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Effects of Interactive Read-Aloud and Literature Discussion on Reading Comprehension for First-Grade Students With Language Impairments in a Title 1 School

Elizabeth Vultaggio Salah
Nova Southeastern University, es800@nova.edu

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Effects of Interactive Read-Aloud and Literature Discussion on Reading Comprehension
for First-Grade Students With Language Impairments in a Title 1 School

by
Elizabeth Vultaggio Salah

An Applied Dissertation Submitted to the
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Approval Page

This applied dissertation was submitted by Elizabeth Vultaggio Salah under the direction of the persons listed below. It was submitted to the Abraham S. Fischler School of Education and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education at Nova Southeastern University.

David B. Ross, EdD   Date
Committee Chair

Ashley Russom, EdD   Date
Committee Member

Mary Ann Lowe, SLPD   Date
Associate Dean

Statement of Original Work

I declare the following:

I have read the Code of Student Conduct and Academic Responsibility as described in the *Student Handbook* of Nova Southeastern University. This applied dissertation represents my original work, except where I have acknowledged the ideas, words, or material of other authors.

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Signature

Elizabeth Vultaggio Salah

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Name

April 23, 2014

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Date

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Abstract

Effects of Interactive Read-Aloud and Literature Discussion on Reading Comprehension for First-Grade Students With Language Impairments in a Title 1 School. Elizabeth Vultaggio Salah, 2014: Applied Dissertation, Nova Southeastern University, Abraham S. Fischler School of Education. Language Impaired, First-Grade, Title 1 Schools, Reading Comprehension, Interactive Read-Aloud, Literature Discussion, Fountas and Pinnell.

This applied dissertation was designed to determine the effects of the interactive read-aloud and literature discussion on reading comprehension for first-grade students with language impairments in a Title 1 School. This study was conducted as an embedded case study design using a quantitative method for data collection and analysis. The de-identified data was collected and analyzed from two consecutive school years (i.e., 2012-2013, 2013-2014). Data on the students' overtime (i.e., from kindergarten to first-grade) was collected and analyzed based upon a multiple case study design. Data points were collected using the A-B design, a two phase, basic signal-subject design. The A in the A-B design was the individual student's baseline data point; whereas B, was the data point after the intervention. The researcher observed and measured individual student data from the kindergarten school year (A).

The researcher administered the read-aloud intervention, and observed and measured multiple data points after the intervention (B). The students' scores were determined using ongoing data collection. Since the overall design was to measure improvement in the four students overtime, no comparison groups were used. An analysis of the de-identified data revealed how individual language impaired students responded to the intervention. The researcher concluded that interactive read-aloud coupled with literature discussions improved reading comprehension of first-grade language impaired students based on results of the Oral Language Assessment and the Comprehension Conversation Assessment of the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1. Recommendations were made for future research.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The National Center for Education Statistics (2011) reported that approximately 1,416,000 speech or language impaired students 3 to 21 years of age were served in federally funded programs, comprising nearly 2.9% of all enrolled students in the 2009-2010 school year. The main problem students with speech and language impairments encounter are receptive and expressive impairments, which includes the inability to understand and use language, speech disfluency, articulation impairments, and voice impairments (Desmarais, Nadeau, Trudeau, Filiatrault-Veilleux, & Maxes-Fournier, 2013). These unique challenges will likely impede reading comprehension and language learning, placing students with speech and language impairments at a greater risk of failure, compared to students without speech and language impairments.

Researchers argued that students with speech and language impairments face language learning challenges that negatively impact on future schooling and on social integration compared to their typically developing peers (Desmarais et al., 2013). Language comprehension, not limited to reading alone, is an essential skill required for academic achievement. Educators recognize that students with speech and language impairments are at a disadvantage in relation to language learning, ultimately hindering comprehension of oral language and written language (Desmarais et al., 2013). This fact concerns stakeholders as high-stakes tests command a higher level of reading proficiency utilizing reading strategies to demonstrate comprehension (International Reading Association, 1999; Popham, 2001). The mere fact that performance on high-stakes tests could change the course of a student's life is a concern for educators and families.

Background and Justification

Reading is a crucial skill required for academic success and lifelong learning. According to The National Institute for Literacy (2010), kindergarten and first-grade students vary greatly in the attainment of beginning reading skills such as letter, sound, and word-level skills, which affects overall academic performance if not remediated early on. Although reading failure is not a new problem for educators, it remains a concern in educational institutions across the United States (Elleman, Compton, Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bouton, 2011; Fuchs et al., 2012; Rader, 2010; Swanson et al., 2011). The significance of early identification for students experiencing early stages of reading problems has intensified due to the heightened availability of scientific evidence on successful intervention methods (Speece et al., 2011). Students who are at risk for reading problems benefit from early identification and intervention methods. Furthermore, students who are not identified in the primary grades are more than likely to struggle throughout their educational career. According to Stebbins, Stormont, Lembke, Wilson, and Clippard (2012), 33% of fourth-graders performed below the basic skills level, which supports the need for early identification of at-risk readers. Further, students with language impairments are at a greater risk compared to their nondisabled peers for experiencing reading difficulties in the five components of reading that includes phonemic awareness, phonics, reading fluency, vocabulary development, and reading comprehension (Stebbins et al., 2012).

The National Institute for Literacy (2006) reported that explicit and systematic reading instruction that incorporates all five reading components has been linked to reading success. According to Pufpaff and Yssel (2010), students, particularly those with

learning disabilities, receive limited instruction in the five components of reading. Small group instruction that focuses on individualized instructional needs is most beneficial. Under *Reading First*, districts' and schools' reading programs for kindergarten through Grade 3 must include instruction to incorporate all five components of reading, playing a critical role in literacy development.

The National Institute for Literacy (2010) noted that kindergarten and first-grade students from low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds vary in the attainment of the essential early precursor skills that pave the pathway to reading success. Students from low SES backgrounds generally enter school performing substantially lower than their higher SES peers, and with time, they are likely to fall further behind academically (Burden & Byrd, 2010; Hulme & Snowling, 2011). This concern seems relevant due to the diverse student population in the American public educational system. Furthermore, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2011) reported significant gaps among fourth-grade ethnic and/or racial groups on national reading assessments. With high-stakes tests measuring reading beginning in third-grade, stakeholders must close the achievement gap among these student groups early on. Moreover, teachers and students continue to be held accountable for higher performance affecting grade promotion, graduation, professional tenure, and school and district accreditation.

Reading comprehension requires students to obtain information from written text and understanding the information that words and sentences are communicating. Vocabulary building can help young readers recognize more words and understand the meaning behind written text; therefore, promoting comprehension or reading for meaning (Neuman & Dwyer, 2011). Young children develop vocabulary at an early age before

entering elementary school and continue this process throughout the primary grades. Educators believe that a strong vocabulary base is one of the pillars of reading comprehension for young children entering elementary school. Vocabulary instruction ensures reading achievement in developing readers and is an effective predictor of reading comprehension in high school (Neuman & Dwyer, 2011). Although a number of students may develop decoding skills necessary to read, many students continue to struggle with comprehension of written text due to their limited vocabulary and background knowledge. For the purpose of this study, the students selected lack background knowledge compared to their nondisabled peers.

Lonigan and Shanahan (2010) argued that an emphasis on vocabulary development alone is unlikely to adequately improve literacy and oral language. According to Dickinson, Griffith, Golinkoff, and Hirsh-Pasek (2012), becoming a proficient reader requires age-appropriate language skills. Thus, language skills are powerful predicators of future reading performance compared to vocabulary alone. Duncan et al. (2007) reported that school-entry skills and behaviors contribute to short-term and long-term academic success of young children. As the level of reading passage increases, basic oral language and cognitive ability play a duel role in mastery of reading and math skills (i.e., math word problems).

Primary teachers have long used the *read-aloud* approach as a way to introduce children to the joy of reading. However in today's classrooms, this approach has expanded to include an instructional purpose that engages students in a language rich literacy experience involving interactive discussion around the text. Swanson et al. (2011) reported that the *interactive read-aloud* approach, used by educators today,

improved comprehension, vocabulary, print concepts, phonological awareness, and language skills in at-risk readers.

Problem Statement

The problem for this applied dissertation is that 26% (4 out of 15) of first-grade students with language impairments are performing below grade level standards on the Fountas and Pinnell (2012) Benchmark System 1: Oral Language Assessment (OLA) and Comprehension Conversation. Language impaired students performed below grade level on these diagnostic assessments as well as demonstrated a weakness in decoding, vocabulary skills, language skills, fluency, oral retell, and reading comprehension. Low level of performance negatively impacted general understanding and learning outcomes of these language impaired students. Regardless of the remedial interventions and services provided by the speech and language pathologist, these language impaired students continued to perform below grade level standards compared to their nondisabled peers.

Evidence of the problem. In most societies literacy skills are the key factor in educational success. Students, both language impaired and nondisabled, who progress slowly with acquiring reading skills, may be at risk of underachievement throughout their educational career and beyond. These groups of students who lack early literacy skills are at potential risk of performing below grade level standards by the time they reach fourth-grade (Lonigan, Allan, & Lerner, 2011; Menzies, Mahdavi, & Lewis, 2008). To support these statements, the National Institute for Literacy (2006) reported that according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress, 37% of fourth-grade students failed to demonstrate basic literacy skills. Even though this is a 4% decrease compared to the

study conducted by Stebbins et al. (2012), this trend continues to be problematic in educational settings today.

Students who have a history of performing below grade level standards since kindergarten are likely to be even more impacted in the intermediate grades. Maynard, Pullen, and Coyne (2010) reported that the attainment of vocabulary knowledge in kindergarten is an effective predictor of reading comprehension in the intermediate grades. Vocabulary, language, comprehension, and attitudes about reading are negatively affected as each year passes for these struggling learners. Understanding the vital role vocabulary plays on reading achievement is crucial, and it is recommended that educators provide effective methods in vocabulary instruction to decrease the widening gap. According to Maynard et al., oral vocabulary utilized during reading helps first-graders put meaning to text; whereas, limited oral vocabulary skills are likely to hinder reading achievement.

The research problem. Learning to read is a complex process; therefore, reading problems may evolve at any given point in the process. Acquiring the essential literacy skills early on might alleviate deficits in reading in the upper grades (Elleman, Compton, Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bouton, 2011). Since this study is targeting first-graders, upper grades are referred to as Grades 2-12. Generally, if students are not remediated early on in kindergarten and first-grade, these students will struggle in literacy skills. The area of concern for the target Title 1 elementary school is the number of first-grade students with language impairments, who are not attaining passing scores on the Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment components of the Fountas and Pinnell (2012) Benchmark System 1, as well as, comprehending text across content areas.

Students with language impairments continue to struggle regardless of the teaching repertoire of strategies that are provided: Individual Education Plan accommodations, modifications, aids, and related services.

An additional concern is relation to the target school is that students from low socioeconomic backgrounds generally enter school performing substantially lower then their high socioeconomic status peers who are achieving on grade level performance, and with time, they are likely to fall further behind academically (Burden & Byrd, 2010; Pollard-Durodola et al., 2011). Students from low income families do not have the same language-rich experiences as their counterparts, which have a negative effect on achievement. As a result, schools must take immediate action in order to alleviate these gaps.

Hulme and Snowling (2011) defined reading-comprehension impairment as a discrepancy in reading accuracy compared to reading comprehension. These impairments would differ if students, who struggle with reading comprehension, would demonstrate reading accuracy by using successful decoding strategies. General education teachers do not have the experience to identify reading-comprehension impairments in struggling readers. Students with language impairments have oral language weaknesses in receptive and expressive language processing, which impedes comprehension of both written and spoken language. Hulme and Snowling reported that text-comprehension (TC), oral language (OL) training, and a combined approach of text-comprehension and oral language training proved (COM) to benefit students with language impairments. Since general education teachers are not equipped with knowledge, skills, and abilities with identifying students with language impairments, most of the time, these students are not

identified as having reading comprehension impairments.

Reading is paramount for lifelong learning. Research indicates that becoming a skilled reader in the early grades is vital to educational success (Lonigan, Allan, & Lerner, 2011). The degree of active student engagement in book discussions varies greatly; respectfully in the *interactive read-aloud* approach. Furthermore, students who have language impairments are less engaged in conversations and tend to experience difficulty with receptive and expressive language compared to their peers who are not disabled (Berry & Englert, 2005; Hulme & Snowling, 2011). Teachers must provide support to scaffold student learning; however, when support is taken away, students may exhibit frustration and/or anxiety having an ill affect of the degree of active engagement (Vygotsky, 1978).

