reading activity.

Table 1

Betts' Directed Reading Activity (1946, pp. 430-431)

Step	Purpose
1. Prepare students for reading the selection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To ascertain students' background for the given text. • To help students build background for the text if none or little exists. • To help students relate their backgrounds to the story at hand thereby creating interest and reading for meaning. • To help children make connections with previous stories. • To help children with any unique words they might encounter. • To establish a purpose for reading.
2. Silent reading of the selection precedes oral reading.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To get the “wholeness” of the story. • To help students learn to apply what they know to decode unknown words and to apply comprehension skills asking for help when necessary.
3. Re-reading, either silent or oral, for new purposes.	To promote fluency, foster rhythmical reading, and to relate details to the big idea.
4. Follow-up activities to meet the needs and interests of students	To develop organization skills and promote efficient study habits.

In their book, *Teaching Children to Read, 2nd Ed. (1957)*, Lillian Gray and Dora Reese echoed Betts' view and went so far as to use the term guided reading in their explanation of how to conduct a reading lesson. As with Betts, their explanation is grounded in the basal readers being used at the time. In their words:

Teachers should follow the four lesson steps in the manuals to help their children extract all the values possible from a given story. These steps include preparation for the story, guided reading (emphasis is added) of the story skills and drills for word analyses and vocabulary, and the follow-up activities for applying new ideas (p. 155).

More specifically, they delineate exactly what should happen during guided reading, the second step.

Table 2

Guided Reading. Based on Gray & Reese, (1957, p. 156)

Teaching Procedure	Purpose
A. Ask the major motivating question.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helps children see a reason or purpose for reading.
B. Ask other questions to guide the children through the story.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Helps children have a purpose for reading a given part of the story. Depending on question, helps children to read silently, to visualize character, scene and action. Helps build self-reliance because the children rely on themselves to find answers to questions. When asked to read answers to questions, helps children to satisfy their need to achieve and to share.
C. Answer the major motivating question.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meets children's need to resolve tension by finding the answer to a question.

George and Evelyn Spache were two reading authorities in the 1980s who carried on the ideas previously set forth about guided reading. In their book, *Reading in the Elementary School, 5th Ed.* (1986), they outlined five steps as part of a typical basal primary reading lesson: introduction of vocabulary, silent reading, oral reading, skill building, and supplementary activities. The second step focuses on guided reading.

Table 3

Silent Reading (Guided Reading, Guiding Interpretation, Developing Pupil Purposes) of a Basal Reading Lesson (Spache & Spache, 1986, p. 58-61)

Teaching Procedure	Suggested Activities
1. Create pre reading practice.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Help children locate information such as where the story begins. • Help children to draw inferences about the story by looking at the introductory picture. • Set the purpose for reading by raising questions.
2. Have students read the story.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Either in segments or by the whole, have students read the story to themselves. • While they read, provide assistance as needed encouraging students to apply what they know about decoding, using picture clues, or using context clues.

Fountas and Pinnell (1996) identified the following essential elements of guided reading: 1) Teacher works with children in small groups who are similar in their development and are able to read about the same level of text; 2) Teacher introduces the stories and assists children's reading in ways that help to develop reading strategies so children can reach the goal of being able to read independently and silently; 3) Each child reads whole texts with an emphasis on reading increasing challenging books over time;

and 4) Children are grouped and regrouped in a dynamic process that involves ongoing observation and assessment.

In guided reading, scaffolding becomes the metaphor for teaching and learning. Scaffolding enables teachers not only to determine where learners are developmentally, but also where they need to be so that teachers can plan sensitive, responsive instruction that provides a bridge between these two points. Boyle and Perego (1998) list five criteria defining the literacy scaffold model; these criteria:

1. Are applied to reading and writing activities aimed at functional, meaningful communication found in entire texts.
2. Make use of language and discourse patterns that repeat themselves and are therefore predictable.
3. Provide a model, offered by the teacher or by peers, for comprehending and providing particular written language patterns.
4. Support students in comprehending and producing written language at a level slightly beyond their competence in the absence of the scaffold.
5. Are temporary and may be dispensed with when the student is ready to work without them. (p. 152)

Guided Reading changed due to research opposing ability grouping. Ford and Opitz (2011) have identified 11 common understandings about guided reading that have stood the test of time.

- 1) All children have the ability to become literate. Every child is ready to learn something and our job as teachers is to determine what the child already knows, what the child needs to learn, and to design instruction accordingly.

- 2) All children need to be taught by a skilled teacher in order to maximize their full potential in reading. Good teaching matters every step of the way. This is especially true for those children who need our help the most. Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) commented that children who are having difficulty learning to read do not, as a rule, require qualitatively different instruction from children who are “getting it.” Instead, they more often need application of the same principles by someone who can apply them expertly to individual children who are having difficulty for one reason or another (p. 12).
3. The goal of guided reading is to help children become independent readers. The whole purpose of providing children with guided reading experiences is to help them become independent readers as quickly as possible.
4. Guided reading is but one component of an effective reading program. The purpose of guided reading is to show children how to read and to provide a scaffold (i.e., support) for them as they read. An effective literacy program also includes reading aloud by the teacher, shared reading, and independent reading by students. Elements of the reading program are enhanced by comparable elements in the writing program and the use of content instruction as additional opportunities for reading and writing strategies.
5. Reading for meaning is the primary goal of guided reading. The instruction is designed to help children construct meaning. (p. 152) Betts (1946) noted years ago, during the first reading, the child is encouraged to ask for any kind of help he needs. To stimulate interest, to enlist effort, and to cause the child to come to

grips with the meaning, this silent reading is guided by suggestions, comments, and questions (p. 508).

6. Children learn to read by reading. They need to do more reading at their independent and instructional levels to become competent readers. There is general agreement that when children read with 95-100% word accuracy and 75-100% comprehension, they are reading at their independent level. When children read with 91-94% word accuracy and 60-75% comprehension, they are reading at their instructional level. At the same time, we must acknowledge the complexity of variables that intersect when an individual comprehends. A child might very well be reading a book well beyond his or her "level" one day and the next day struggle with an "on level" book. Many factors contribute to the successful reading of a text, and some of those factors relate to the text, others to the reader, and still others to the context in which the reading occurs. The interaction of these three variables accounts for the relative success of each particular reading experience (Alexander & Jetton, 2000).
7. Children need to become metacognitive: knowing what they know; the why and how of reading. They need to become aware of how reading works, and they need to be able to use this knowledge to make the reading process work for them. This is called metacognition (McNeil, 1987). Research shows that when children are aware of their reading behaviors, they make good progress (Brown & Palinscar, 1982). Pressley (2005) found that exemplary teachers who had the greatest impact on primary students' performance and achievement promoted this self-regulation.

8. Children need to develop a self-extending system in order to be independent readers. One of the ways to nurture students as independent readers is to question and model specific reading strategies. Guidance leads children to internalize specific strategies they can use independently to successfully read a text. Once internalized, they use the strategy (s) they feel best fit to help them solve the problem at-hand. Most often, one strategy will not work in all situations; they are able to monitor themselves and choose from a range of strategies because they have developed a “self-extending system” (Clay, 1991, p. 325).
9. All children need to be exposed to higher level thinking activities. Learning how to retell story events either orally or in writing; discussing important events in a specific reading selection; listening and responding to others’ views of a given reading selection; rereading text to find evidence to support a point of view — all of these tasks call on students to think about what they have read and to make connections with themselves, their world, and other texts.
10. Children need to experience joy and delight as a result of the reading experience. One of the main goals in providing children with different guided reading experiences is to show them that reading can be enjoyable and something they would want to do on their own. We are not only teaching children to read, we are also teaching children to be readers. Obtaining this positive disposition toward reading and writing may be even more critical in sustaining children’s efforts and achievement than the acquisition of the skills of reading (Dahl & Freppon, 1995). As children experience success with specific texts, they most often want to repeat

the experience, which provides meaningful, purposeful practice that leads to a favorable view of reading (Cullinan, 1992).

11. Specific elements characterize the successful guided reading lesson. It relies on a three-part lesson plan (Before, During, and After Reading) with one focal point for the overall lesson and the use of specific teaching strategies at each phase of the lesson. Lessons should help children achieve independence with the teacher assisting and assessing individual children as needed. Recognizing that comprehension is the essence of reading and the importance of making sure that students gain this understanding, teachers should also engage children in a discussion about the texts they read.

Whole Language

Whole language values the classroom as a democratic learning community where teachers and pupils learn together and learn to live peacefully together (Goodman, 1986). John Cowen (2003) defines a balanced reading approach as a research-based, assessment-based, comprehensive, integrated, and dynamic approach in that it empowers teachers and specialists to respond to the individual assessed literacy needs to children as they relate to their appropriate instructional and developmental levels of decoding, vocabulary, reading comprehension, motivation, and sociocultural acquisition, with the purpose of learning to read for meaning, understanding, and joy. Honig (2001) states that “By balancing skills instruction and language experience, educators can create a learning environment where “reading failure is preventable” (p. 2).

Whole language methods are extremely personal, individualized, and engage the learner in the process of reading by giving it meaning. These methods integrate speaking,

writing, and listening into reading instruction (Spache & Spache, 1969). "The whole language movement has improved classrooms by promoting practices that encourage students to read outstanding literature, including both fiction and, more recently, quality nonfiction; write more; and perceive writing as having a purpose and communicating something important" (Pressley & Rankin, 1994, p. 59). Morrow, Smith, & Wilkinson (1994) agree that literacy activities are purposefully integrated in the learning of content area subjects such as art, music, social studies, science, math, and play. This is often done using social studies and science themes. Equal emphasis is placed on the teaching of reading, writing, and speaking because one will enhance the other areas as well.

Ponce (1998) pointed out that the whole language method requires teachers to read to students, have students read out loud, predict what will happen next, and even make up spellings as they write their own stories. Ponce explained that reading instruction should not be a debate about whole language versus phonics; it should be a consensus of the basic principles of both.

Goodman (1993) maintained a successful whole language program teaches strategies rather than skills. This eliminates a predetermined sequence of skills.

Delpit (1988) argued that children raised in nonmainstream cultures are not exposed to the power code or the language used by people in power. When whole language teachers accept nonmainstream dialect as correct, they deny students knowledge they need to be successful in a middle class dominated world. This was emphasized in Teale's (1984) study of children who had virtually no experience with storybooks prior to first grade. When comparing those children to students who were read to for 30 to 45 minutes per day, they were 3,000 hours behind their peers before entering the first grade.

Balanced Literacy

Larsen and Williams (1999) states that a balanced literacy program calls for “teachers who are knowledgeable about language acquisition, literacy processes, instructional approaches, materials, metacognitive strategies, motivational techniques, curriculum design, assessment, and developmentally appropriate practice” (p. 173).

Larsen and Williams (1999) also suggest that achieving a balanced literacy program cannot be defined as an eclectic view by simply blending different approaches together in the classroom. Larsen and Williams (1999) go on to say that:

Balanced literacy programs will not be identical when comparing classrooms because each has to be tailored to meet the individual needs of students and sets of circumstances in the classroom. “Learning to read and write is too complex and too individual for there to be one universal activity or approach that will ensure that all children can learn to read and write well.” (p. 177)

Basal textbooks that adhere to the balanced method are generally organized into lessons that teach reading skills using five main techniques: 1) review of sound/symbol relationships and introduction of a new sound, 2) phonemic analysis (segmentation, blending, and manipulation), 3) automaticity practice, 4) story reading, and 5) writing practice.

The stories contained in basal textbooks are known as decodable texts. These texts contain three types of words: 1) wholly decodable words, 2) sight words, and 3) non-decodable words. Wholly decodable words are those that can be identified based on phonetic elements. Sight words are high frequency words or story words that are explicitly taught. Finally, non-decodable words are those that are not part of either of the

previous categories (Honig, 2001). By using this combination of activities and passages which contain both familiar and unfamiliar words, basal textbooks which follow the balanced method of teaching reading teach valuable reading skills and allow beginning reader's ample practice with those skills (Honig, 2001).

Library media specialists can assist teachers in many ways. Marlene Asselin (1999) states that, "connecting school library programs and literacy education strengthens instructional partnerships between teachers and teacher-librarians" (p. 69). Asselin provides several ways library media specialists can support a balanced literacy program.

They are:

- 1) Be a leader by promoting student access and use of authentic texts; 2) Help educate teachers so they will realize that in a balanced literacy program, students must have access to a wide variety of texts including the Internet, informational texts, and software, and that students must develop the necessary skills to learn how to access these; 3) Be a leader in developing a curriculum-based approach to acquiring research skills; 4) Libraries should be a place to showcase student writings; and 5) Assist parents in Internet awareness and helping them develop the necessary skills to evaluate Internet resources. (p. 70)

The most effective method reported in the research to increase reading comprehension for students reading below grade level seems to be a blending of direct instruction and strategy instruction (Sagor, 2003).

Reading development changes in late elementary school and middle school from learning to read to reading to learn (Chall, 1983; Palumbo & Sanacore, 2009). Many teachers lack an understanding about literacy education and would like to learn more.

Teachers with years of experience feel inadequate in trying to meet the needs of all their students (Willows, 2002). Cowen (2003) agrees that balanced literacy is not as simple as it sounds. Teachers must realize that an effective balanced program requires a very comprehensive, integrated approach, demanding that teachers know a great deal about literacy research related to emergent literacy, assessment-based instruction, phonological and phonemic awareness, the alphabetic principle, phonics and word study, selecting appropriate leveled readers, reader response, writing process, and constructivist learning. Willows (2002) believes teachers need literacy learning professional development with an emphasis on the following strategies: 1) Promoting understanding of essential research-based components for growth in literacy; 2) Providing practical strategies for balanced, nutritious and appealing literacy programs; 3) Adjusting the balance in order to move children through the stages of literacy development; 4) Planning programs and managing time in classrooms to ensure as much literacy nutrition as possible for every child every day; 5) Assessing students' growth in literacy and monitoring classroom practices to guide the change process; and 6) Understanding the nature of reading and writing difficulties in order to adjust the literacy diet balance to meet special literacy nutritional needs.

Balance is the key to good growth in literacy, and flexibility is necessary to satisfy personal preferences. Good teachers use approaches that are both effective and motivating.

Cowen (2003) has 15 essential elements of a balanced reading program. They are:

1. Authentic, real literature, including nursery rhymes, fairy tales, and poems that provide students with opportunities to read and enjoy a variety of genres

- (fiction, nonfiction, and themes), including a rich assortment of multicultural resources;
2. A very comprehensive writing-process program that engages students in daily writing, peer editing, and publishing activities;
 3. An integrated language arts and phonics skills-development approach that requires skills to be taught from the context of real literature as well as from student writing;
 4. Attention, to the three cuing systems- semantics, syntactics, and grapho-phonics – to give students the required blend of skills, enabling them to read texts meaningfully and with understanding;
 5. Metacognitive, self-monitoring, fix-up, and scaffolding strategies to support student word recognition and reading comprehension;
 6. Opportunities to develop learning strategies to use in new situations and to acquire new information to develop higher order thinking skills;
 7. On-going assessment for continuous progress that engages students at the independent or instructional reading level and avoids reading materials at their frustration reading level;
 8. Oral storytelling, dictation, and other listening activities, including phonological and phonemic awareness development at the primary level;
 9. An interdisciplinary content area reading approach, stressing the use of a wide variety of trade books as well as textbooks;
 10. Shared reading, guided reading, independent reading, and one-on-one instruction, particularly for struggling readers;

11. Time commitment to on-task reading, writing, and related language arts activities;
 12. Reading/learning centers for exploration and discovery in all areas of the language arts and for managing individual and differentiated instruction;
 13. Opportunities for developing and maintaining a language rich environment;
 14. A supportive, nurturing classroom that meets the diverse needs of students and that also promotes listening, speaking, reading, writing, and viewing as joyful experiences; and
 15. Promotion of ongoing family involvement in children's literacy development.
- (p. 8-9)

When using the balanced system of teaching reading, it is important for teachers to match reading selections to each student's reading level. Otherwise, the student will either become bored because he or she is not being challenged enough or will become confused and frustrated because the text is too difficult for them. Honig (2001) states that:

A good rule of thumb is that if students cannot automatically recognize at least 90% of the words, they will become frustrated; if they sail through, recognizing 98% of the words, they are missing an opportunity to extend their word learning. Students should be recognizing approximately 95% of the words automatically, which means they are decoding about one word in twenty. (p. 86)

According to McPartland (1992), instruction should include strategies of decoding, rereading, and seeking assistance. Teaching strategies such as predicting, thinking aloud, and using picture clues help readers be able to manage text. Retelling,

visualizing, previewing questions, generating questions, and paraphrasing are also strategies needed by readers (Klinger, Urbach, Golos, Brownwell, & Menon, 2010).

Fluency

According to Honig (2001), fluency is a crucial component of reading. The National Reading Panel (2003) defined fluency as the ability to read a text correctly and rapidly. Reading fluently allows students to comprehend what they read. Additionally, NAEP defined fluency as the “ease or naturalness” of reading. Phrasing (intonation, stress, and pauses), syntax, and expressiveness (sense of feeling, anticipation, or characterization) are all fundamental aspects of fluency (Pinnell, et al., 1995). Fluency bridges recognition of words and comprehension. Reading fluency can be expanded through modeling fluent reading and repeated oral reading. Reading fluency monitoring assists teachers in evaluating reading fluency instruction and setting instructional goals. Tracking their reading fluency can also be motivating for students as they see their connections between ideas in a text and idea from their background knowledge (National Reading Panel, 2003).

Fluency is considered to be composed of three components; accuracy, automaticity, and prosody (National Reading Panel, 2000). Accuracy entails the correct identification of a word. Automaticity is the immediate recognition of words that bypass the decoding process. Finally, prosody is the ability of an individual to read while providing the appropriate expression implied by the text (e.g., intonation, stress, and timing).

Oral reading fluency is an effective screening tool in identifying struggling readers, providing diagnostic information about students, and monitoring progress, as

well as measuring end-of-year outcomes. Like a thermometer, it is an indicator of strength or weakness. If weakness is indicated, further tests can be used to identify the source of the problem and provide treatment (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006).

Decoding strategies lead to automatic word recognition making fluency the bridge from word recognition to comprehension (Hasbrouck & Tindal, 2006) and allowing students to make deeper, more reflective connections with the text (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974).

One of the most common methods for determining oral reading fluency rate is to have students read a passage aloud for one minute and then count and record the number of words read correctly (Hartman & Fuller, 1997). The NAEP fluency scale identifies students at 3 and 4 as being fluent and students at 1 and 2 as non-fluent. Accuracy and rate are two additional facets NAEP assess for oral reading. Accuracy means correctly read words, and rate indicates words read per minute (Pinnell et al., 1995).

Inclusion of oral reading by a teacher, repeated readings, read the walls, coral reading, readers' theater echo reading, nursery rhymes, and read-alongs should all be considered in reading and language arts curriculum as a means to improve fluency (Manning, 2004). According to the National Reading Panel Report (2003), it is essential that all students read one-on-one with an adult who models fluent reading. The adult provides assistance and encouragement as the student re-reads the passage until becoming fluent, which typically takes three to four re-reads. Choral reading requires students to read with a group and a fluent adult reader. Then the adult re-reads the book and invites students to join in as they recognize the words the adult is reading. The student continues re-reading the book after a read aloud until students have read the book

three to five times total during the same day. Tape-assisted reading allows students to read along with a fluent reader, who is reading the passage on an audiotape. During the initial reading, students should follow along with the tape and point to each word the student hears on the tape. Students should then read along with the tape until the students can independently read the text without assistance from the tape. Partner reading encourages student pairs to read aloud to each other. The more fluent reader begins reading the first passage to provide a fluent model. The dysfluent reader repeats the same text. The fluent reader provides pointers and support for the less fluent partner. However, partner reading can also work with children who read at the same level to practice re-reading the passage (National Reading Panel Report 2003).

Repeated oral reading, followed by feedback and effective instruction, promotes improvements in reading for students at all levels (National Reading Panel, 2000). Rashotte and Torgeson (1985) examined repeated reading using three conditions: repeated reading with low word overlap, repeated reading with high word overlap, and no repeated reading. The repeated reading conditions with high and low word overlap had the most gains (35.3 to 33 words per minute, respectively) indicating that repeated reading is an effective way to increase reading fluency.

Listening Passage Preview (LPP), sometimes referred to as modeling, is another intervention that has proven to be effective in increasing student reading fluency (Daly & Martens, 1994). With listening passage preview, there is less anxiety and a form of automaticity is beginning to develop due to the model from the teacher or peer. The student becomes more at ease and able to comprehend rather than using excess

brainpower on decoding individual words (Van Bon, Bokseveld, Font Freide, & Vanden Hurk, 1991).