Setting

The school district where this study is taking place, reported that approximately 105,000 students, Grades 3-10, were administered the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test 2.0 Reading test in April 2013, and of the students who scored Level 3 or higher, their scores remained about the same compared to prior years. It was also reported that from 2012 to 2013, performance on the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test 2.0 Reading test increased by at least 2 percentage points in Grades 6, 9, and 10. However, data from the Florida Department of Education revealed that the target school has not yet met annual yearly progress (AYP) dating as far back to 2002-2003, causing great concern for stakeholders.

The city where the research is taking place has 60,522 residents with a median income of $49,823 and a median housing value of $234,700. The U.S. Census Bureau

(2012) reported the city is comprised of 65.7% residents who are White, 28.0% Black, 0.2% American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.8% Asian, 0.1% Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander, and 4.2% other race(s). Of the residents residing in the city, 20.2% are foreign born and 25.4% speak languages other than English in the home. In relation to the educational status of residents, 85.1% are high school graduates or higher and 34.8% hold a bachelor's degree or higher.

The research setting is a suburban public elementary school located in South Florida. The school population consisted of 594 students during the 2012-2013 school year. For the 2013-2014 school year, the enrollment projection is at 559 students. Built in 1994, the school serves prekindergarten through fifth-grade students. The main campus is a two-story educational facility housing prekindergarten through second-grade classes on the first level. Third and fifth-grade classes are housed on the second level. The school contains a cafeteria, media center, art suite, music suite, computer lab, outdoor pavilion area for physical education, two playgrounds, two self-contained classrooms for Intellectual Disabilities, two self-contained classrooms for autism spectrum disorders, two resource rooms for speech and language therapy, one office for the Special Education coordinator, two classrooms for English language learners (ELL), one office for the guidance counselor, and an additional office for the English language learner guidance counselor. The guidance department provides counseling sessions for its students in a one-on-one, small group, and/or whole class setting. Outside agencies and guidance counselors service students depending on their individual needs. These individual needs could be and not limited to anger management, getting along with peers, problem solving, divorce and/or loss of a parent, etcetera. The school provides families with aftercare

services. After school tutorial programs for third through fifth-grade are provided to students scoring a Level 1 or 2 on the winter Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI) diagnostics. Summer school tutorial, during school year 2012-2013, was provided for kindergarten and first-grade students scoring in the lower 25th percentile in reading as measured on the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1.

The school's ethnic breakdown consists of 335 White, non-Hispanic, 363 Hispanic, 89 Black, 19 mixed-race, 46 Asian or Pacific Islander, and 13 American Indian or Alaskan Native students. Ninety percent of the student population comes from economically disadvantaged families and are eligible for the federal government's free or reduced-price lunch program. This qualifies the school as a Title 1 school. Eligibility status for the free or reduced-lunch program has risen consistently each year since 2009.

The exceptional student education (ESE) program consists of 200 students. These students are receiving services in the inclusion, self-contained, as well as the resource classrooms for speech and language therapy. This is the 15th year the school in this study is following this model. In grades kindergarten through second-grade, there is one inclusion class in each grade level. In Grades 3 through 5, there are two classes identified as inclusion classrooms.

The English language learner program consists of 169 students. Services include either the pull-out or support facilitation model. The pull-out ELL model is designated for non-English speakers. The ELL teachers provide 90-minute language arts instruction in the resource classrooms. Students receiving support facilitation remain in the general education classroom. It is the responsibility of the general education teacher to provide instruction in all subject areas with the support from the ELL teacher.

The vision and mission of this elementary school is found in the school improvement plan, as it is committed to excellence and preparation of all students with the knowledge, skill and ethics required for academic success and responsible citizenship. To fulfill this vision and mission, the school has staffed one principal, one assistant principal, two school counselors, one intern school counselor, one Supplemental Academic Instruction (SAI) teacher, one reading coach, on math-science coach, one Learning Team Facilitator (LTF), one Instructional Technical Support Assistant (ITSA), one media clerk, two prekindergarten teachers, twelve Exceptional Student Education paraprofessionals, two English Language Learner teachers, one English Language Learner coordinator, two English Language Learner facilitators, one Exceptional Student Education coordinator, three Varying Exceptionalities (VE) teachers, five Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD) teachers, two Intellectually Disabled (IND) teachers, one Behavior Intervention Associate (BIA), five speech and language pathologists, thirty-one general education teachers, three fine arts teachers, one full-time school nurse, one full-time school psychologist, four office staff, six food service staff, five custodians, and aftercare staff.

The researcher has worked in the school district site for 25 years, teaching elementary education. Her first teaching position was a short-term interim position where she taught K-5 Spanish. The following year, she was hired at a different school to teach kindergarten and remained there for 10 years. In 1998, she transferred to a different school to teach kindergarten and first-grade ELL for 6 years followed by eight years of teaching first-grade, seven of those years have been the inclusion model. For the 2013-2014 school year, the researcher transferred to her current school where the study was

conducted.

The classroom where the study will take place consists of exceptional students, English language learners, and general education students. Support services is provided to students identified as Exceptional Student Education students that includes speech and language therapy in the resource room and/or support facilitation provided in the classroom; in addition to, support services from the Exceptional Student Education teacher. Individual Education Plans outline the amount of minutes a student must receive weekly services for speech and language therapy and instruction. Students identified as English language learners receive daily support facilitation from the English language learner teacher as well as instruction from the researcher, who has an English Language Learner Endorsement.

A school's Title 1 designation is based on students who receive free or reduced lunches. At the target school, 90.1% of the students receive free and/or reduced lunches qualifying the school for Title 1 services. The federal government allocates funds to the target school for the purpose of professional development, purchasing of supplemental materials, and supplies to meet the needs of the school. Classrooms have been supplied with leveled readers (i.e., used for guided reading instruction), resources to supplement the reading program, and Reading Workshop training and Writing Workshop training for teachers. Lastly, teachers continue to receive professional development on (a) daily responses (e.g., journaling), (b) Teaching With the Brain in Mind, and (c) analyzing student data.

Audience

This study is important to the target elementary school as a whole because of the

legal implications, as well as, the professional responsibilities of educating all students regardless of their differences. Legally, students with disabilities must be educated in the least restrictive environment (LRE) along side their non-disabled peers (Turnball, Stowe, & Huerta, 2007). On the professional aspect, teachers and administrators are responsible to educate all students in many areas: academics, social and physical development, and emotional development. In A Blueprint for Reform: U.S. Department of Education (2010), President Obama states that it is the shared responsibility of teachers and administrators to deliver world-class education to the nation's children.

School administrators and teachers were concerned with the high number of incoming first-grade students scoring substantially below grade level standards. Students performing six months or more below grade level are placed on a Pupil Monitoring Plan (PMP) and receive 30 minutes of immediate intensive intervention (Triple I). Struggling learners are referred to the School Based Team (SBT). Data is then collected weekly as progress is monitored closely during the immediate intensive intervention block of instruction. Immediate intensive intervention is continued until the team meets to discuss the case of each specific student. The School Based Team makes educational decisions about the duration and interventions used for tiered-instruction. Response to Intervention (RTI), a three-tiered approach, identifies and supports students with learning needs (National Center for Learning Disabilities: RTI Action Network, 2014). Teachers who implement research-based instruction and interventions also monitor how well the student responds to instruction.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for the purpose and clarity of the study.

Active engagement. Providing an opportunity for students to meaningfully talk and listen, write, read, and reflect on the learning process (Vacca & Vacca, 2008).

Annual yearly progress. The measurement defined by the United States federal No Child Left Behind Act that allows the U.S. Department of Education to determine how every public school and school district in the country is performing academically according to results on standardized tests ("Annual yearly progress," n.d.).

High-stakes tests. Tests given in schools, school districts, or states for accountability purposes that requires students to pass in order to move from one grade to the next or earn a high school diploma (Venn, 2007).

Immediate intensive intervention (Triple I). Additional 30-minutes of intensive research based interventions.

Literature discussion. Interactive discussion related to a read-aloud.

Language impaired. Disorder interfering with communication in one or more basic learning processes that includes phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, or pragmatics (Florida Department of Education, n.d.).

Least restrictive environment (LRE*)*. Educating special education students, as much as possible, in the regular education classroom with the utilization of supplemental aids and services where needed (Wright & Wright, 2006).

Read-aloud approach. Term used for reading literature orally to a whole group (Vacca et al., 2003).

Response to Intervention (RTI). A multi-tier approach to the early identification and support of student learning using high quality instruction and research-based interventions (Wright & Wright, 2006).

Interactive read-aloud approach. The term used for reading literature orally and engaging in the experience by taking an active role in the discussion around the text (Vacca et al., 2003).

No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). A federally mandated program requiring all public schools to demonstrate annual yearly progress on standardized test.

Reading Workshop. The term used to teach reading during a designated block of instruction.

Writing Workshop. The term used to teach writing during a designated block of instruction.

Vocabulary-building skills. Linguistic skills that students use to construct word meaning based on context clues (Vacca et al., 2003).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to determine whether the *interactive read-aloud* approach coupled with literature discussion will expand students use of oral language through story retelling, improve reading comprehension, expand vocabulary, and participation levels for 6 to 8 year old students with language impairments and literacy problems who performed below grade level standards on the Fountas and Pinnell (2012) Benchmark System 1: Oral Language Assessment (OLA) and Comprehension Conversation. Fountas and Pinnell (1996) stressed the importance of text selection and by immersing students to a variety of well-chosen text will not only foster reading enjoyment, but also students will learn written language. Through this influential experience, students begin to learn about literary elements and they can begin to apply these elements in their own reading. As educators, involving students in a productive

interactive read-aloud literature discussion around high-quality text will foster comprehension abilities, expands vocabulary, and learn about constructing written text (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006). By taking an active role in learning, students begin to apply what they learn and use new knowledge to independent work.

Wiseman (2012) reported that engaging young learners in an *interactive read aloud* experience could enhance learning, in turn, developing comprehension strategies and self-perception as readers. Conversation surrounding text that engages, motivates, and builds meaning for struggling readers supports reading development. Incorporating teacher-led modeling and open-ended responses allows students to take an active role in learning. According to Serravallo (2010), within the Teachers College Reading and Writing Project contains an explanation that the purpose of the *interactive read-aloud* is to allow students an opportunity to interact with the text, with the teacher, and with their peers. This experience provides support that models the process of thinking about books independently during independent reading, and for the type of interaction students should do when they turn and talk to their reading partner.

This study will provide the elementary teachers of the school district with information useful for several purposes. Teachers will become better informed as to how this intervention will help students improve in their reading skills. The teachers, reading coaches, and administrators will also understand how effective the interactive read-aloud and literature discussions may affect the overall reading instruction. This suggests that changes or adjustments in this program may ultimately improve the school climate, increase student achievement, enhance collaboration between the reading coaches and teachers, and increase parental involvement in their children's reading.

Organization of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 includes the following: background and justification, problem statement, setting, audience, definition of terms, purpose of study, and organization of the study. Chapter 2 encompasses a review of the literature as it relates to the theoretical framework, reading performance in a Title 1 school, students with special education needs, interactive read-aloud, five components of reading, Fountas & Pinnell Benchmark System 1, and the research questions. Chapter 3 illustrates the description of the methodology used in this study. Chapter 4 depicts the analysis of the data and results of the research conducted. In Chapter 5, there is a decision of results of conclusions and recommendations of future studies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

It is well-known in research that reading to children makes a profound difference in early literacy development (Gough, 1996; Mol, Bus, & de Jong, 2009; Santoro, Chard, Howard, & Baker, 2008). For many children, their first early literacy encounter was introduced to them before they were developmentally capable of learning to read. Not only were these children given a strong foundation for becoming lifelong readers, they experienced the joy and pleasure of reading, which in turn builds vocabulary, comprehension, background knowledge, critical thinking skills, and listening skills (Furtado, 2008; Hall & Williams, 2010; Santoro et al., 2008). However, not all children are provided the same experience due to institutional barriers and family structures, values, and beliefs. As educators, children from all socioeconomic levels are enrolled in the school classrooms year after year; it is the educator's responsibility to provide them with the best education possible to meet their individual learning needs. One way to do this is by exposing young children to high quality text across different genres, and by providing an opportunity for them to take an active role in their learning (Furtado, 2008).

In some school districts, due to state and federal policies-mandates, educators are forced to follow a particular curriculum that does not allow flexibility. Based on this philosophy, educators must follow the letter of the law, than the spirit of the law. Therefore, infusing effective read-aloud activities across the curriculum benefit students in many ways when taught explicitly (Hall & Williams, 2010; Santoro et al., 2008). The interactive read-aloud approach has the potential to build understanding and meaning of text and increase literacy development (Furtado, 2008; Hall & Williams, 2010; Santoro et

al., 2008). Teachers who use a variety of teaching materials, such as fiction and nonfiction books, poems, book chapters, and articles have the ability to enhance learning. Oueini, Bahous, and Nabhani (2008) reported that the interactive read-aloud develops concepts of print, story structure, story elements, and information on the process and functions of written language.