Rasinki's (1990) comparison of repeated reading and listening while reading with third grade students reading fourth grade passages revealed no significant difference in the two methods. Both proved to be effective measures to increase fluency and general proficiency in reading. Boyle, Rosenberg, Connelly, Washburn, Brinckerhoff and Banerjee (2003) found that students with learning disabilities using audio devices in history class outperformed those using a regular textbook. Begney, Krouse, Ross, and Mtichell (2009) examined the impact of repeated reading, listening passage preview and listening only on the oral reading fluency of second grade students reading below grade level. Findings suggest that repeated reading was the most effective when looking at words correct per minute, but both repeated reading and listening passage preview were effective. Studies using listening passage preview (LPP) individually and with other interventions found that oral reading fluency increase with the use of interventions such as passage preview, repeated reading, and performance feedback, and was highest when passage preview was used in combination with one or two other interventions (Begney & Silber, 2006).

Repeated reading and question generation are proven and validated instructional strategies that improve fluency and text comprehension for struggling students. Therrien, Gormley, and Kubina (2006) created Read-Adapt and Answer-Comprehend (RAAC) which combined both strategies into seven instructional steps. Teachers should use this program with students with instructional reading levels between first and third grade. First, students are prompted to read quickly and pay attention to what they are reading.

Question-generation prompts are then read by the student. Students re-read passages until the performance criterion is met by correcting mistakes made during reading. Praise is provided to students for improvements in fluency and accuracy. Students adapt and answer questions on cue cards by looking for the answer in the passage. Finally, teachers adjust the reading materials for the next session by increasing or decreasing difficulty of materials. The Read-Adapt and Answer-Comprehend strategy is easy to implement, requires minimal instructional time, and increases complicated inference generation. Students with and without learning disabilities can profit from combining repeated reading and question generation instruction into a cohesive intervention (Therrien et al., 2006).

Rasinski, Padak, McKeon, Wilfong, Friedauer, and Heim (2005) conducted a study of oral reading fluency in which they attempted to determine the importance of oral reading fluency at the high school level. The results of Rasinski and associates (2005, 2009) studies suggested that high school students' oral reading fluency rates may have potential for predicting likelihood of passing state and national achievement tests (Rasinski et al., 2005; Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston, 2009). Successful readers develop this important skill only through extensive practice. As Honig (2001) stated, "Students become fluent readers by reading" (p. 67). Fluency is not the end-goals of the reading process (Honig, 2001). Reading fluency is a vital key to success in demonstrating qualities of a good reader (Hudson, Lane & Pullen, 2005).

Reading Interventions

The NAEP indicated that many students can decode words and answer literal questions, yet they cannot synthesize, analyze, integrate ideas, or execute other reading tasks that are central to reading (Grigg, Daane, Jin, & Campbell, 2003). “Without ongoing literacy instruction, students who are behind in reading when they enter the middle grades likely will never catch up” (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007, p. 2).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) required each state to establish academic standards and a state testing system that met federal requirements. The accountability requirement was called Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) (U. S. Department of Education, 2002). NCLB promoted scientifically researched reading programs that match highly qualified teachers with necessary effective instructional strategies (Gagliardi, 2011). There are numerous reading programs developed to help struggling readers succeed. NCLB mandated that scientifically validated reading interventions must be used by schools that receive federal funding (Lawson, 2011).

The researcher summarized five reading instruction programs in addition to READ 180. They are:

1. **Success for All:** Success for All is an extensively studied school-wide reform program designed for English and Spanish speaking populations. The program was designed for grades kindergarten through third for early reading failure. Multiple techniques and philosophies are incorporated including phonics, meaning, and cooperative learning. Longitudinal research has taken place in nine districts throughout the United States with consistent, substantial positive effects (Slavin & Fashola, 1998).

2. **Open Court:** Open Court is a direct instructional program for kindergarten through sixth graders developed for students to become independent readers and to ensure a direct and systematic approach to teaching phonics. The focus is on alphabetical and phonological awareness for the learner. Open court has been used for 30 years with significant success for word reading, phonological processing, and spelling assessments (Schacter, 1999).
3. **Watch Me! Read:** Watch Me! Read is a computer-based program for emerging readers with the goals of providing reading practice, comprehension awareness, and a sense of reading as communication. The software is designed to use speech recognition to assess students' performance and provide individual feedback (Schacter, 1999).
4. **Project LISTEN:** Project LISTEN is a software-based instructional program with an automated reading tutor that displays stories on a computer screen and listens to children read aloud. The students have choices of materials with the reading tutor analyzing their oral reading skills. The reading tutor intervenes when the student asks for help, makes a mistake, or encounters difficulty. The reading tutor responds with assistance modeled after expert reading teachers and to the capabilities of the technology (Schacter, 1999).
5. **STAR Test:** The Star Test is designed to assess the student instructional reading level. STAR Reading requires students to take the test on the computer, and then teachers receive the results and make data-driven decisions based on the test results (Renaissance Learning, 2009). The test also gives a scaled score, grade equivalent, percentile rank, normal curve equivalent, and zone of proximal

development. Students are required to read scored text and enter the omitted words from a set of multiple choice options. STAR utilizes the student's answers to increase or decrease the degree of difficulty of the upcoming passage based on the student's performance on previous questions. The primary STAR goal of the test is to calculate the instructional reading level of each student. Pellegrino, Chudowsky, and Glasser (2001) emphasized that greater student growth is achieved when instruction and assessment are entwined.

Davidson and Miller (2002) have identified four deficits exhibited by struggling readers: 1) A lack of decoding skills and reading fluency; 2) Poor comprehension due to the inability to form mental models and lack of vocabulary; 3) Inability to process and understand grade-level content area text with a concentration of academic language; and 4) Low motivation and lack of connection to materials and school. Educational experts believe that a significant number of below-average readers can become successful readers with effective initial teaching or rapid supplemental intervention when reading problems become apparent (Honig, 2001). Adolescent literacy intervention programs are those programs that specifically target teachers of and/or students in middle and high grades (4-12) who are reading significantly below grade level and provide literacy instruction that is intended to increase achievement at a rate faster than average, allowing students to decrease or close the achievement gap between themselves and their normally achieving peers (Shanahan, 2005).

Programs may be used in a classroom setting, with individuals, or for daily small group intervention. Additional time spent with an expert teacher like a reading teacher or specialist is a key component in improving reading in struggling readers (Morris, Ervin,

& Conrad, 1996). Others use programs that students independently work on and set literacy goals in hopes to improve reading skills. These programs do not feature the teacher's expertise, so we are leaving students' learning up to chance (Fisher & Ivey, 2006). Barnyak and Paquette (1995) concluded a daily intervention program is an effective intervention for children who exhibit reading delays. Children receiving this type of intervention gained significantly more progress than their peers without intervention.

Butzin (2001) analyzed 500 computer based instruction studies. He concluded students usually learn more in less time when receiving computer based instruction. Programs such as Writing to Read, Apple Classroom's of Tomorrow, and Higher Order Thinking Skills all have positive achievement. During his research, Butzin found the limited number of computers and lack of teacher training to be a barrier to computer enhanced learning. He discovered becoming knowledgeable and keeping current with instructional software is a daunting task for elementary teachers who have a limited amount of time to present information.

Beetham and Sharpe (2007) discovered, when students were able to receive help from the computer they scored higher on comprehension questions than students who read from a printed book. In their research, students replied they were more likely to get help from the computer than to ask a teacher. By helping students decode words, electronic books are more interactive, therefore providing a greater exchange of information than traditional reading class.

Biancarosa (2005) researched reading interventions and found that the most effective programs/strategies included: 1) direct, explicit instruction; 2) effective instructional

principles embedded in the content; 3) motivation and self-directed learning; 4) text-based collaborative learning; 5) strategic tutoring; 6) diverse texts; 7) intensive writing; 8) a technology component; and 9) ongoing formative assessment of students. According to Kratofil (2006), all READ 180 has these effective program strategies included in its program.

READ 180

The Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt (1990) presented READ 180 as one of the best ideas for literacy development. The focus of the READ 180 program is generating real-world experiences to assist students in connecting experiences in the classroom and community. The READ 180 program is based on research conducted by Hasselbring of Vanderbilt University in 1985 (Hasselbring, 1999). Hasselbring and a team of researchers, with support from the Cognitive and Technology Group, were curious about the function technology could perform in quickening the learning for students with mild disabilities.

READ 180 is a comprehensive system of curriculum, instruction, assessment, and professional development that helps schools raise reading achievement for struggling students in grades 4-12. READ 180 is an instructional model consisting of 90 minutes of classroom instruction during which teachers and students engage in a variety of activities and instructional modes. The class is broken into three sections with whole-group instruction for 20 minutes, then into small group instruction that involves 20 minutes stations including computers, reading, writing, and finally, a 10-minute whole group wrap-up. The technology tracks student progress in real time every day, delivering

personalized instruction to the student and data to the teacher that makes differentiation easy (Davidson & Miller, 2002).

The modeled and independent reading groups allow students to build reading comprehension skills through modeled and independent reading. Instructional quality books present students with age appropriate, relevant texts. Students read books on their appropriate Lexile level, allowing for successful independent reading. The Lexile Framework for Reading makes use of reading measurement to match readers' current level of reading ability to appropriate text. The Lexile scale extends from 200L to 1700L for the advanced reader. Students also listen to audio books to strengthen reading fluency and habits with grade level material (READ 180, 2010).

During the individual computer based instruction time, students begin with a video passage and then summarize the video. The student then reads this concise passage that is based on his or her reading level. The passage includes word supports, phonics, patterns, model spelling examples, high frequency words, and content words that correspond to the student's reading level. The student may re-read the passage as many times as needed. Students are assigned to their appropriate reading level through diagnostic assessment (Davidson & Miller, 2002). Therefore, they are practicing at their own level, avoiding frustration. READ 180 provides assessment tools that allow teachers to evaluate students and employ data to differentiate instruction for struggling readers and English Language Learners (Scholastic, Inc., 2005a).

After the video and summary passage, students participate in vocabulary and fluency building activities repeatedly working on the words from the passage. The text-reader software enables the student to decode, pronounce, spell, and define words as well

as break them into parts and translate them into one of five different languages. Power words are pronounced and spelled, definitions are provided, words are broken down into parts, and decoding tips are given. These activities are designed to allow better comprehension through rapid word recognition, orthographic knowledge, and phonological processing skills (READ 180, 2010).

The software also allows teachers to listen to passages read by the students and provide immediate corrective feedback on student errors. Following the vocabulary work, the computer presents the student with comprehension questions about the passage. Finally, a recap yielded how many words he or she has read correctly. This process is repeated until the student can do it with speed and accuracy. The final component is the Spelling Zone. It assesses the knowledge of words from the prior passages and presents a word study activity that focuses on blends, inflected endings, digraphs, spelling, and fluency practice. A report of the number of words mastered can assist the teacher with future planning and individualizing instruction. Next, a new video segment is introduced (Scholastic READ 180, 2010).

The teaching kit also includes a teacher's guide, a resource book, strategy books, a reports guide, a collection of black-line masters, and classroom management forms (Scholastic, Inc., 2005a). These supplemental resources present teaching plans, graphic organizers, activities, and suggestions for teaching diverse students in a READ 180 classroom. Hearing and vision impairment are compensated for through closed captioning of videotext and increased text font size. Student materials consists of paperback books, audiobooks, and nine Topic CDs that contain four pre-reading video

segments. Each of the topics supports a focal point or theme of People and Cultures, Science and Math, History and Geography.

READ 180 offers an instructional setting to sustain students' individual variation in linguistic and conceptual development (DeVivo & Aguhob, 2004). DeVivo and Aguhob declared that READ 180 classrooms "are effective because they engage students in authentic tasks that place the students in the position to create interesting and important multimedia products that teaches their peers, parents, and others about important life topics" (p. 41). The systematic program provides for improved literacy, cognitive, and technology skills which are all indispensable for future educational endeavors (DeVivo and Aguhob, 2004).

According to Scholastic, Inc. (2010), students in Seminole County Florida averaged at least one year of reading growth in one year of READ 180. The *What Works Clearinghouse* (READ 180, 2009) reported that READ 180 was found to have potentially positive effects on comprehension and general literacy achievement. However, data on READ 180 from Scholastic should be interpreted with caution.

Scholastic, Inc. has another assessment program, the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI), is used to determine the students' reading levels. One could refer to the SRI as a pretest. SRI is a research-based, computer-adaptive reading assessment for Grades K-12 that measures students' level of reading comprehension and reports it using the Lexile Framework for Reading. Since the SRI is a computer-adaptive program, it recognizes when a student responds to a question incorrectly and it adapts by giving a slightly easier question (Scholastic Inc., 2005).

In 2011, Scholastic released READ 180 Next Generation, a new version of the reading intervention program that includes new technology, instruction, and content to help make teachers more effective and students more engaged, and state-of-the-art supports for the Common Core Standards.

Audiobooks

Two effective models for teaching reading is through the use of storytelling and oral reading. Oral reading will familiarize students with the “sound and sense” of written language (Carbo, 1996, p. 8). Audio books offer a way to recapture enthusiasm of reading. “Repeated exposure to the correct reading methods and interesting, well-written books is the fastest way to reach high standards of literacy in our classrooms” (Carbo, 1990, pp. 27-28). As children grow older, they become more independent readers who need more choices of high-interest materials and individualized programs in which they read alone or with peers (Carbo, 1983, P. 56).

Audiobooks can reach all students. Valrey and Klinger (1999) wrote, “Uncertain whether audiobooks belong to respectable world of books or the more dubious world of entertainment, elementary and high-school teachers have often cast a fishy eye at them, and many have opted for the safe course of avoidance” (p. 252).

According to Johnson (2003), “Audiobooks have traditionally been used in schools by teachers of second-language learners, learning-disabled or impaired students, and struggling readers or nonreaders” (para, 4). Johnson also defined the true meaning of reading as:

If reading is understanding the content of the story or theme, then audiobooks certainly succeed. No one would argue the importance of

decoding in teaching children to read. But, understanding the message, thinking critically about the content, using imagination, and making connections is at the heart of what it means to be a reader and why kids learn to love books. (p. 3, para. 3)

Audio models provide a form of scaffolding that makes it possible for students to read material that is more difficult and to focus on meaning (Koskinen, Blum, Bisson, Phillips, Creamer & Baker, 2000). Johnson (2003) concurs with their analysis. He maintains that audio-books provide access to books above their reading level, model quality interpretive reading, foster critical listening, showcase the humor in books, allow students to read new genres not previously considered, and allow students to encounter new vocabulary and unusual names or places. High interest reading materials on tape and written text should be provided, so that students can compare written text and spoken words (Carbo, 2005).

According to Drucker (2003), “students capable of independent reading (grades 2-12 and beyond) can benefit from using books and audio books (p. 25). Developing effective listening skills important to learning and creates a foundation for speaking, reading, and writing (Glasser, 2008).

Summary

This chapter has presented a review of literature focused on research findings and writings relevant to the components of reading, reading instruction, technology assisted instruction in reading, and reading interventions.

The National Reading Panel Report (2000) analyzed five areas of reading instruction: fluency, phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and text comprehension.

The focus of the reading intervention programs was the READ 180 program. However, Success for All, STAR, Open Court, Watch Me Read, and Project Listen were all discussed. READ 180 is data driven which helps teachers to direct their lessons to the specific skills and concepts in which the students are struggling to comprehend.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Students who read one to two years below grade level are in need of reading interventions in order to become a successful reader and attain grade level status. This study focuses on Scholastic's READ 180 program using the data from middle school students. For middle Tennessee, middle school includes grades 6, 7, and 8th grade. READ 180 is a data driven program that helps teachers direct their lessons to the specific skills and concept in which the students are struggling to comprehend. READ 180 is technology based and geared for students in grades 4-12. Students are expected to make significant gains if the program is administered with fidelity. For this study, students' academic growth was measured by the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP). All students in grades 3-8 are required to take the TCAP with a few exceptions.

The purpose of this study was to compare the academic achievement in reading and language arts of at-risk students who are enrolled in the READ 180 program to their at-risk peers who are not enrolled in the program. The research is based on the questions of whether or not READ 180 has an effect on reading achievement scores, ethnicity, and gender. This chapter focused on research design, population, instrumentation, procedures, data analysis, and a summary.

Research Design

This study will determine if the students enrolled in the Scholastic's READ 180 program score higher on the TCAP exam than the students who are not enrolled in Scholastic's READ 180 program, but are also reading below grade level. Archival data

was evaluated based on achievement, gender, and ethnicity.

Population or Participants

Student data was evaluated from one school district in middle Tennessee. Four middle schools with a READ 180 program were selected for this study. Participants have been identified as seventh and eighth grade middle school students. TCAP data was observed for the 2011 and 2012 school year. In regards to ethnicity, students have been identified as White, Hispanic, and Black American. Gender was also analyzed in these ethnic groups.

Initially, 262 names were submitted, but the number was significantly reduced due to students moving out of the school system and students not remaining in the program. Three of the participants could not be coded by their ethnicity, due to the information not being provided in the database.

After further review, the remaining participants were further reduced due to the uneven samples. For instance, three participants (from one school) cannot be compared to sixteen at-risk students. The selection criteria focused on matched pairs instead of random selection. For example, a black female in enrolled in READ 180 was compared to a black female not enrolled in the program. In summary, for this research study, the data of forty-four READ 180 students and thirty-eight non READ 180 students was used.

The experiment group receives 90 minutes of daily READ 180 instruction. The control group includes students who are reading below grade level and are receiving traditional reading and language arts instructions. These students may not have been included in the READ 180 program due to enrollment number restrictions.

Instrument

The Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program, or TCAP, is a set of statewide assessments given in Tennessee to measure students' skills and progress. All students in grades 3-8 take the achievement test with few exceptions. The timed TCAP Achievement test uses multiple-choice questions that provide a measure of knowledge and application skills in Reading, Language Arts, Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies areas for grades K-8. The results of the TCAP Achievement Test provide valuable information regarding student's progress in Tennessee. The program measures the students' understanding of the statewide curriculum standards. Each child is given a score based on a Normal Curve Equivalent (NCE) in addition to a percentile ranking.

Each grade level has Reporting Categories Performance Index cut scores for each subject of the TCAP tests. The index cut scores are an estimate of the number of items the student would be expected to answer correctly to achieve basic, proficient and advanced designation if there had been 100 such items for each category. The researcher used the Reading/Language Arts component for this study.

Procedure

The researcher began the study by seeking approval from the university Institutional Review Board. Upon approval, the researcher contacted the local school district to obtain permission to use their archival data for the study. Permission was granted and the researcher proceeded to make contact with the READ 180 coordinator for the participating school district.

The researcher requested archival data from the Tennessee school district. The data has been coded to insure anonymity. The researcher examined TCAP data for the 2010-

2011 and 2011-2012 school years. The TCAP exam is a timed multiple choice assessment measuring performance in Reading/Language Arts, Math, Science, and Social Studies. The TCAP tests are state mandated exams administered to students in grades 3-8 each spring. The tests were given over 4 days with all administrators following the identical rules of conduct. The TCAP test provided criterion-referenced information that is measured against specific standards. Each item on the test was linked to a performance indicator that corresponds with objectives from the state of Tennessee's curriculum standards.

The research concentrated on the students' achievement scores, ethnicity, and gender who were enrolled in READ 180. This data was compared to their counterparts who were equally at-risk, but not enrolled in the READ 180 program.

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
2. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of Black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
3. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as

compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

4. Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school Black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
5. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
6. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of Black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
7. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?
8. Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of Black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

9. Is there a difference in the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Hypotheses

1. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
2. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of Black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
3. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
4. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school Black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

5. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
6. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of Black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
7. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
8. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of Black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.
9. There is no statistically significant difference in the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

Data Analysis Plan

Once the data was received the researcher began the analysis. The approach began with the 2010-2011 school year data and counting the number of students enrolled

in the program and comparing that number with at-risk students who were not enrolled in the program. Once that number was established, the researcher then examined achievement scores of students in the program and compared them to students not enrolled in the program. The researcher observed gender differences in the data to determine if boys or girls scored higher achievement scores with the reading intervention READ 180 or without the use of the program. Ethnicity was the last category examined. For this study, Black American students were the focus group. Their TCAP achievement scores were used to make a determination if ethnicity was a factor between READ 180 and non READ 180 students.

These steps were repeated for the 2011-2012 TCAP school year data. Human errors are common and occur often, so the data was reviewed twice for accuracy.

The researcher used a two-tailed statistical t-test to examine the achievement data to determine if the 2011 and 2012 achievement hypotheses were proven. A t-test is a statistical examination of two population means. A two-tailed sample t-test examines whether two samples are different and is commonly used when the variances of two normal distributions are unknown and when an experiment uses a small sample size. The t-test is one of a number of hypotheses tests. The researcher used a two-tailed t-test to compare the achievement growth (2011 and 2012) of Read 180 students and non Read 180 students. The mean of ethnicity and gender were used to answer the remaining research questions. The t-tests were calculated and analyzed at the 0.5 significance level. The data will be returned to the appropriate system data coordinator at the completion of the study.

Summary

Middle school students who read one to two years below grade level are considered at risk. This study focuses on students enrolled in Scholastics Read 180 program. TCAP data from the students enrolled in the program were compared to at risk students not enrolled the Read 180 program. Students enrolled in READ 180 are expected to make significant gains if the program is administered with fidelity. The experiment group receives 90 minutes of daily READ 180 instruction. The control group includes students who are reading below grade level and are receiving traditional Reading/Language Arts instruction.