For many children, parents were their first teachers. In addition, children learned the power of language through social interaction with family and friends. Karpov and Haywood (1998) inferred that "adults teach these tools to children in the course of their joint (collaborative) activity" (p. 27). These children begin their elementary schooling with background knowledge and early literacy skills that were already in place. However, not all children begin school with the same skills and abilities. In today's classrooms, much diversity is present. As educators, we are faced with accommodating students of varying intellectual abilities and backgrounds.

Over the years, the researcher observed how students with language impairments generally withdrew from social and classroom conversations due to their inabilities to communicate effectively. Researchers from McKay School of Education (2014) studied the importance of how children with specific language impairments interact with their peers. They determined that children need to have communication and interaction; "the study of pragmatics in children would naturally lead to the consideration of social outcomes" (McKay School of Education, 2014, para. 3). The researcher wants to determine whether interactive read-aloud approach, coupled with literature discussions, will enhance story retelling, reading comprehension, vocabulary, and participation levels for first-grade students with language impairments.

In this chapter, the researcher presents information on reading research. The researcher summarizes the key topics relevant to reading strategies that improve reading comprehension. This review is divided into six main sections: Theoretical Framework, Reading Performance in Title 1 Schools, Student With Special Education Needs, Interactive Read-Aloud, Five Components of Reading, and Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1.

Theoretical Framework

In the Vygotskian Theory, students are provided intellectual interaction through scaffolding approach that enhances learning more quickly than they could without the intervention (Vygotsky, 1978). This intervention, defined as best practices in education today, guides learning through modeling and cognitive development, while building repertoire of knowledge and understanding in students.

Flint (2010) introduced the Vygotskian and Transactional Reading theories; two approaches that promote literacy and learning. Flint reported that social interactions between teacher-student, student-student, and literary transactions combined with interactive read-aloud and buddy reading, promoted literacy. Three themes, taught in *interactive read-aloud*, evolved from the research that implemented a partner reading strategy that (a) scaffolds learning, (b) makes connection to construct meaning, and (c) uses *play* as a type of social interactive and motivational approach (Flint, 2010). Flint concluded that the Vygotskian approach combined with Transactional Reading theory is reliable approach that can potentially promote literacy through social interaction, expand reader-author-text-partner transactions, and invite motivational play into learning. Further, Flint stated that buddy reading benefits the reader in all aspects of literacy by

making meaning to text; the research revealed that more learning occurred utilizing this framework compared to independent reading practices.

Gromko's (2005) research supports Jerome Bruner's theory based on cognitive development, as he believes children form concepts through active experience involving the whole child. Gromko focused on two groups of kindergarten students from two different schools (i.e., control group, treatment group). Advanced music-methods was taught to the treatment group for three months; whereas, the control group did not receive music instruction. The instruction of music involved students to learn a new song that was accompanied by simple body percussion or kinesthetic movement. According to Gromko, (2005, p. 203), "the body percussion reinforced the perception of steady beat, word rhythms, or high, low, higher, and/or lower pitches. The kinesthetic movements were dance-like and helped children organize their perceptions of musical sound in time and space." Gromko's 2005 results support his hypothesis that "active music-making and the association of sound with developmentally appropriate symbols may develop cognitive processes similar to those needed for segmentation of a spoken word into its phonemes" (p. 199).

Gromko's research aligns with Howard Gardner's theory of Multi-Intelligences, which allows students to learn and demonstrate their knowledge using multiple forms of intelligence. This hands-on learning approach focuses on their diverse learning needs (Jones & Jones, 2010). It was determined that students who received music instruction on phonemic awareness showed significantly greater gains in development of phonemic segmentation fluency when compared to students who did not receive music instruction.

McCarthy (2008) and Griffith and Olson (2004) reported that Elkonin boxes help teach phonemic awareness, a powerful predicator of later reading achievement, by segmenting words into phonemes, syllables, or sounds to struggling readers. Elkonin boxes, combined with of a kinesthetic aspect to an auditory process, can help young readers visually segment words into individual phonemes. Scaffolding learning helps students become more adept at manipulating the phonemes in words; in addition to, a better understanding of the alphabetic principal in decoding and spelling (McCarthy, 2008). Through this hands-on approach of kinesthetic experience, students are capable of identifying and categorizing sounds, blending sounds to form words, deleting or adding sounds to form words, and substituting sounds to make new words.

Reading Performance in a Title 1 School

According to the U.S. Department of Education (2004), the purpose of Title 1 funding, "is to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high quality education and reach, at minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments" (p. 1). Schools with large concentrations of low income students receive supplemental funds to assist in meeting educational goals to improve curriculum, instructional activities, counseling, parental involvement, increase staff, and program improvement. For schools to qualify for Title 1 funding, a minimum of 40% of students must enroll in the free and reduced lunch program. Schools must spend funds on programs that benefit low income students who are failing, or are at-risk of failing, grade level requirements.

The principles behind Title 1, is that schools utilize funds to assist in meeting student's educational goals. The study site is a Title 1 elementary school. The language

impaired students in this study are performing below grade level standards and are not attaining passing scores on the Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment of the Fountas and Pinnell (2012) Benchmark System 1, as well as, comprehending text across content areas.

Student With Special Education Needs

Teachers nationwide have commonly used differentiated instruction to meet the needs of learners. According to Conderman and Hedin (2011), developing individualized strategies help compensate for students' weaknesses that are crucial to fit into multiple learning environments. Students with special education needs (e.g., language impairments) require instruction to be modified in order to meet their diverse learning needs. Conderman and Hedin noted that students with learning disabilities might be slower to develop and use cognitive strategies compared to general education students. Utilizing cue cards can foster instructional support to help students develop and maintain independence with challenging materials as well as classroom expectations. According to Conderman and Hedin, cue cards offer support ranging from *steps only*, to *visual support*, to more complex *think sheets*. Further, research supports utilizing cue cards as an instructional strategy to evidence-based practices benefiting students with learning disabilities (i.e., students with language impairments) (Conderman & Hedin, 2011).

Curenton (2011) explained Bruner's theory of two-story landscapes as a framework that provides for synchronized skills of what is described as the action landscape and the consciousness landscape. The action landscape describes *what* has happened in the text and the consciousness landscape applies a higher thinking skill that offers an explanation as to *why* something happened. Curenton stated that the action

landscape only includes information about events; whereas, the consciousness landscape goes deeper to include "interpretations on protagonist's thoughts, motives, internal states, and social perspective" (p. 791).

In the study conducted by Curenton (2011), students 5 years of age, created narratives that included the characters' internal psychological states (i.e., motives and intentions), had higher cognitive skills. Curenton explained that theory of mind literature is the ability to comprehend psychological information, which reflects a child's overall advanced social-cognitive skill. The results indicated that students' narrative productions were more complex and improved by first-grade. Just as students' narrative abilities relate to cognitive ability, students' language and emergent literacy skills also relate to cognitive ability (Curenton, 2011). Curenton mentioned that evidence of age-related trends in students' narrative productions seemed to correlate to a child's memory skills as well as social-cognitive skills.

Language impaired students. There are many kinds of speech and language disorders that can affect children. Articulation, fluency, voice, and language are four major areas in which impairments occur. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act defines speech and language impairments as follows: "Speech or language impairment means a communication disorder, such as stuttering, impaired articulation, a language impairment, or a voice impairment, that adversely affects a child's educational performance" (U.S. Department of Education, n.d., para. 11). Hence, speech and language disorder refers to abnormal language development and tends to vary depending upon the type of impairment involved.

Articulation impairment refers to difficulty in producing certain sounds. Children

with articulation disorders tend to leave off, add, change, or distort sounds making it hard for people to understand the child. For example, young children may substitute a "w" sound for an "r" sound, as is in the word "rabbit" would be pronounced as "wabbit" or may leave off the first letter in a word as in "nana" for "banana." Fluency impairment refers to abnormal rate of communication, which affects the natural flow of speech. Speech is interrupted by sounds, syllables, and words that are repeated, prolonged, or avoided. Voice impairment refers to the absences of or abnormal voice quality such as high pitch, resonance, loudness, or duration. Students with language impairments experience a breakdown in communication as characterized are problems receptive and expressive language processing where understanding is affected.

The students from this study had deficits in comprehension, production, and use of language hindering their overall academic progress. Additionally, participation and general motivation level was limited. Typically, following directions and maintaining attention to task is problematic for students with language impairments, resulting in poor social functioning (Armstrong, 2011). Students who are left untreated are at a great risk of lifelong problems damaging the quality of life. Further, students with language impairments face myriad challenges potentially affecting the development of academic and communication skills (Armstrong, 2011).

Interactive Read-Aloud

According to Wiseman (2011/2012), the *interactive read-aloud* provides an opportunity for modeling and scaffolding comprehension strategies that builds understanding around open-ended responses. This approach allows students to engage in a literature discussion that builds on strengths, extends background knowledge, and

fosters critical thinking. Instruction focused around *interactive read-aloud* builds comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, and language skills. Worthy, Chamberlain, Peterson, Sharp, and Shih (2012) stated that a literature discussion around text entitles students to practice language; develop and contribute thoughts, opinions and feelings; and, respect different perspectives. Further, *read-aloud* approach probes students' understanding of story features in an interactive literary conversation (van der Pol, 2012). Furthermore, information about how stories are organized and interpretations of stories are derived from discourse around the text targeting the improvement of inferential comprehension abilities in students (Wiseman, 2011).

Wiseman (2011) viewed the transactional approach maintains that students must collaborate in open-ended conversations that connect their background and experiences to making complex connections. This pedagogical method provides learners a higher level of understanding, which in turn, is conducive for cognitive development. It has been found to support oral language development as well as provide students an opportunity to learn conventions of text leading to independent reading (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007; Wiseman, 2011). Additionally, confirming, modeling, extending, and building meaning are ways that knowledge is constructed orally and interactively (Wiseman, 2011). Wiseman (2011/2012) added that *interactive read-aloud* increases active engagement, which in turn, has been proven to increase academic performance as well as, increase self-perception and motivation.

Reading alone is not enough for developing listening comprehension and oral vocabulary development. Students with language impairments demonstrate an inability to expressive themselves effectively. McGee and Schickedanz (2007) found that actively

immersing students to ask and answer questions about text and make predications, improves reading comprehension, oral vocabulary, and story schema. Furthermore, analytical talk that involves students to make predications and inferences about characters' motivation and feelings or making connections to events, have been found to be effective read-aloud technique (McGee & Schickedanz, 2007).

Vocabulary intervention. According to Pollard-Durodola et al. (2011), children from economically disadvantaged homes enter school with variations in vocabulary knowledge levels compared to their counterparts. Shared-book reading intervention enhances vocabulary skills for children at risk for vocabulary delay. Pollard-Durodola et al. noted that vocabulary practices and shared book-reading interventions for at-risk children both include instruction that restructures vocabulary tasks to facilitate processing, and strengthen and develop knowledge. The researchers found that explicit vocabulary instruction, frequent exposure to vocabulary, and integrations of definitional and contextual approaches were effective interventions for building vocabulary (Pollard-Durodola et al., 2011).

Comprehension strategies. According to Certo, Moxley, Reffitt, and Miller (2010), students' perception of literature circles revealed that (a) small-group peer-led literature discussions were enjoyable, (b) writing before and after enhanced literature discussions, and (c) peers used responses to literature and comprehension strategies. Certo et al. concluded that incorporating literature circles into daily instruction (a) evokes excitement about reading and discussion among students of all grade levels and abilities, (b) results in all students recognizing and articulating the relationship between written text and oral discourse, and (c) engages students in group literature discussions while

learning about responses to literature and comprehension strategy use.

According to Martinez and Roser (2008), primary-grade students have a limited repertoire of strategies to comprehend text. The importance of teaching self-regulating behavior, especially to beginning and struggling readers, is imperative. Understanding written text can be improved by what readers know about their own cognition and how to construct meaning. Readers who are able to self-regulate, utilize and modify learning strategies. Martinez and Roser mentioned there is limited research pertaining to metacognitive strategies on primary-grade students. Further, Martinez and Roser reported that strategic control over comprehension might develop early in young readers who have been exposed to more advanced literacy activities, such as interactive read-aloud.

Englert and Mariage (1990) promoted a structured lesson dialogue as another strategy for developing reading comprehension performance of at-risk students similar to a literature discussion. They suggested using the POSSE procedure, which stands for P-predict what the story will be about, O-organize your thoughts, S-search for the structure, S-summarize the main idea, and E-evaluate by asking a question about the main idea, compare, clarify, and predict (Englert & Mariage, 1990). Although teachers use this method in many forms, students can take on the role leading discussion about the text through the use of these five strategies.

Building oral language skills. There has been significant research on early intervention programs recognizing that the development of decoding skills should be accompanied by fostering oral language skills (Brand, 2006). In 2009, Kendeou, Broek, White, and Lynch reported that the relative contributions of oral language skills on developing early reading comprehension have been contradictory. Some research

emphasizes that oral language skills are not significant to early reading comprehension, and on the contrary, other findings suggest the importance of oral language skills in early reading comprehension (Brand, 2006; Hulme & Snowling, 2011; Wiseman, 2011). In 2006, Brand explained that oral language skills that include vocabulary knowledge, grammatical understanding and usage, and story retelling skills are important skills that are predictors of reading success.

Rader (2010) stressed that learning to read may be a daunting and difficult task for students with speech and language problems as well as teachers. This may be reduced by including opportunities for students to reflect on ways they use language to visualize words. Rader explained that oral language development might be the key element for struggling learners to attain reading competencies. Background knowledge and experiences with language, books, and the world help learners develop meaning and increase their oral language skills. Rader noted that providing students an opportunity to engage in retelling stories should be a key component to reading instruction, especially to language-learning disabled students. Teachers gain insight into students' level of learning and areas of deficiencies with utilizing this instructional model. Visual imagery has been proven to be an effective element for successful retell and has improved reading comprehension (Rader, 2010). Therefore, instruction should be tailored around students' individual leaning needs in order for learning to be attained (International Reading Association, 2000).

Five Components of Reading

  Phonemic Awareness. To begin, it is important to understand the slight difference between phonological awareness verses phonemic awareness; they are used

interchangeably in the teaching field. According to Spencer, Schuele, Guillot, and Lee (2008, p. 512), "phonological awareness is a broad term that relates to the ability to analyze the sound structure of language; whereas, phonemic awareness is related to those aspects of phonological awareness directly associated with the manipulation of individual sound." Therefore, phonemic awareness indicates the ability to analyze (e.g., segment) by hearing, identifying and manipulating individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken words (Spencer, Schuele, Guillot, & Lee, 2008). Blending (combining sounds) and segmenting (separating sounds) are phonological skills that are necessary for learning and strategies such as; *Rubber Band* strategy, *Talking Like a Ghost* strategy, and *Say It Very, Very Slowly* then *Say It Fast* can be effective in developing early literacy (Perez, 2008). For instance, these strategies help readers hear the sounds in order to make a word. Researchers have found that students who have weak phonological awareness are likely to have weak reading skills (Spencer, Schuele, Guillot, & Lee, 2008).

According to McGee and Ukrainetz (2009), curricula did not provide educators with techniques for providing feedback to students when they failed to perform a given task such as the manipulation of phonemes. In addition, using the scaffolding technique for example, in Elkonin boxes, as a means of providing feedback to students to complete a task they could not complete independently ensured students' understanding through this guided approach. Teachers may provide differentiated instruction altering the level of support until each student can perform isolated tasks without scaffolding.

In 2009, McGee and Ukrainetz posit there is three levels of support educators may provide through scaffolding: intense, moderate, minimal, and none. In addition, having a system of organization based on a gradient of difficulty when implementing Elkonin

sound boxes was highly recommended. The objective would be for students to participate in a progression of tasks requiring them to perform at a high level of proficiency without the need of scaffolding.

Spencer, Schuele, Guillot, and Lee (2008) suggest that phonemic awareness focuses on sound units called phonemes, while phonics focuses on the association to the written symbol; therefore, students need to acquire phonemic awareness skills before phonics. Additionally, as reported in this research, several groups of educators ranging from speech-language pathologists, kindergarten teachers, first-grade teachers, reading teachers, and special education teachers participated in an evaluation measuring and comparing their phonemic awareness skill. The results indicated the speech-language pathologists demonstrated outstanding performance on the measure of phonemic awareness skill when compared to the other educators. However, the overall performance of the other educators was comparable to one another. Therefore, based on this study, one would imply the collaboration of all educators would be most beneficial to impact the instructional interventions and success of students.

Effective instruction and strategies that can be interwoven into literacy pieces to teach phonemic awareness would lead children to play with sounds through rhyme and rhythm in poetry and music. Such strategies would be rhyming, alliteration, sound blending, sound segmentation, sound manipulation, sound isolation, and sound matching. Research proves that sound awareness can be developed by reciting nursery rhymes and poems, substituting sounds, naming words that begin with the same sound, and listening to stories (Perez, 2008). Teaching onsets and rimes can be developed through nursery rhymes. Once students have mastered the common onsets, teachers can introduce rimes

(i.e., ay, ill, ip, at, am etc.) followed by consonant digraphs.

 Phonics. Phonological awareness training along with letter-sound instruction improved word decoding. Providing intensive instruction in phonological and phonemic awareness was reported to strengthen these skills, preventing reading disabilities. Differentiated reading instruction focusing on phonics instruction was reported to ensure success as educators modified pacing and instruction while making adjustments as students acquired new skills and strategies. In the research conducted by Walpole and McKenna (2007), educators used a systematic phonics approach where children were taught to analyze the letters in a word and make individual sounds in sequence, and blending them together to make the word. Students learned individual sounds in various positions (i.e., at the beginning, middle, end of word) as guided instruction supported their level. The researchers described simple procedures that teachers could use to provide differentiated instruction (Walpole & McKenna, 2007).

 Research by Campbell, Helf, and Cooke (2008) mentioned that in addition to explicit, systematic phonics, research findings suggested that students with strong phonological awareness typically learned to read more readily. It was indicated that children who failed at early reading began to dislike reading and read less than stronger readers. Using systematic, explicit phonics and phonemic awareness instruction served as a foundation for primary reading instruction. It was noted in this research that teachers have the capability for preventing reading difficulties for at-risk readers by increasing instruction intensity and requiring students to spend more time engaged in reading on his or her independent level where students would not feel frustrated.

 According to Campbell, Helf, and Cooke (2008, p. 269), "The majority of the

existing research on multi-sensory instruction has been published by The International

Dyslexia Foundation, founded in memory of Samuel Orton, the recognized father of

multi-sensory instruction." The outcome of the multi-sensory studies concluded that there

are positive effects within multi-sensory treatments. Furthermore, Campbell et al.

mentioned two current supplemental programs including the Wilson Reading System and

LANGUAGE! as multi-sensory instructional programs. Therefore, the multi-sensory

component included students to trace words with their index finger, trace words using a

pencil or crayon over a screen while saying sounds, and repeating this process while

saying the word fast. Results indicated that word reading increased with this kinesthetic,

multi-sensory instructional approach. Therefore, the most effective course of action for

the prevention of learning disabilities in reading is the early identification and treatment

in reading as mentioned by Menzie, Mabdavi, and Lewis (2008).

Vocabulary. Students who have an enriched vocabulary have a better chance of

comprehending written text and achieving oral language. Vocabulary serves as a

fundamental tool to communicate effectively. Readers are not capable to comprehend text

without understanding the meaning of words. As children are exposed to more complex

texts, they will need to learn the new vocabulary to ensure understanding of written text.

Therefore, reading is a process of getting meaning from print. Researchers often refer to

four types of vocabulary: listening vocabulary, speaking vocabulary, reading vocabulary,

and writing vocabulary (Ambruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2006).

Vocabulary taught in Reading and Integrated Literacy Strategies (RAILS)

program, an integrated approach to early reading, provided students with explicit

instruction with the focus of concept development (Stevens et al., 2008). This literacy

program was designed to provide effective, explicit reading instruction by focusing on word reading, vocabulary development, comprehension, and fluency. Vocabulary was taught explicitly from the context of stories students were going to read and during listening or reading comprehension lessons. From each story read, two to three vocabulary words were selected. Criteria for selecting these were: " (a) children were unlikely to know the meaning of the word, (b) the meaning of the word played an important part in understanding the story, and (c) the relationship between the part of the text in which the word appeared and elements of the narrative structure" (Stevens et al., 2008, p. 362). In addition, the balanced literacy instructional program also provides students with a rich literacy experience as vocabulary is taught in a direct and explicit approach (Menzies, Mahdavi, & Lewis, 2008).

Comprehension. In 2008, Menzies, Mahdavi, and Lewis reported that there is substantial body of research validating that the balanced literacy program has the potential to prevent reading difficulties in young readers. The balanced literacy program consists of whole language and phonics instruction while integrating all aspects of literacy: reading, vocabulary, oral language development skills, writing, spelling, and grammar. Balanced literary instruction can be done in a small and/or whole group setting through shared reading, read-aloud, guided reading instruction, and independent reading. The setting for this study utilizes the balanced literary instruction incorporating all components in the reading workshop block of instruction.

Enhancing early literacy development can be the first step as suggested by McNair (2007) where an active role on the part of the learner in addition to the learning, occurs when students make connections between new concepts and existing experiences

and knowledge. According to McNair, incorporating the social constructivist theory into practice, as mentioned in this research, enables a student-centered environment where topics are geared towards students' interests. A way to accomplish this is to build upon what young learners already know, for example, their name. This alone is a motivator within itself as students explore new concepts through the exposure of this literature-based approach.

Menzies, Mahdavi, and Lewis (2008) recognized the difficulty educators faced implementing such a reading program. In their research, it was suggested that instruction must be focused and comprehensive, requiring teachers to accurately assess students' needs. The assessments would provide data where educators would be able to plan their instruction accordingly, and follow through with the implementation of the lesson. Furthermore, researchers mentioned the balanced literacy approach utilized read-aloud, shared reading, guided reading, and independent reading; making reading accessible at an earlier age while encouraging students in the reading and writing process (Menzies, Mahdavi, & Lewis, 2008).

According to Adomat (2009), actively engaging students in stories through drama enhances the child's own experiences, opinions, and feelings through literature discussions. Literacy understanding depends on a reader's engagement with stories through involvement and interpretation of story elements: character, setting, and thematic possibilities. "A multimodal approach to literary understanding takes into account the whole range of modes involved in meaning making, such as speech, writing, image, gesture, music, and other" (Adomat, 2009, p. 629). Drama can be woven in the presentation of interactive read-aloud picture books or shared readings as students take

the spotlight. Role-play, hot-seating/interviewing, and tableaus, were the techniques used in the story drama. Students reflected after completing the drama work through discussion and writing (Adomat, 2009).

> Building literary understanding through drama offered opportunities for students to use their strengths to create multilayered and rich understanding of stories-analyzing, developing, and transforming textual elements through taking multiple character roles, being active agents of creating meaning by bringing their own interests, wants, and needs into the process, and expanding their perspectives through the social negotiations and multiple viewpoints that were expressed in the drama work. (Adomat, 2009, p. 635)

According to Brand (2006, p. 134), "when a systematic, phonics-based approach is combined with a meaning and literature-based, multiple intelligence approach, children are afforded opportunities to make emotional connections to the texts and activities. Such connections facilitate children's attention span, memory, processing skills, and comprehension." Integrating Howard Gardner's eight areas of multiple intelligences, in a systematic and structured, yet creative delivery, is the key to developing significant learning gains. Brand believed that the use of trade book stories was used in a way to incorporate the eight areas of multiple intelligences.

Brand (2006, p. 134) states, "specifically, the storytelling methods include chant (enlisting musical and linguistic intelligence); felt board and draw talk (enlisting visual-spatial, mathematical, and naturalistic intelligences); pantomime and character imagery (enlisting bodily-kinesthetic and naturalistic intelligences); group role play (enlisting intrapersonal, interpersonal, and musical intelligences); and puppetry (enlisting visual-spatial and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences)." Along side the eight areas of multiple intelligences: reading, writing, listening, speaking, and problem-solving activities were integrated in this systematic approach. At-risk students benefited from these activities as

they tackled abstract tasks. This helps these students by getting them actively engaged in their own learning.

Campbell, Helf, and Cooke (2008) mentioned that students are often instructed indirectly by watching and listening to instruction and not actively participating in the lesson. At-risk students have little or less opportunity than higher achieving students to participate in a meaningful discussion. Students should be engaged in conversation after reading text as teachers assess their understanding. Scaffolding provides feedback and guidance to students as well as drives the teacher's instruction while getting at-risk learners involved in instruction (Vygotsky, 1978).

Fluency. Fluency is the ability to read text in an effortless manner while demonstrating speed, accuracy, and expression. Fluent readers gain meaning as they make connections to text and their background knowledge while reading with expression. However, fluency does not ensure comprehension, but comprehension would be difficult without fluency. Therefore, a less fluent reader focuses their attention to sounding out words while reading text in a choppy manner. Reading with automaticity promotes better understanding of text eliminating the daunting task of sounding out each letter to make a word. For example, teachers can model this behavior to demonstrate the flow of language and the message being given to the readers. For students, achieving automaticity in reading is essential not only to become proficient readers, but becoming lifelong learners.