Student data was evaluated from one school district in middle Tennessee. Four middle schools with a READ 180 program were selected for this study. Participants have been identified as seventh and eighth grade middle school students. TCAP data was observed for the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 school year. In regards to ethnicity, students have been identified as White, Hispanic, and Black American. Gender was also analyzed in these ethnic groups.

TCAP archival data was evaluated based on achievement, gender, and ethnicity. The Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program, or TCAP, is a set of statewide assessments given in Tennessee to measure students' skills and progress. All students in grades 3-8 take the achievement test with few exceptions. The program measures the students' understanding of the statewide curriculum standards. Each child is given a score based on a Normal Curve Equivalent (NCE) in addition to a percentile ranking.

Each grade level has Reporting Categories Performance Index cut scores for each subject of the TCAP tests. The index cut scores are an estimate of the number of items

the student would be expected to answer correctly to achieve basic, proficient and advanced designation if there had been 100 such items for each category. The researcher used the Reading/Language Arts component for this study.

The following summarizes the results of the data analysis as it relates to the six research questions raised in Chapters 1 and 3. This study was conducted to determine the effects of the reading intervention program, READ 180, has had on the middle school students on the effects of students who had been in the program during seventh grade. The data were gathered from standardized test scores in reading from one school system.

Demographic Information of Sample Population

Gender	Number
Female	21
Male	23
Female	10
Male	9
Female	
Male	
Female	

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter contains the results of the data analysis as it relates to the six research questions proposed in Chapters 1 and 3. This study was conducted to determine what effects, if any, the reading intervention program, READ 180, has had on the middle schools. The focus was on the effects of students who had been in the program during the seventh and eighth grade. The data were gathered from standardized test scores in Reading-Language Arts from one school system.

Table 4

READ 180 Demographic Information of Sample Population

Group	Gender	Number
Total	Female	21
	Male	23
Black-American	Female	10
	Male	9
White	Female	11
	Male	12
Hispanic	Female	0
	Male	2

There were forty-four participants in the READ 180 program and thirty-eight Non-READ 180 participants. Chapter 4 was guided by nine research questions and associated null hypotheses. Tables 4 and 5 show the demographic information for the participants in this study.

Table 5

Non-READ 180 Demographic Information of Sample Population

Group	Gender	Number
Total	Female	16
	Male	22
Black-American	Female	6
	Male	9
White	Female	10
	Male	12
Hispanic	Female	0
	Male	1

Analysis of Research Questions

The researcher used Microsoft Excel and hand calculations to analyze the data by creating a spreadsheet to calculate the results for a Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance for two of the hypotheses (α = significance level). The remaining research questions were answered by computing and analyzing the means.

Normal Curve Equivalent (NCE) is a test score reported on a scale that ranges from 1 to 99 with an average of 50. NCE's are approximately equal to percentiles.

Research Question 1

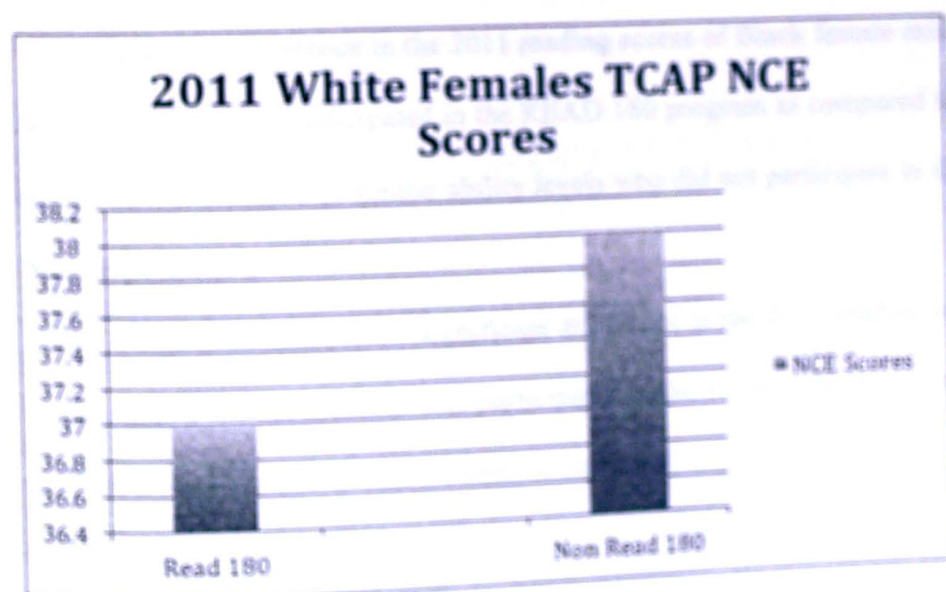
Is there a difference in the 2011 reading scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 1

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 reading scores of White female middle school students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program.

Table 6

White Female 2011 TCAP NCE Scores



In 2011, White female students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 37 and Non-READ 180 students had a Mean of 38. Students not enrolled in READ 180 performed slightly higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. Table 6 displays the Mean scores of White female students (37) who were enrolled in READ 180 and the Non-READ 180 White female students Mean scores (38) for the 2011 testing cycle. The data in Table 6 clearly illustrates the disparity between the 2011 Non-READ 180 White female student scores and the scores for the READ 180 White females for 2011. The difference in the Mean scores for the two groups seems sizeable but the differences were not determined to be statistically significant. Results from a Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that no statistical significance existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Research Question 2

Is there a difference in the 2011 reading scores of Black female middle school female students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female middle school students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 2

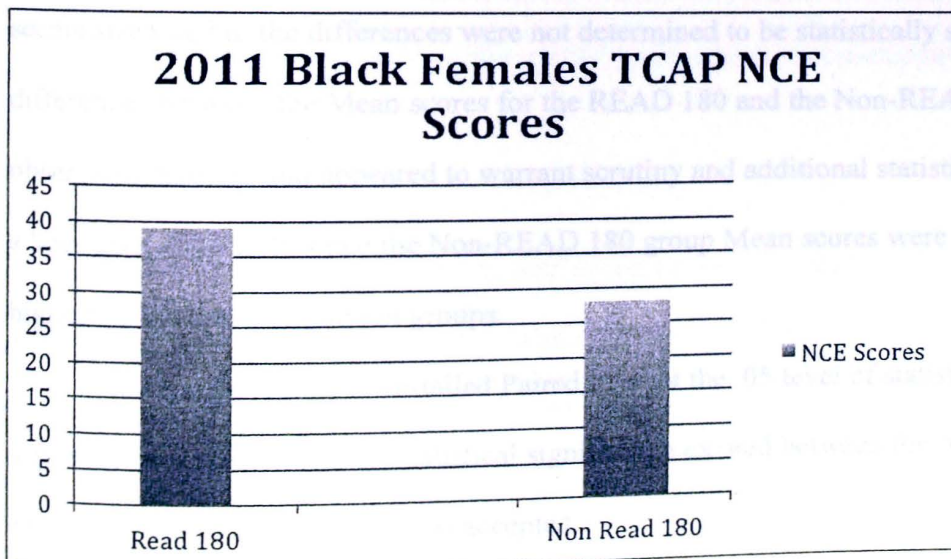
There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 reading scores of Black female middle school students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to Black middle school female students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program.

In 2011, Black female students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 39 and the Non-READ 180 students had a Mean score of 29. Black female students enrolled in READ 180 performed 10 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. Table 7 displays the scores of Black female students who were enrolled in READ 180 and those who were not in the 2011 school year.

The data in Table 7 clearly illustrates the disparity between the 2011 Non-READ 180 Black Female TCAP NCE student scores and the TCAP NCE scores for the READ 180 Black Females for 2011. The differences were determined to be statistically significant at the .05 level of statistical significance. Based on the results of the Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that a statistically significant difference existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 7

Black Female 2011 TCAP NCE Scores



Research Question 3

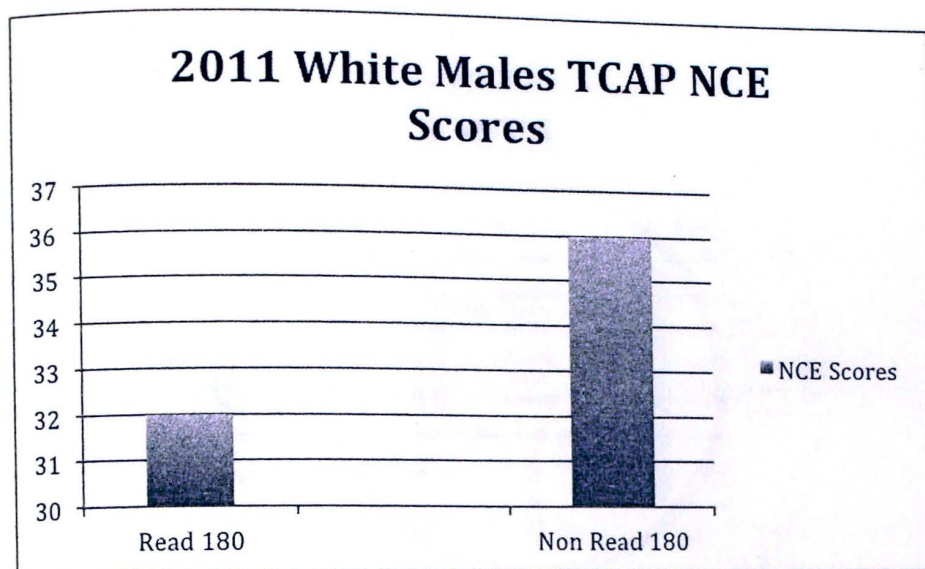
Will there be a difference in the 2011 reading scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 reading scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

In 2011, White male students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 32 and the Non-READ 180 students had a Mean score of 36. White male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 4 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. Table 8 indicates that the scores of White male students who were enrolled in READ 180 as compared to the Mean scores for the Non-READ 180 students for the 2011 school year. The difference in the Mean scores for the two groups seems sizeable but the differences were not determined to be statistically significant. The differences between the Mean scores for the READ 180 and the Non-READ 180 were observably marked and appeared to warrant scrutiny and additional statistical analysis at a later date, especially since the Non-READ 180 group Mean scores were by far the highest of the two comparison groups.

The results from a Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that no statistical significance existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

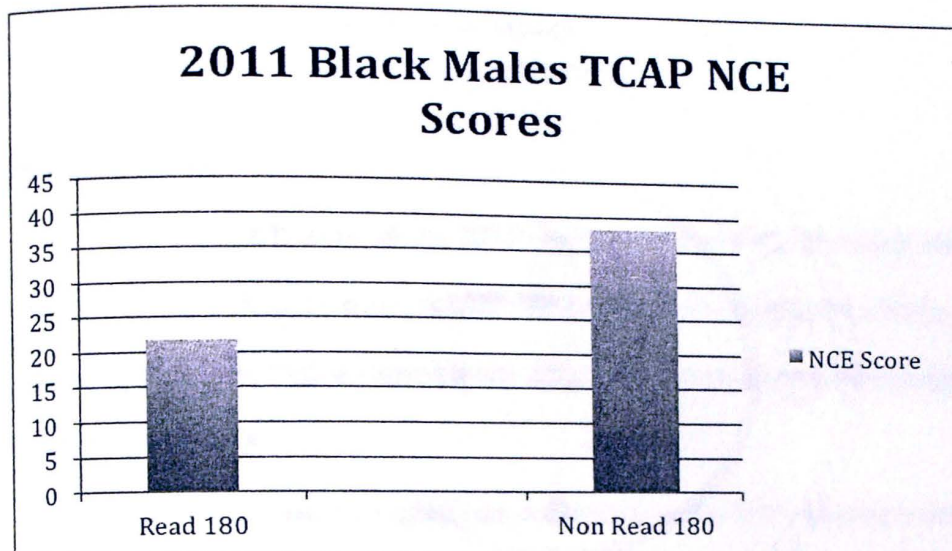
Table 8*White Male 2011 TCAP NCE Scores***Research Question 4**

Is there a difference in the 2011 reading scores of Black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 reading scores of middle school Black American students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school Black American students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program.

Table 9

Black Male 2011 TCAP NCE Scores

In 2011, Black male students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 22 and the Non-READ 180 Black male students had a Mean score of 38. Black male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 16 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. The data in Table 9 illustrates the differences between the 2011 Non-READ 180 TCAP NCE test scores for the Black Male students compared to the 2011 TCAP NCE test scores for the READ 180 Black Male students.

The difference in the Mean scores for the two groups seems sizeable but the differences were not determined to be statistically significant. The differences between the Mean scores for the READ 180 and the Non-READ 180 were observably marked and appeared to warrant scrutiny and additional statistical analysis at a later date, especially since the Non-READ 180 group Mean scores were by far the highest of the two comparison groups.

The results from a Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that no statistical significance existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Research Question 5

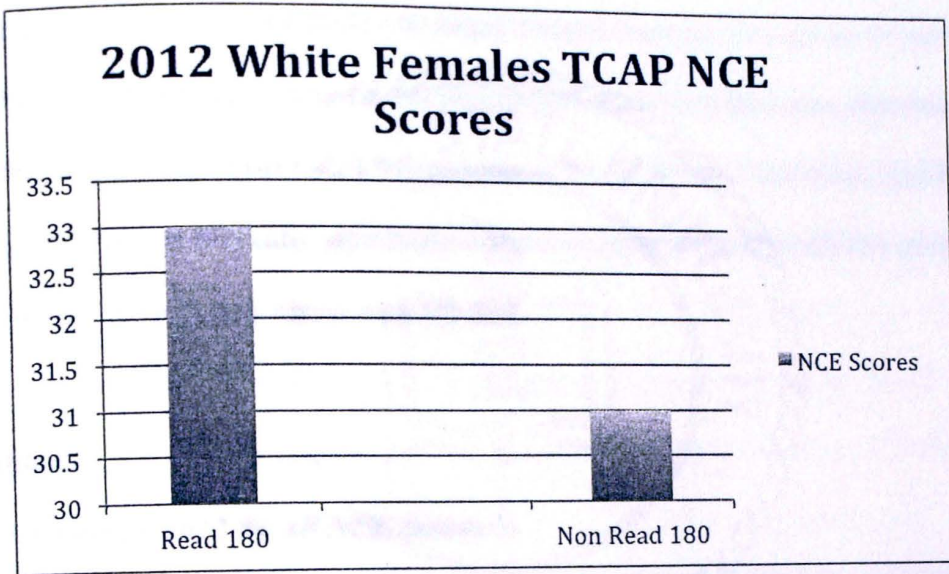
Is there a difference in the 2012 reading scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 5

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

In 2012, White female students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 33 and the Non-READ 180 students had a Mean score of 31. White Female students enrolled in READ 180 performed 2 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. Table 10 indicates that the Mean scores of White Female students who were enrolled in READ 180 during the 2012 testing window reflected higher Mean scores (33) than the Non-READ 180 White Female students (31) on the TCAP NCE. Results from a Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that no statistical significance existed between the two groups. Observationally and statistically, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 10

White Female 2012 TCAP NCE Scores**Research Question 6**

Is there a difference in the 2012 reading scores of Black female middle school who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 6

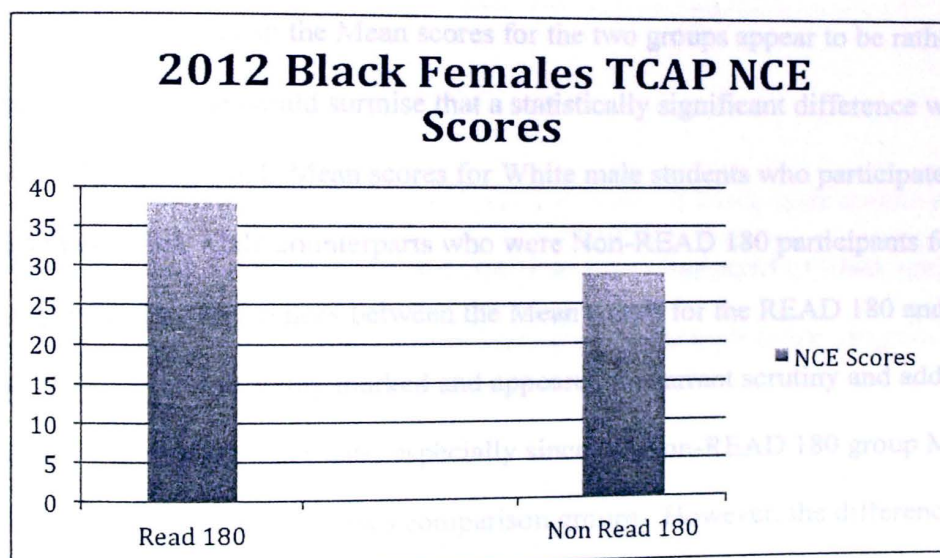
There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of Black female middle school students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to Black female middle school students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program.

In 2012, Black female students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 38 and Non-READ 180 students had a Mean score of 31. Black female students enrolled in READ 180 performed 7 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of

Language Arts and Reading. Table 11 indicates that the scores of Black Female students who were enrolled in READ 180 during the 2012 testing window reflected higher Mean scores (38) than the Non-READ 180 Black Female students (31) on the TCAP NCE. The difference in the Mean scores for the two groups seems sizeable upon observation. Based on the results of the Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that a statistically significant difference existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 11

Black Female 2012 TCAP NCE Scores



Research Question 7

Will there be a difference in the 2012 reading scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

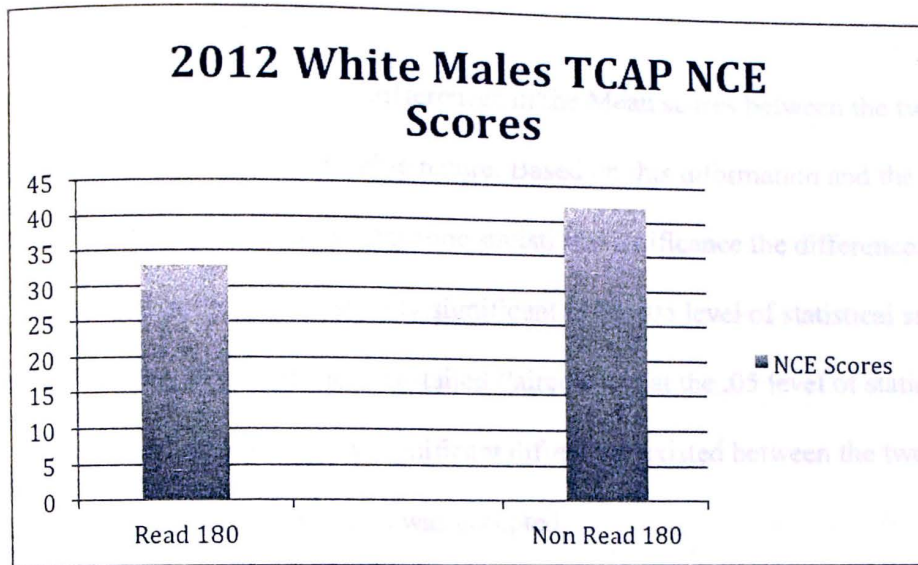
Null Hypothesis 7

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of White male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to White male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program.

In 2012, White male students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 33 and the Non-READ 180 students had a Mean score of 42. White male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 9 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. Table 12 displays the scores of White male students who were enrolled in READ 180 and those who were not in the 2012 school year.

The difference in the Mean scores for the two groups appear to be rather sizeable. Observationally, one would surmise that a statistically significant difference would exist between the TCAP NCE Mean scores for White male students who participated in the program and their Male counterparts who were Non-READ 180 participants for the 2012 testing cycle. The differences between the Mean scores for the READ 180 and the Non-READ 180 were observably marked and appeared to warrant scrutiny and additional statistical analysis at a later date, especially since the Non-READ 180 group Mean scores were by far the highest of the two comparison groups. However, the differences were not determined to be statistically significant. Results from a Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance indicated that no statistically significant differences existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 12

White Male 2012 TCAP NCE Scores**Research Question 8**

Is there a difference in the 2012 reading scores of Black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 8

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of Black male middle school students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to Black male middle school students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program.

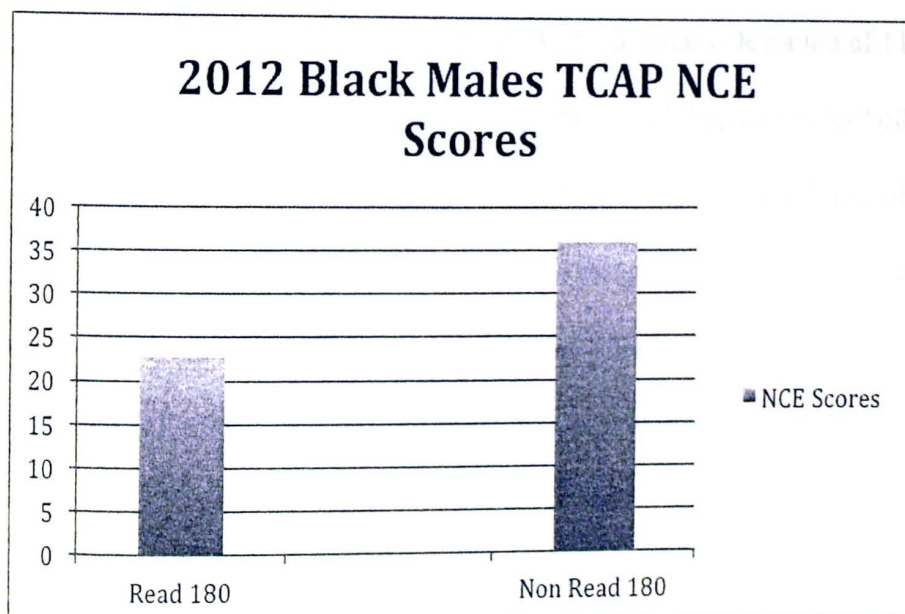
In 2012, Black male students who participated in READ 180 had a Mean score of 23 on the TCAP NCE while the Non-READ 180 students had a Mean score of 36. Black male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 13 points higher on the TCAP

assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading. Table 13 displays the scores of black male students who were enrolled in READ 180 and those who were not in the 2012 school year.