When children learn to read, they learn word recognition rather quickly without much effort. Automaticity is defined as fast, "effortless word recognition that comes with a great deal of reading practice" (Ambruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2006, p. 21). According to these researchers, there are two major instructional approaches educators consider

valuable in their teaching repertoire. The first approach is the repeated and monitored oral

reading, also known as the direct approach. Activities for repeated oral reading practice

may involve student-adult reading, choral reading, tape-assisted reading, partner-peer

reading, and readers' theatre. In this approach, students read passages aloud through

guided instruction as feedback is provided through scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978). The

second approach, students are engaged in independent silent reading known as the

indirect approach. In this approach, students are encouraged to read extensively as this

will improve their oral fluency rate, vocabulary, and comprehension. In order for students

to feel success and not reach the point of frustration, teachers need to provide their

students with text, based on their independent reading level where reading will not be a

labored task.

It is expected that developing readers will learn to read fluently through practice

where reading is faster, smoother, and more expressive. Although readers may recognize

words in isolation, this may not be the case when students are reading the words in

context. Students need direct and explicit instruction through a guided approach, as

research has proven this to be an effective technique (Rupley, Blair, & Nichols, 2009).

Ambruster, Lehr, and Osborn (2006) identify two effective strategies to promote oral

reading fluency. The first strategy is to have students read and reread the same text until

oral reading fluency is demonstrated. The second strategy is to increase the use of

audiotapes, tutors, and peer guidance. For example, poetry helps readers understand

unfamiliar texts and learn vocabulary through repeated readings. Research shows that

repetitive lessons (i.e., teach-reteach) are advantageous to improving the delivery of

lessons in addition to, the interactions between teacher and student (Klein & Wasserstein-Warnet, 2006).

"Students with reading delays in the primary grades must first attain basic fluency in decoding of text before they can efficiently comprehend the meaning of reading passages" (Wright & Cleary, 2006, p. 99). According to Wright and Cleary (2006), a feasible and affordable solution for reading interventions of high quality is an effective cross-age peer-tutoring program. Wright and Cleary found that both tutors and tutees showed improvement in oral reading fluency, while students receiving tutoring made greater gains than did tutors. The research confirmed that cross-age peer tutoring enabled students to spend time reading one-on-one with marginal readers while improving their reading fluency. Wright and Cleary concluded that the peer tutoring program could be implemented in any elementary setting given the procedures developed to organize and run the program is adaptable. It is common knowledge at the school study site that this practice encourages partners to work in a cooperative approach providing support to their counterpart (e.g., buddy reader, partner reader).

By modeling fluent reading, students will learn how expressive reading should sound, as this will help them to understand the written text. Teachers may model fluent reading by using a *big book* in an interactive read-aloud lesson while pointing to each word and pausing after punctuation marks to denote a break in the sentence. Research mentions that children who are identified as poor readers in first-grade are more than likely to remain poor readers in fourth-grade (Griffith & Olson, 2004; Menzies, Mahdavi, & Lewis, 2008). Since reading is known to be a complex endeavor, students need instructional methods that are focused and comprehensive where individual needs are

met.

Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1

According to the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Assessment System 1 Gradient and district standards, students are expected to read at a minimum on Level H as evidence of on-grade level performance by the end of the 2013-2014 school year. Teachers assess students until the student achieves a score of 100% on each Phonics and Word Analysis subtests of the assessment booklet and/or has demonstrated an *independent* and *instructional* reading level on a running reading record. Subtests and/or running reading records are assessed with fidelity, in a one-on-one setting. This assessment tool is used throughout the school district and is ideally for students in kindergarten through second-grade. From a phone conversation with a Heinemann customer service representative (C. Haney, personal communication, April 16, 2014), the researcher was informed that the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 and 2 are utilized by school districts across the United States as well as the following countries: Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. According to the Heinemann publishing website www.heinemann.com, there is information regarding several states and the District of Columbia that utilize the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 and 2. These states are California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Texas. The information illustrates the benchmarks from these states and the District of Columbia and how it aligns to (a) interactive read-aloud and literature discussion; (b) shared and performance reading; (c) oral, visual, and technological communication; (d) writing about the reading; (e) writing; (f) phonics, spelling, and word study; and (g) guided reading.

The Common Core Standards align with the Fountas and Pinnell Continuum of Literacy Learning, PreK-8 (see Table 1).

Fountas and Pinnell (2010) stated, "Like the Common Core Standards, the Continuum addresses the specific goals of helping student actively seek the wide, deep, and thoughtful engagement with high-quality literary and informational texts that build knowledge, enlarges experience, and broadens worldview" (para. 1). The Continuum of Literacy Learning, Grade K-2 is a comprehensive curriculum manual used by educators that names and categorizes the behaviors and understandings students are expected to demonstrate in kindergarten through Grade 2. Grounded in research, this manual provides teachers with an easy to understand visual illustration of goals for literacy. Fountas and Pinnell provide a descriptive list of six critical instructional contexts that can be used in literacy instruction (e.g., interactive read-aloud and literature discussion, shared and performance reading, writing about reading, writing, oral, visual, and technological communication, and phonics, spelling, and word study). Additionally, a description of curricula related areas correlated to the six critical instructional contexts summaries what students need to be able to do as competent readers.

The Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Assessment System 1 requires that teachers record multiple subtests and running reading records in two separate sections of the booklet. The first section, Phonics and Word Analysis Assessment, consists of the following subtests of learning: Oral Language Assessment, Early Literacy Behaviors, Uppercase Letter Recognition, Lowercase Letter Recognition, Phonological Awareness (Blending and Segmenting), 25 High Frequency Words, 50 High Frequency Words, 100 High Frequency Words, Phonograms List #1, Phonograms List #2, Phonograms List #3,

and Phonograms List #4. The purpose of these subtests is to provide a comprehensive understanding of students' linguistic knowledge that forms the foundation to be a proficient reader. Each subtest is assessed separately and the total number of correct responses is recorded. Some subtests, for example require that the student demonstrates 100% mastery before proceeding to the next subtest (e.g., 25 High Frequency Words, 50 High Frequency Words, 100 High Frequency Words, Phonograms List #1, Phonograms List #2, Phonograms List #3, Phonograms List #4).

Table 1

The Alignment Between Common Core Standards and Fountas and Pinnell: The Continuum of Literacy Learning, PreK-8

Standard One – Reading: Literature

Standard Two – Reading: Information Text

Standard Three – Foundational Skills

Standard Four – Writing

Standard Five – Speaking and Listening

Standard Six – Language

Standard Seven – Range, quality, and Complexity: Texts Illustrating the complexity, Quality, and Range of Student Reading

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The second section, Reading Running Records: Fiction and Non-fiction Books, Level A–M is an assessment used to code, score, and analyze a student's oral reading behaviors on running reading records. Running reading records are based on a *cold read*, where students read unfamiliar text in order for teachers to get an accurate and reliable reading level. Student's instructional level, *Comprehension Conversation* score*, Writing*

About the Reading score, and fluency rate are required for identifying and instructing individual needs. To attain an instructional level on Levels A–K, a student is required to score between 90% and 94% accuracy with excellent or satisfactory comprehension (rubric score of 5-7) on the comprehension conversation. If a student scores below this range, then the teacher will administer the lower level book where the instructional level will need to be identified for future instruction, as well as an independent level. The *Comprehension Conversation Assessment* provides information on the student's understanding of the text. The desired outcome of this component is for the student to obtain a rubric score ranging from 5–7 points showing evidence of all understanding expressed with or without prompting. The purpose of *Writing About Reading* is to show evidence of the student's understanding of text in written form. The scoring key is based on a 0–3 point scale: 0 reflects no understanding of text, 1 reflects very limited understanding, 2 reflects partial understanding, and 3 reflects excellent understanding. Student's oral reading fluency is scored beginning with Level C and above. An explanation of the *Fluency Scoring Key* is as follows: 0 represents text read primarily word by word, 1 represents text read primarily in two word phrases with some three and four word groups, 2 represents text read in three or four word phrases, and 3 represents text read in larger, more meaningful phrases or word groups. Without the necessary skills required as a prerequisite to read, students would find it difficult to read a book with fluency.

Oral Language Assessment. Oral Language Assessment requires the student to listen and verbally reproduce a series of 15 sentences without errors. This assessment is broken into three sets of five sentences. The sentence complexity increases as the student

progresses to the next set of sentences in a series of 15 sentences. Each sentence is broken down into two or three phrases. The phrases are bolded for the purpose of chucking while reading. Chucking while reading is a strategy known as reading with the flow and automaticity of a fluent reader. Teachers are to read each sentence pausing after each phrase. This form of sentence reading gives students an understanding of how the English language flows naturally while speaking with expression.

Comprehension Conversation Assessment. The *comprehension conversation* provides teachers with the necessary information required for instructing students on appropriate levels. Students engage in a conversation about the text to demonstrate their understanding. Students recount important details within the text and beyond the text. The desired outcome of the *comprehension conversation* is for the student to obtain a rubric score ranging from 5–7 points showing evidence of all understanding expressed with or without prompting. Students have an option to use the text to guide their retell however the teacher should not provide the copy of the text and/or instruct the student to use the text. Students are free to go back to the text and use illustrations to help with the retell. Using the text in this fashion should not affect the comprehension score.

Research Questions

1. Will the use of modeling and explicit teaching of comprehension strategies during interactive read-aloud improve reading comprehension for students with language impairments on Fountas and Pinnell Comprehension Conversation Assessment?

2. Does active engagement in literature discussions increase performance on the Fountas and Pinnell Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment for students with language impairments?

3. Will vocabulary interventions affect performance on the Oral Language Assessment for students with language impairments?

The methodology discussed in Chapter 3 was designed to answer the research questions. In Chapter 4 the data and analysis are presented to answer the research questions. In Chapter 5 conclusion, discussions, and recommendations for future studies are addressed.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview

This researcher analyzed data from four students' Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 test booklets. The four participants were selected because of their exceptionality as identified on their Individual Education Plan. Data was collected and analyzed from these four students based on their scores from kindergarten to the current school year (i.e., 2013-2014). The researcher analyzed students' data from the kindergarten school year 2012-2013. Ongoing data collection continued during the school year of 2013-2014 while the students were enrolled in first-grade. Educators use this data as a diagnostic tool to monitor progress; whereby, interventions would be implemented to remedy specific learning difficulties.

In this chapter the researcher describes the environment in which the study was conducted, the participants, instrument, design, procedures, and limitations. The data was collected from the school year 2012-2013 and from the school year 2013-2014.

Participants

The four participants were selected in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the effects of the interactive read-aloud coupled with literature discussions to improve comprehension of language impaired first-grade students. The participants made up a small sample size typical for purposeful sampling (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996, p. 217). "In purposeful sampling, the goal is to select cases that are likely to be 'information-rich' with respect to the purposes of the study" (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996, p. 213). Purposeful sampling made it feasible for the researcher to make hypothesis on the effects of interactive read-aloud coupled with literature discussion on students with language

impairments and outlined the findings based on individual performance.

Participants were selected based on their low performance on the Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment. The participants were eligible for special education services and related services during their prekindergarten and kindergarten school years. Their language difficulties impacted their communication and academic progress in the general education classroom.

Case Study 1. This student is a Hispanic male, 6 years of age. It is his second year attending the research site. His primary exceptionality is language impaired. The primary language spoken at home is Spanish, qualifying him for English language learner services.

Case Study 2. This student is an Asian female, 7 years of age. It is her second year attending the research site. Her primary exceptionality is specific learning disabled and her secondary disability is language impaired. The primary language spoken at home is Spanish, qualifying her for English language learner services.

Case Study 3. This student is a White male, 6 years of age. It is his first year attending the research site. His primary exceptionality is language impaired and his secondary disability is speech impaired. The primary language spoken at home is English.

Case Study 4. This student is a Black male, 8 years of age. It is his third year attending the research site. His primary exceptionality is specific learning disabled and his secondary disability is language impaired. The primary language spoken at home is Haitian Creole, qualifying him for English language learner services.

Instrument

The Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 is a comprehensive assessment. This assessment was administered one-on-one, to determine independent and instructional reading levels. Educators report their results on recording forms. These forms reveal a wealth of information regarding students' proficiencies in relation to reading accuracy and self-corrections, comprehension, and fluency. Once a running reading record is administered, all reading elements (i.e., accuracy, self-corrections, comprehension, fluency) are taken into consideration in determining an independent and instructional level, as well as, targeted teaching points.

This assessment tool, Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1, is used throughout the school district and is ideally for students in kindergarten through second-grade. Teachers assess students until she or he achieves a score of 100% on each of the subtests in the assessment booklet and/or has demonstrated an *independent* and *instructional* reading level on a running reading record. Subtests and/or running reading records are assessed with fidelity, as this is essential for instructional purposes. This assessment system was used at the study school site. It required the researcher to record multiple subtests and running reading records in two separate sections of the assessment booklet. The first section is the Phonics and Word Analysis Assessment, which consists of many subtests of learning: Oral Language Assessment, Early Literacy Behaviors, Uppercase Letter Recognition, Lowercase Letter Recognition, Blending and Segmenting, 175 High Frequency Words, and a list of 80 Phonograms. The District of Columbia, along with the following states: California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, and Texas follow the same benchmarks that align with the (a) interactive

read-aloud and literature discussion; (b) shared and performance reading; (c) oral, visual, and technological communication; (d) writing about the reading; (e) writing; (f) phonics, spelling, and word study; and (g) guided reading.

The purpose of these subtests is to provide the researcher with a comprehensive understanding of students' linguistic knowledge; this is the foundation to be a proficient reader. Each subtest was assessed separately as the total number of correct responses must be recorded accordingly. For some of these subtests, students must demonstrate 100% mastery before proceeding to the next subtest (i.e., 25 High Frequency Words, 50 High Frequency Word, 100 High Frequency Words, Phonograms List 1, Phonograms List 2, Phonogram List 3, Phonogram List 4).

The second section, Reading Running Records, consists of Accuracy Rate, Comprehension Conversation, Fluency, and Writing About Reading. Running Reading Records test both fiction and non-fiction books. The researcher utilized Levels A–M as an assessment to code, score, and analyze a student's oral reading behaviors on running reading records. These running reading records are based on a *cold read*, where students read unfamiliar text in order for the researcher to get an accurate and reliable reading level. The researcher focused on the student's instructional level, *Comprehension Conversation* score*, Writing About the Reading* score, and fluency rate for identifying and instructing individual needs. To attain an instructional level on Levels A–K, the students of this study should score between 90% and 94% accuracy with excellent or satisfactory comprehension on the comprehension conversation. If one of these students scored below this range, then the researcher administered the lower level book in order to obtain an accurate instructional and independent level.

The *Comprehension Conversation Assessment* measured the student's understanding of the selection regarding the running reading record. The desired outcome of this component was for the student to obtain a rubric score ranging from 5–7 points showing evidence of all understanding expressed with or without prompting. The researcher used the *Writing About Reading* to show evidence of the student's understanding of text in written form. The scoring key was based on a 0–3 point scale: 0 reflects no understanding of text, 1 reflects very limited understanding, 2 reflects partial understanding, and 3 reflects excellent understanding. Student's oral reading fluency was scored once the student was assessed on a Level C and above. An explanation of the *Fluency Scoring Key* is as follows: 0 represents text read primarily word by word, 1 represents text read primarily in two word phrases with some three and four word groups, 2 represents text read in three or four word phrases, and 3 represents text read in larger, more meaningful phrases or word groups.

Design

This study was conducted as an embedded case study design using a quantitative method for data collection and analysis. The data was collected and analyzed from two consecutive school years (i.e., 2012-2013, 2013-2014). The first research question, using the modeling and explicit teaching of comprehension strategies overtime was explored using a multiple case study design. The second research question examined active engagement in literature discussions and whether is increased student's performance level. The third research question looked at the impact that vocabulary interventions have on performance of language impaired students. Data on the students' overtime (i.e., from kindergarten to first-grade) was collected and analyzed based upon a multiple case study

design. The students' scores were determined using ongoing data collection. Since the overall design was to measure improvement in the four students overtime, no comparison groups were used.

As described by Edmonds and Kennedy (2013), an embedded case study is described as a multiple case study design that will take an in-depth look treating each child as a separate case study. The main focus of this study was to determine where the students were before intervention, during intervention, and finally how they performed with interventions in place. The purposeful sample is nonprobability and is not to generalize the group, but to look at the performance of each individual student.

The A-B design is a two phase, basic signal-subject design (Creswell, 2012; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013). Based on Edmonds and Kennedy, A in the A-B design was the individual student's baseline data point; whereas B, was the data point after the intervention. The researcher observed and measured student data from the kindergarten school year (A); this data was taken from the 2012-2013 school year. The researcher administered the read-aloud intervention, and observed and measured multiple data points after the intervention (B) during the 2013-2014 school year (Creswell, 2012; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013).

Procedures

The Exceptional Student Education teacher was responsible to collect the archival scores from the kindergarten school year 2012-2013. The kindergarten scores were matched to the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 test booklet at which point, the Exceptional Student Education teacher created the case study titles 1, 2, 3, and 4. This created the de-identified sets that masked personal identifiers, such as student names.

The researcher implemented the interactive read-aloud and literature discussion to all students during the Reading Workshop, a balanced literacy instructional block. This instructional model is a school-wide practice at the study site. The Reading Workshop model entails seven units of studies that are designed to assist teachers in preparing students to master reading skills, strategies, and behaviors necessary to become proficient readers who can meet or exceed the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and Next Generation Sunshine State Standards (NGSSS) Tested Benchmarks (SDPBC, Department of Elementary Education, 2013). The seven units of study include (a) Unit 1, Launching Your Reading Life; (b) Unit 2, Readers Make Meaning: Helping Reader Grow Ideas in Books; (c) Unit 3, Nonfiction Reading: Exploring the World Through Books; (d) Unit 4, Understanding Our Books by Acting Them Out and Reading With Expressions; (e) Unit 5, Using Talk as a Tool for Understanding Text; (f) Unit 6, Nonfiction Reading in Science; and (g) Unit 7, Character Study: Meeting Our Favorite Characters and Making Summer Reading Plans. Teachers were provided these units of study approximately two weeks before implementing it. Teachers used student data to support instructional decision-making based on the students' needs. The researcher was responsible to determine the need of her class in general, and develop instruction over a period of 20-25 days per each unit of study. The researcher assessed students' attainment of teaching goals, before, during, and after each unit of study since the beginning of the 2013-2014 school year. This data was used throughout the unit and was adjusted accordingly, for planning future need-based instruction.

Data from the Florida comprehension Assessment Tests 2.0 Reading and Writing (FCAT), district literacy assessments, and the work of the Teachers College Reading

Writing Project's Reading Units of Study, were used for developing the content and design of the units of study. Reading Workshop scripts were provided to each of the teachers at the study site. The researcher used a unit flow lesson plan, a systematic format, to plan instruction based on her observations, turn and talk partnerships, and teacher-student conferences. The researcher planned out each unit to include aspects on the unit flow lesson plan, such as reading goals, teaching points or "mini-lesson," teaching methods (e.g., *demonstration, guided practice, inquiry lesson, get in and out of trouble*), read-aloud text, and shared reading text. The teaching point that the researcher included in her instruction focused on elements of the book, author's style, character development, illustration, vocabulary, setting, connections to self and other books, and other valuable points for teaching reading.

An additional 20 minutes of small group, guided reading instruction was provided to the four students. Instruction was based on student's individual instructional reading level and instructional needs. The researcher analyzed each student's Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1, running reading records to determine reading levels and individual needs as determined by teacher observations and student reading behaviors. The researcher selected appropriate leveled books and planned instruction based on student's needs. Additional reading opportunities using the focus of the mini-lesson from the interactive read-aloud lesson was provided to students during this small group, guided reading instruction to reinforce reading goals.

The researcher provide an additional 20 minutes of instruction in the Triple I intervention block. The researcher developed a rotational block schedule to provide explicit and systematic differentiated instruction in order to meet with groups of 2:1,

student-teacher ratio. The researcher collected data for progress monitoring; this data was used to drive her instruction.

Data Analysis

The data analysis of the subtests provided the researcher with a comprehensive understanding of each student's linguistic knowledge. Each subtest was analyzed separately to show how each student improved based on how they responded to the intervention. Although each student's intervention was looked at individually, they were still placed side by side. By placing each individual's data points side by side, was illustrated in a graphic format in Chapter 4. This data analysis revealed data points overtime for each single person. The researcher looked at the data analysis from each student's Comprehension Conversation assessment to determine the level of understanding. If any student fell below satisfactory level, the researcher analyzed the running reading record coding to determine whether it was reading accuracy or another factor that reflected a low comprehension score.

The researcher also looked at the Oral Language Assessment to interpret the data to inform instruction; this is what the student needed as part of the intervention. Once the raw score was identified, a recommendation was provided based on the student's need. During this analysis stage, the students may require intensive small group intervention in oral language intervention (i.e., Mondo) or oral language reading.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations refer to the restriction in the study over which the researcher has no control. The major limitation of the study is as follows:

1. The study was based on one first-grade class within an elementary school.

Since the collection of data was limited to this one first-grade classroom out of six first-grade classrooms.

    2. Since students were taught from different kindergarten and first-grade teachers, fidelity was questionable regarding the instruction of the interactive read-aloud.

    3. Students' data collection from the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 was administered without fidelity.

    4. The outcomes of this study would be hindered by the students' challenge with expressive language.

Delimitations of the Study

    This study was limited to the population of language impaired students in an elementary first-grade classroom. The researcher did not choose the general education student population of the same classroom of the four language impaired students. Due to the researcher's professional experience while working with these language impaired students, a trend was recognized based upon how language impaired students learn to read; in addition, how they are consistently struggling with comprehension of written text across genres. This has a direct impact concerning performance on the FCAT 2.0 as well as the school grade. The researcher also did not select any of the other first-grade students from the other classes. This decision was based on convenience to focus on a specific group of students where fidelity of instruction would not be problematic. The researcher did not involve other elementary schools in this study because the research site was one of the first four elementary schools within the district to fully implemented the Reading Workshop model and other schools were not as familiar with this model. The researcher believed that other sites would not have the experience, support, and resources as the

research site. The research site was one of the original schools where classroom teachers received training from the individuals of Teacher's College. The Leveled Literacy Intervention is another program developed by Fountas and Pinnell that concentrates on the five reading components. The researcher, who was fully trained while working at another school in Leveled Literacy Intervention, did not use this program at the current school site because of limited access to the program.

Chapter Summary

An A-B design was used in this study to determine the first-grade students' progress through intervention of the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1. The next chapter presents an analysis of the de-identified data collected as well as the intervention regarding each research question. Chapter 3 presented an overview of the research design and methodology that was used in this research case study. The de-identified information of the participants' backgrounds was presented as well as the sample selection and procedures. Primary and secondary analyses to answer the research questions are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis of the data regarding four

independent language impaired students. The data was gathered from a baseline score in

kindergarten, then the intervention of read-aloud and literature discussions of the Reading

Workshop approach as data reflected performance of the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark

System 1. To address the stated problem of the current investigation, three specific

research questions were posed. The first research question investigated the impact of

modeling and explicit teaching of comprehension strategies during interactive read-aloud

coupled with literature discussions for students with language impairments. Furthermore,

active engagement and vocabulary interventions were examined to ascertain the effect on

students with language impairments utilizing the read-aloud and literature discussions

intervention. The researcher gained access to de-identified archival data as well as de-

identified Individual Education Plans of the language impaired students in this study. A

variety of statistical tests were utilized to examine the data provided in order to address

each hypothesis and to analyze the results for statistical significance.

Preliminary Analysis

Case Study 1. According to the de-identified archival data and Individual

Education Plan, this student is a male, 6 years of age. His eligibility date for Exceptional

Student Education services was January 2011. His primary exceptionality is language

impaired. This student receives 60-minutes per week of language therapy as outlined in

his Individual Education Plan. The primary language spoken at home is Spanish,

classifying this student as an English Language Learner. This student receives support

facilitation during the reading block from the English Language Learner teacher.

The de-identified Individual Education Plan revealed this student has three communication goals documented. These goals are (a) increasing receptive language skills at 80% accuracy as measured by the speech language pathologist data collection and observations, (b) increasing vocabulary knowledge and use at 80% accuracy as measured by speech language pathologist data collection and observations, and (c) improving comprehension skills at 80% accuracy as measured by speech and language pathologist data collection and observations.

Case Study 2. According to the de-identified archival data and de-identified Individual Education Plan, this student is a female, 7 years of age. Her primary exceptionality is specific learning disabled; whereas, her secondary exceptionality is language impaired as documented on the Individual Education Plan. She become eligible for specific learning disabled services February 2014. This student received 90-minutes per week of language therapy as outlined in her Individual Education Plan, as well as, support facilitation in the researcher's classroom during the reading and math instructional block. The primary language spoken at home is Spanish, qualifying this student as an English Language Learner. Furthermore, she receives additional support facilitation during the reading block. The English Language Learner teacher provides this service in the researcher's classroom.