Observationally, the differences in the Mean scores between the two groups appear to be of a rather sizeable nature. Based on this information and the data from the statistical analysis used to determine statistical significance the differences were determined not to be statistically significant at the .05 level of statistical significance. Based on the results of the Two-tailed Paired t-test at the .05 level of statistical significance, no statistically significant difference existed between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 13

Black Male 2012 TCAP NCE Scores



Research Question 9

Is there be a difference in the TCAP reading scores of middle school students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 9

There is no statistically significant difference in the TCAP reading scores of middle students who participated in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who did not participate in the program.

The researcher utilized participants' seventh and eighth grade NCE scores from the 2011 TCAP assessment. The 2011 Mean scores of the READ 180 students was 32 with a Standard Deviation of 13.97. The Mean score of the Non-READ 180 students was a 35.58 with a Standard Deviation of 13.37. The 2012 data indicated that the READ 180 students had a Mean score of 32.13 and a Standard Deviation of 14.75. The Mean score of the Non-READ 180 students was 35.92 with a Standard Deviation of 11.92.

The results lead the researcher to accept the null hypothesis for both years. For 2011, the $t = 1.16$ and for 2012 $t = -1.28$. Both years failed to yield data of a statistically significant difference between the comparison groups. With the sample used, Read 180 did not have significant effect on student achievement. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted for the data for both comparison groups and both comparison years.

Table 14***T-Test Results for READ 180 versus Non-READ 180 Participants 2011 and 2012***

Two-tailed, paired t-test at the $\alpha = .05$ level evaluating READ 180 TCAP student achievement scores to non READ 180 TCAP students achievement scores

School Year	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	p-Value
2011	180	32.1	13.97	1.16
2011	Non 180	35.58	13.37	1.16
2012	180	32.13	14.75	-1.28
2012	Non 180	35.92	11.92	-1.28

$\alpha = 0.05$

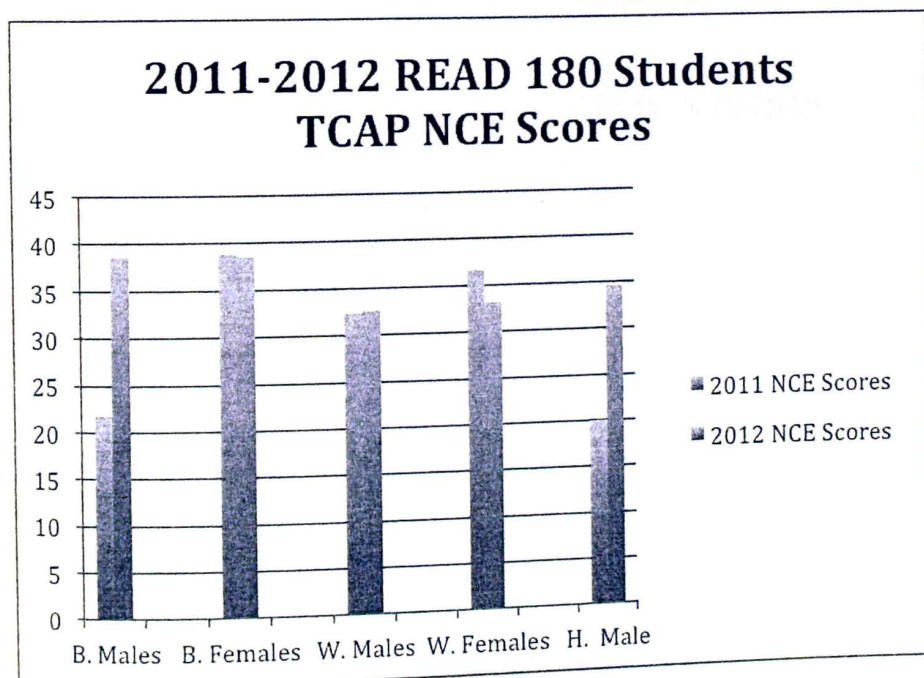
Table 15***2011 - 2012 Mean Scores of READ 180 Participants***

Table 16

2011 and 2012 Mean Scores of Non-READ 180 Participants

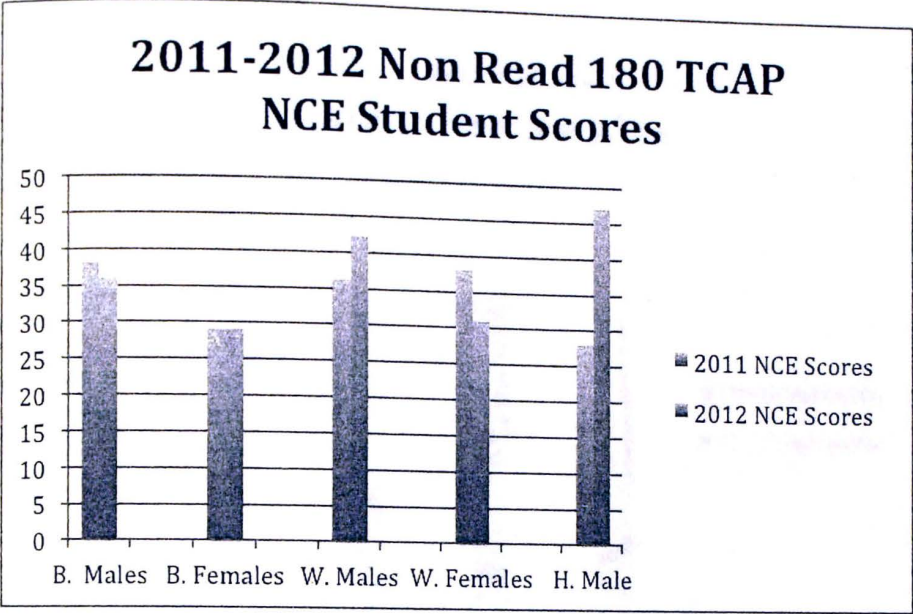


Table 17

2011 and 2012 Percentiles of Non-READ 180 Students

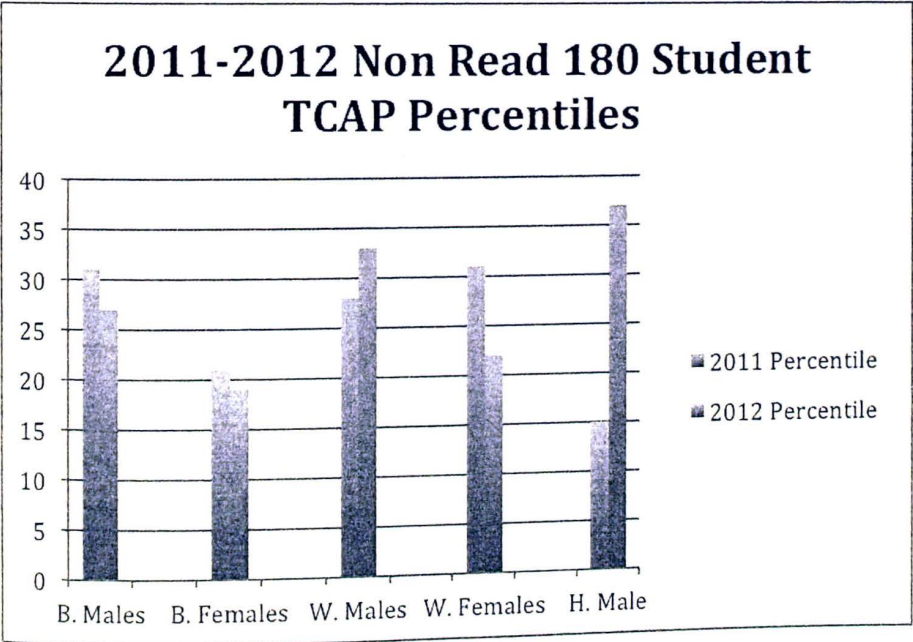
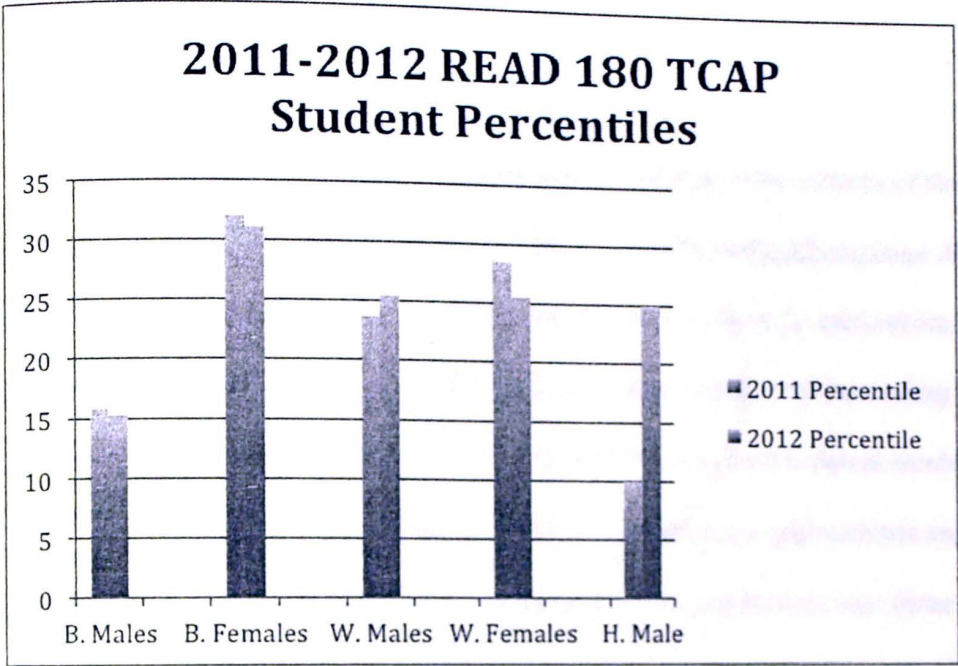


Table 18

2011 and 2012 Percentiles of READ 180 Students



CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of the Scholastics Read 180 program on middle school students' TCAP Reading/Language Arts achievement scores. READ 180 is a comprehensive system of curriculum, instruction, assessment, and professional development that helps schools raise reading achievement for struggling students in grades 4-12. READ 180 is an instructional model consisting of 90 minutes of classroom instruction during which teachers and students engage in a variety of activities and instructional modes. The class is broken into three sections with whole-group instruction for 20 minutes, then into small group instruction that involves 20 minutes stations including computers, reading, writing, and finally, a 10-minute whole group wrap-up. The technology tracks student progress in real time every day, delivering personalized instruction to the student and data to the teacher that makes differentiation easy (Davidson & Miller, 2002).