Based on the de-identified Individual Education Plan, this student has two curriculum goals for reading and three communication goals that are documented. Her curriculum goals for reading include (a) increasing reading, decoding skills at 80% as measured by class assignments and informal assessments, and (b) increasing reading

comprehension skills at 80% as measured by running reading record and informal assessments. Her communication goals include (a) increasing receptive language skills at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech and language pathologist data collection and observations, (b) increasing expressive vocabulary skills at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech and language pathologist data collection and observations, and (c) improving listening comprehension skills at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech and language pathologist data collection and observations.

Case Study 3. The researcher gained access to the de-identified archival data and de-identified Individual Education Plan. The information revealed that this student is a male, 6 years of age. His eligibility date for Exceptional Student Education services was May 2013. This student's primary exceptionality is language impaired; whereas, his secondary exceptionality is speech impaired. This student receives 90-minutes per week of language therapy as outlined in his Individual Education Plan. This student has one curriculum goal in reading and three communication goals as documented in his Individual Education Plan. His curriculum goals include increasing reading skills and comprehension at 80% as measured by his running reading record and informal assessments. His communication goals includes (a) reducing use of phonological processes for use of cluster simplifications at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech and language pathologist data collection, (b) reducing use of phonological processes for final consonant deletions at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech and language pathologist data collection and observations, and (c) increasing vocabulary knowledge and use at 8 out of 10

opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech and language pathologist data collection and observations.

The Individual Education Plan indicates that this student received a diagnosis of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) in Grade 1 as well as he received one on one counseling services from the Chrysalis Center.

The primary language spoken at home is English. He lives with his maternal grandmother and maternal aunt; records show that these individual's signatures are on the Individual Education Plan. This student receives support facilitation in the researcher's classroom for reading and math from the Exceptional Student Education teacher.

Case Study 4. This student is a male, 8 years of age. His eligibility date for Exceptional Student Education services was February 2013. His primary exceptionality is Specific Learning Disabled. His secondary exceptionality is language impaired. This student receives 90-minutes per week of language therapy as outlined in his Individual Education Plan. The primary language spoken at home is Haitian Creole, qualifying this student as an English Language Learner.

His curriculum goal includes on his Individual Education Plan includes (a) increasing reading, decoding skills at 80% as measured by class assignments and informal assessments. His communication goals on his Individual Education Plan includes (a) improving receptive vocabulary at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech language pathologist data collection and observations, (b) increasing expressive language skills at 8 out of 10 opportunities over a 2 week period as measured by the speech language pathologist data collection and observations, (c) improving listening comprehension skills at 8 out of 10 opportunities as measured by

speech language pathologist data collection and observations. This student receives

support facilitation during the reading and math instructional block. The exceptional

student education teacher provides this service in the researcher's classroom.

Documentation on the de-identified Individual Education Plan indicated that this student

should be wearing glasses daily.

Secondary Analysis

A reading running record from the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 was

administered to each student in the study to determine the student's level of

comprehension within the comprehension conversation assessment. This is the

preliminary action required for defining an accurate instructional and/or independent

reading level. The running reading record is an assessment used to code, score, and

analyze each student's oral reading behaviors based on a *cold read* of an unfamiliar book.

An analysis of running reading record provided the examiner with an accurate and

reliable accuracy rate.

Subsequently each student participated in a comprehension conversation (i.e.,

retell of the story) of the running reading record, revealing his or her level of *within the*

text and *beyond the text* understanding. The students' instructional and independent

reading level was based on the running reading record accuracy rate and the

comprehension conversation score of the leveled book. This analysis helped the examiner

to match each student with appropriately leveled books for guided reading and for

independent reading.

To attain an instructional level on Levels A–K, students must either score

between 90% and 94% accuracy with excellent or satisfactory comprehension (rubric

score of 5-7) on the comprehension conversation or between 95% and 100% accuracy

with limited comprehension (see Table 2). Any student scoring below this range must be

administered the lower level book until the instructional level and comprehension

conversation score is identified. Reading accuracy below 90% reflects a frustrational

level text (see Table 2). On the other hand, any student scoring between 95%-100%

reading accuracy with limited comprehension (rubric score of 4) revealed an independent

reading level (see Table 2).

Table 2

Guide to Graphing Running Record Results Level A-K

Accuracy %	Comprehensive Conversation scores			
	Excellent 6-7	Satisfactory 5	Limited 4	Unsatisfactory 0-3
95-100	Independent	Independent	Instructional	Frustrational
90-94	Instructional	Instructional	Frustrational	Frustrational
Below 90	Frustrational	Frustrational	Frustrational	Frustrational

Table 3 illustrates the Trimester benchmark reading levels and a guideline for

aligning the student progression plan with the report card. Specifically, the guideline

outline levels into three categories: Proficient (PR) demonstrates skill/concept

development that meets grade level standards, Approaching (AP) demonstrates

skill/concept development that is beginning to meet grade level standards, and Needs

Development (ND) demonstrates skill/concept development that is significantly below

grade level standards.

Table 3

Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card

Grade level	Performance code	1st trimester November	2nd trimester February	3rd trimester June
Kindergarten	PR	Emergent –A	B-C	D-E
Kindergarten	AP	Emergent	A-B	C
Kindergarten	ND	Emergent	A-with book introduction	A-B
First grade	PR	F-G	G-H	I-J
First grade	AP	D-E	E-F	G-H
First grade	ND	B-C and below	D and below	F and below

Note. PR = Proficient; AP = Approaching; ND = Needs Development.

Research Question 1. Will the use of modeling and explicit teaching of comprehension strategies during interactive read-aloud improve reading comprehension for students with language impairments on Fountas and Pinnell Comprehension Conversation Assessment?

Case Study 1. The student scored 94% accuracy rate on a Level D running reading record and rubric score of 5 on the comprehension conversation assessment, placing this student on an instructional level (see Table 2). Level D suggests that this student is reading on kindergarten reading level. According to the School District of Palm Beach County (n.d.) Trimester Benchmark Reading Level, Level D reveals that the student is performing significantly below grade level standards for first grade (see Table 3). Based on the de-identified archival data, results are indicative that the interactive

read-aloud improved this student's comprehension conversation score of the running

reading record; however, the performance level suggested that this student's needs

development (ND) in reading (see Table 3).

Compared to previous running reading record assessments and comprehension

conversation scores from de-identified archival data for the 2012-2013 school year, this

student had variations in his performance (excellent, satisfactory, and unsatisfactory

comprehension conversation scores). However, for the 2013-2014 school year, this

student maintained a satisfactory comprehension on Level D and Alternate Level D (see

Table 2). Even though this student performed on a satisfactory level on the

comprehension conversation of Level D, his reading level placed him on a kindergarten

reading (see Table 3).

Case Study 2. The student scored 92% accuracy rate on a Level C running

reading record and rubric score of 5 on the comprehension conversation assessment,

placing this student on an instructional level (see Table 2). Typically, Level C suggests a

kindergarten level. According to the School District of Palm Beach County (n.d.)

Trimester Benchmark Reading Level, Level C suggests that the student is performing

significantly below grade level standards for first grade (see Table 3). Based on the de-

identified archival data, results are indicative that the interactive read-aloud improved this

student's comprehension conversation score of the running reading record; however, the

performance level suggested that this student's needs development (ND) in reading (see

Table 3).

Compared to previous running reading record assessments and comprehension

conversation scores from de-identified archival data for the 2012-2013 school year, this

student performance remained consisted. This student maintained an unsatisfactory comprehension on Level A and limited comprehension on Alternate Level A (see Table 2). For the 2013-2014, the student's comprehension score revealed excellent comprehension on Level B, satisfactory comprehension on Level C, and unsatisfactory comprehension on Level D. On Level D, this student scored below 90% on reading accuracy suggesting that is was a frustrational level.

Case Study 3. The student scored 93% accuracy rate on a Level H running reading record and rubric score of 5 on the comprehension conversation assessment, placing this student on an instructional level (see Table 2). According to the School District of Palm Beach County (n.d.) Trimester Benchmark Reading Level, Level H suggests that the student is almost meeting grade level standards for first grade (see Table 3). Based on the de-identified archival data for the 2013-2014 school year, results are indicative that the interactive read-aloud improved this student's comprehension conversation score of the running reading record.

Compared to previous running reading record assessments and comprehension conversation scores from de-identified archival data for the 2012-2013, this student performance was consistent. Specifically, this student maintained a satisfactory comprehension (rubric score of 5) on Level A, excellent comprehension (rubric score of 6) on Level B and Level B Alternate. However, this student scored unsatisfactory on only one level, Level C (rubric score of 3) (see Table 2). For the 2013-2014, this student comprehension conversation scores revealed satisfactory performance on all levels: Level C Alternate, Level D, Level E, Level F, Level G, and Level H.

Case Study 4. The student scored 92% accuracy rate on a Level A Alternate

running reading record and rubric score of 7 on the comprehension conversation assessment, placing this student on an instructional level (see Table 2). According to the School District of Palm Beach County (n.d.) Trimester Benchmark Reading Level, Level A Alternate suggests that the student is performing significantly below grade level standards for first grade (see Table 3). Based on the de-identified archival data, results are indicative that the interactive read-aloud improved this student's comprehension conversation score of the running reading record; however, the performance level suggested that this student needs development (ND) in reading (see Table 3).

Compared to de-identified archival data for the 2012-2013 school year, this student's comprehension conversation performance improved by 4 points (see Table 2).

Research Question 2. Does active engagement in literature discussions increase performance on the Fountas and Pinnell Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment for students with language impairments?

Case Study 1. The examiner analyzed data from the de-identified progress report, weekly behavior reports, and data from Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment to answer Research Question 2. Data from the progress reports for October, February, and April of 2013-2014 school year illustrated classroom participation in discussions. Based on these progress reports, the student's participation in classroom discussion revealed an area of concern for October, February, and April. Additionally, data from weekly behavior reports indicated that this student did not engage in daily classroom discussions pointing out an area of concern.

The intention behind the Comprehension Conversation Assessment is for the student to engage in a meaningful conversation that sounds natural. The examiner

recorded this student's behaviors during the Comprehension Conversation Assessment and noted that the student required prompts to enhance the discussion about the book, which limited the natural flow of the retell. The use of prompts helped stimulate the discussion of the book; however, these responses illustrated the need for oral language development. There was evidence of grammatical errors and syntax errors in both the Comprehension Conversation Assessment as well as Oral Language Assessment.

The data from the Oral Language Assessment for the 2012-2013 school year revealed that this student showed limited progress (see Figure 1). In Figure 1, the data points are indicated for each month that the student was assessed. This student's data points from kindergarten (2012-2013 school year) were recorded on specific dates. The data points were 2, 3, 5, and 5. These results suggest that this student had limited control over the structures of oral language, which would likely be evident in following simple instructions or a story and/or text read (i.e., read-aloud, shared reading). For the intervention year, 2013-2014, this student's data points fluctuated from 6, 11, and 9 (see Figure 1).

Case Study 2. Data from the de-identified progress report for October, February, and April of 2013-2014 school year, weekly behavior reports, and data from the Oral Language Assessment and Comprehension Conversation Assessment reflected this student's participation in literature discussions. In relation to the student's participation in classroom discussion as outlined in the student's progress report, documentation suggests an area of concern for October, February, and April progress reports. Additionally, ongoing weekly behavior reports imply a concern with participation in classroom discussions, as well as, concerns with staying on task.
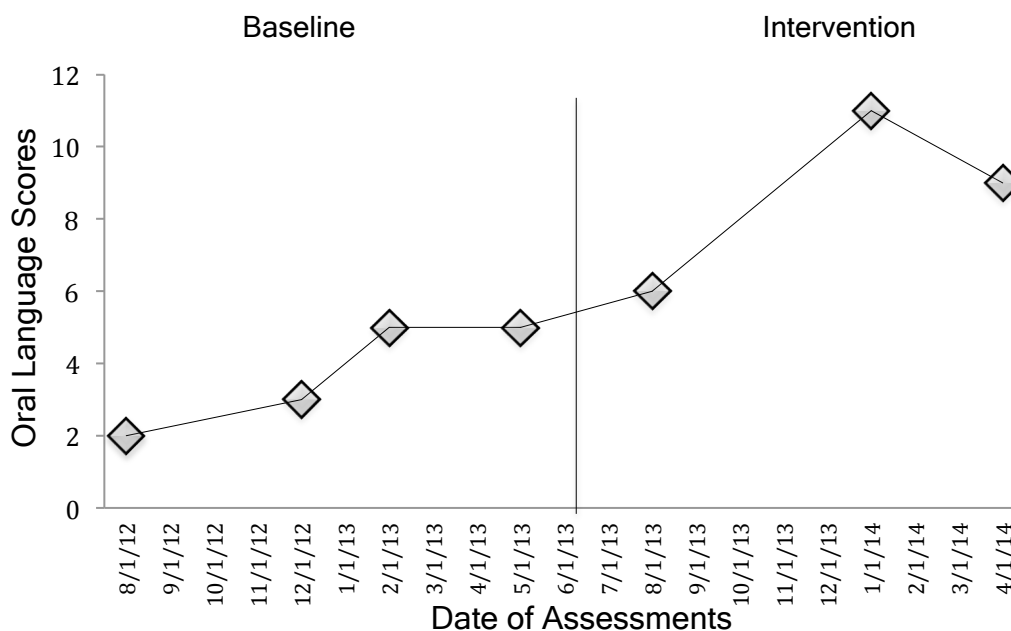
Figure 1. Case Study 1 Oral Language Assessment scores.