The modeled and independent reading group allows students to build reading comprehension skills through modeled and independent reading. Instructional quality books present students with age appropriate, relevant texts. Students read books on their appropriate Lexile level, allowing for successful independent reading. The Lexile Framework for Reading makes use of reading measurement to match readers' current level of reading ability to appropriate text. The Lexile scale extends from 200L to 1700L

for the advanced reader. Students also listen to audio books to strengthen reading fluency and habits with grade level material (READ 180, 2010).

The READ 180 program emphasizes small interactions regular classroom reading students could benefit from the advantages of small group instruction. The instructional model of READ 180 allows for routine, organization, and individual pacing, as well as a degree of choice and mobility, all of which could benefit readers at all levels of progress. This highly structured environment may provide more support for struggling readers than regular reading class.

Summary of Findings

Based on the research, students enrolled in Scholastics READ 180 program should have outperformed students not enrolled in the READ 180 program. The analysis began with nine research questions. The population of the study included forty-four control and treatment students who read at least one year below grade level as measured by the Reading Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program Criterion Reference Test (TCAP CRT). The Non Read 180 students consisted of a sample of thirty-eight. The population was further divided by gender and ethnicity for both the control and READ 180 students. The researcher analyzed TCAP NCE score data for each student for the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 school years. The results are summarized for each research question.

Research Question 1

Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of White female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to

White female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 1

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was accepted.

In 2011, white female students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 37 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 38. Students not enrolled in READ 180 performed slightly higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 2

Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 2

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was rejected.

In 2011, black female students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 39 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 29. Black female students enrolled in READ

180 performed 10 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 3

Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 3

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was accepted.

In 2011, white male students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 32 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 36. White male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 4 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 4

Is there a difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 4

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2011 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was accepted.

In 2011, black male students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 22 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 38. Black male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 16 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 5

Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 5

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of white female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was rejected.

In 2012, white female students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 33 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 31. White female students enrolled in READ 180 performed 2 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 6

Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 6

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of black female middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black female middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was rejected.

In 2012, black female students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 38 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 31. Black female students enrolled in READ 180 performed 7 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 7

Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 7

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of white male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to

white male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was accepted.

In 2012, white male students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 33 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 42. White male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 9 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 8

Is there a difference in the 2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 8

There is no statistically significant difference in the 2012 reading scores of black male middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to black male middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The null hypothesis was accepted.

In 2012, black male students who participated in READ 180 had a mean of 23 and non READ 180 students had a mean of 36. Black male students not enrolled in READ 180 performed 13 points higher on the TCAP assessment in the areas of Language Arts and Reading.

Research Question 9

Is there a difference in the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 TCAP Reading/Language Arts scores of middle school students who participate in the READ 180 program as

compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program?

Null Hypothesis 9

There is no statistically significant difference in the TCAP reading scores of middle students who participate in the READ 180 program as compared to middle school students of similar ability levels who do not participate in the program. The hypotheses were accepted for both years.

T-Test Results

The researcher utilized participants’ seventh and eighth grade NCE scores from the 2011 TCAP assessment. The 2011 Mean scores for the READ 180 students was 32 with a Standard Deviation of 13.97 as reflected in the data in Table 14.

Table 14

T-Test Results Between READ 180 and Non-READ 180 Students for 2011 and 2012

Two-tailed, paired t-test at the $\alpha = .05$ level evaluating READ 180 TCAP student achievement scores to non READ 180 TCAP students achievement scores

School Year	Participants	Mean	Standard Deviation	p-Value
2011	180	32.1	13.97	1.16
2011	Non 180	35.58	13.37	1.16
2012	180	32.13	14.75	-1.28
2012	Non 180	35.92	11.92	-1.28

$\alpha = 0.05$

The Mean score for the Non-READ 180 students was 35.58 with a Standard Deviation of 13.37. The 2012 data indicated that READ 180 students had a Mean score of 32.13 and a Standard Deviation of 14.75. The Mean score for the Non-READ 180 students was 35.92 with a Standard Deviation of 11.92. For 2011, the alpha score was $t = (1.16)$ and the alpha level for 2012 was $t = (-1.28)$. The results lead the researcher to accept the null hypothesis for both years. Both years showed no significant difference and therefore, the null hypotheses were accepted. With the sample used, Read 180 did not have significant effect on student achievement.

Recommendations

Overall the null hypotheses were accepted throughout the research. The results of the study suggest this school system evaluate their READ 180 program. The sample provided to the researcher consisted of numerous students who were performing poorly on the TCAP assessment while enrolled in the READ 180 program.

Teachers need continued READ 180 training. The program will only work with fidelity and without modifications. The data provided indicated that certain teachers had consistent high scores and other schools performed consistently low. Students who were reading below level were exited from the program for numerous reasons. Obviously, the teacher is not solely responsible for low tests scores; student motivation will always be a major component. This school system could benefit from additional READ 180 studies and/or an annual internal review.

CHAPTER VI

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ANTHONY PEAY STATE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

For Review by the Institutional Review Board of APSU on Student
Research Projects

1. The title of the study is: *For example, your research with the*

2. The researcher who reviewed and approved this study is: *For example, your name, degree, etc.*

3. The study is being conducted in accordance with the APSU IRB
policy. *For example, your name, degree, etc.*

Appendix A

APSU IRB Approval Letter

The study letter for approval for changing the project name of
the research project. Some changes may be approved by
the IRB. For example, if you are conducting research on the
effect of a new drug on the health of patients, you may
want to change the title of the study.

For more information, contact the APSU IRB and the National Research Center



**AUSTIN PEAY STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD**

Date: October 27, 2013

Re: Regarding study #13-053 An Investigation of the Effects of READ 180 on Student Achievement in one Middle Tennessee Middle School

Dear Tenesha Hardin,

Thank you for your recent submission to the IRB. We appreciate your cooperation with the human research review process.

This is to confirm that your application was reviewed and it was determined that it qualifies for exemption from further review and has been approved.

Exemption is granted under the Common Rule 45 CFR 46.101 (b) (2) exemption from 45 CFR part 46 requirements; information obtained will be from archived data and recorded in such a manner that human subjects cannot be identified, the study poses minimal or no risk to participants, finally benefits of the study outweigh any unforeseen risk.

You may conduct your study as described in your application, effective immediately.

Please note that any changes to the study have the potential for changing the exempt status of your study, and must be promptly reported and approved. Some changes may be approved by expedited review; others require full board review. You are required to report completion of this study within one calendar year. If you have any questions or require further information, you can contact me by phone (931-221-6106) or email (shepherd@apsu.edu).

Again, thank you for your cooperation with the APSU IRB and the human research review process.

Sincerely,

Omie Shepherd, Chair
Austin Peay Institutional Review Board

Cc: Dr. Gary Stewart

Appendix B

College of Graduate Studies

Letter of Extension

Letter of Extension Consideration to your request for a time extension to complete the Graduate Academic Appeals Committee has granted your request for the following determinations from the committee. Starting in the Fall you will be awarded with a grade of "A".

Subject:

FW: Graduate Appeal Decision

Importance:

High

AP Austin Peay
State University
College of Graduate Studies
P. O. Box 4458

August 20, 2013

Tenesha Hardin

Banner #: A00015958

Program: EDS

Appendix C

Policy of Approval to Conduct Research

Dear Ms. Hardin,

The Graduate Academic Appeals Committee has met and gave careful consideration to your request for a time extension in the College of Graduate Studies. Upon review the Graduate Academic Appeals Committee has granted your request for time for the Fall 2013 semester with the following determinations from the committee. Starting in the Fall you will need to complete or retake the following courses with a grade of "A".

Fall 2013: EDUC 6050, although already taken, it was determined by your coordinator that it would have to be repeated

Spring 14: EDUC 6990

Also, you will need to re-apply to the College of Graduate Studies for the upcoming semester. You will have until the Summer 2014 semester to finish your degree. Decisions of the Graduate Academic Appeals committee regarding readmission are final and may not be appealed. Please contact me if you need further clarifications of the committee's decision. We do wish you the best in your future endeavors.

Sincerely,



Dixie L. Dennis, Ph.D., CHES

Associate Provost, Grants and Sponsored Programs and
Dean, College of Graduate Studies

C: Gary Stewart

Kendra Bryant, Graduate Admissions

Appendix C

Letter of Approval to Conduct Research Clarksville-Montgomery County Schools

... earned Degree at Austin Peay State University. The focus of the study
... requesting permission to conduct the study using Clarksville Montgomery

Stewart, Gary

Subject:

FW: Research Field Study

From: Sallie Armstrong <sallie.armstrong@cmcoss.net>

Date: Tuesday, November 12, 2013 10:47 AM

To: CMCSS CMCSS <tenesha.hardin@cmcoss.net>

Cc: Kimmie Sucharski <kimmie.sucharski@cmcoss.net>, Leigh Ann Parr <leighann.parr@cmcoss.net>

Subject: RE: Research Field Study

The Research Committee approves your request.

Sallie Armstrong, Ed.D.

Director of Curriculum and Instruction,

Curriculum and Instruction Department

Clarksville-Montgomery County School System

Office: 931-920-7819

Cell: 931-980-2637

Email: sallie.armstrong@cmcoss.net



From: Tenesha Hardin

Sent: Sunday, November 10, 2013 4:26 PM

To: Sallie Armstrong

Subject: Research Field Study

Hi Dr. Armstrong,

I'm working on a field study for an Educational Specialist Degree at Austin Peay State University. The focus of the study centers around the benefits of READ 180. I am requesting permission to conduct the study using Clarksville Montgomery County data.

Please see attachment.

Thank you for your time.

Appendix B:

Letter of Extension from Graduate Appeals Committee	106-107
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Appendix C:

Approval Letter to Conduct Research from CMCSS	108-109
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