The purpose for the comprehension conversation is to provide the student with an opportunity to engage in a natural conversation about the book. The data taken from comprehension conversation indicated that this student required several prompts to enhance the comprehension conversation discussion. This interruption limited the natural flow of the retell; however, prompts stimulated the discussion of the book outlining the level of understanding. Data from the Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment suggest that this student needs intensive oral language development in sentence structure, grammar, and syntax.

The data from the Oral Language Assessment for the 2012-2013 school year revealed that this student showed limited to no progress (see Figure 2). In Figure 2, the data points are indicated for each month that the student was assessed in 2012-2013 and 2013-2014 school year. Data points were recorded on specific dates. The data points for the 2012-2013 school year were 2, 2, 2, 1, and 2 (see Figure 2). These results suggest that

this student had limited control over the structures of oral language, which would likely be evident in following simple instructions or a story and/or text read (i.e., read-aloud, shared reading). For the intervention year, 2013-2014, this student's data points increased mid-year and remained the same for the remainder of the academic school year. The data points were 2, 7, and 7 (see Figure 2).
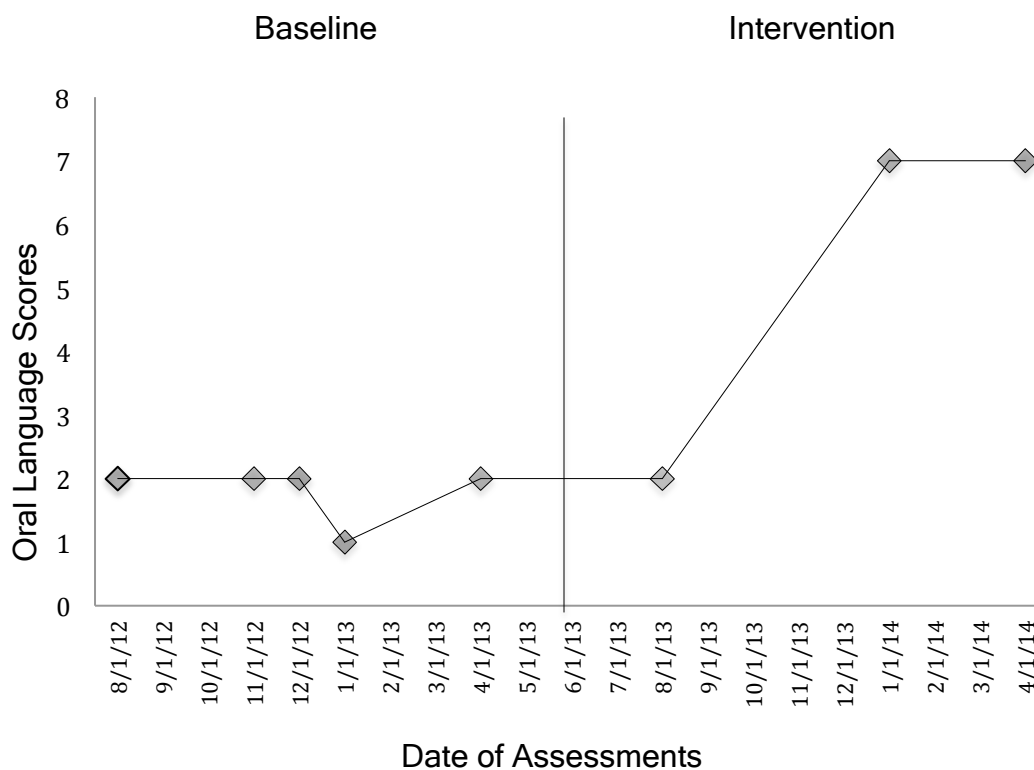
Figure 2. Case Study 2 Oral Language Assessment scores.

Case Study 3. The examiner analyzed data from the de-identified progress report for October, February, and April of 2013-2014 school year, weekly behavior reports, and data from the Oral Language Assessment, as well as, data from the Comprehension Conversation Assessment. Analysis of all data outlined the correlation between active engagement and performance on the Fountas and Pinnell Comprehension Conversation Assessment and Oral Language Assessment.

For the October, February, and April 2014 progress report, the student's

participation in classroom discussion reflected an area of concern. In relation to the

weekly behavior reports, there was clear evidence that active engagement and

participation in classroom discussion remained an ongoing concern for this student.

This student participation on the comprehension conversation provided him with

an opportunity to engage in a natural conversation about the book. The data taken from

comprehension conversation indicated that this student required several prompts to

enhance the comprehension conversation discussion, which interrupted the natural flow

of the retell. Utilizing prompts helped stimulate the literature discussion of the book

outlining the level of understanding. Data from the Comprehension Conversation

Assessment and Oral Language Assessment suggest that this student requires oral

language development in sentence structure, grammar, and syntax.

The data from the Oral Language Assessment for the 2012-2013 school year

revealed that this student showed no progress (see Figure 3). In Figure 3, the data points

are recorded for each month that the student was assessed. This student's data points

from kindergarten (2012-2013 school year) were recorded on specific dates. The data

points were 0, 0, 0, and 0. These results suggest that this student had limited control over

the structures of oral language, which would likely be evident in following simple

instructions or a story read (i.e., read-aloud, shared reading). For the intervention year,

2013-2014, this student's data points gradually improved toward the end of the

intervention period. The data points were 2, 4, and 8 (see Figure 3).
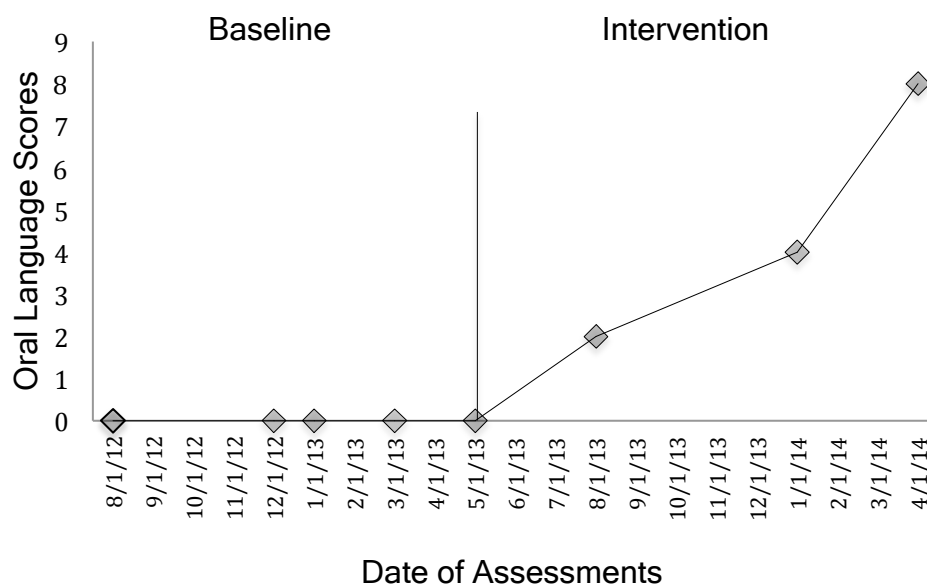
Figure 3. Case Study 3 Oral Language Assessment scores.

Case Study 4. The de-identified progress report for October, February, and April

of 2013-2014 school year reflected classroom participation in discussions. For the

October and February progress, the student's participation in classroom discussion

reflected an area of concern; however, the April 2014 progress report indicated no

concern. Data from the weekly reports showed that this student improved with

participating in classroom discussion the last two month of the intervention period.

Participation on the comprehension conversation provided an opportunity for the

student to engage in a natural conversation about the book. The data taken from

comprehension conversation indicated that this student required several prompts to

enhance the comprehension conversation discussion, which interrupted the overall flow

of the retell. However, utilizing prompts helped stimulate the literature discussion of the

book, which gave an accurate level of understanding.

The data from the Oral Language Assessment for the 2012-2013 school year

revealed that this student showed progress (see Figure 4). In Figure 4, the data points are

indicated for each month that the student was assessed. This student's data points from kindergarten (2012-2013 school year) were recorded on specific dates. The data points were 5, 7, 7, and 15. These results suggest that this student has control over the structures of oral language, which would likely be evident in following simple instructions or a story read (i.e., read-aloud, shared reading). For the intervention year, 2013-2014, this student was able to maintain the same data points. The data points were 15 and 15 (see Figure 4). Because this student scored 15 on three separate occasions, the researcher concluded that this student has control over the English language as results indicate this.
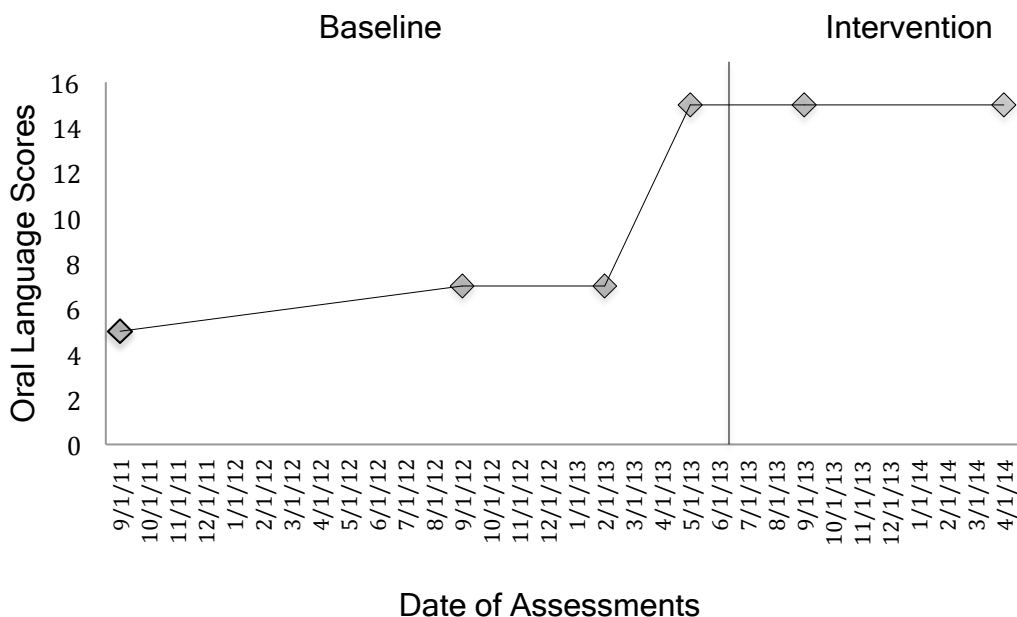
Figure 4. Case Study 4 Oral Language Assessment scores.

Research Question 3. Will vocabulary interventions affect performance on the Oral Language Assessment for students with language impairments?

It was essential to expose the students in this study with rich literature to help increase their comprehension skills and vocabulary knowledge. In order for these students to comprehend books across different genres, the researcher utilized the

suggested books from the units of study in the Reading Workshop instructional block. During the intervention period, the researcher read the suggested book in a whole group setting (i.e., general education students, language impaired students). The entire class of students was exposed to direct and explicit instruction through the whole group as well as guided approach. All students participated in the whole group literature discussions in order to enhance vocabulary development and communication skills. The students with language impairments received additional instruction that targeted vocabulary development in guided group and/or Triple 1 instructional block with the researcher. The English Language Learner teacher, as well as, the Exceptional Education Teacher, provided support facilitation in the researcher's classroom during the reading block.

In the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 there are 175 high frequency words that students must master (see Appendix A). Students are required to read the word list with automaticity. Based on the de-identified data, the following language impaired students' performance varied. Of the 175 high frequency words, Case Study 1 read 63 words, Case Study 2 read 32 words, Case Study 3 read 151 words, and Case Study 4 read 9 words (see Appendices B, C, D, and E). The researcher recorded individual students' responses aside each word. The researcher used a coding system: check for mastery, a minus sign for no response given, and notation of the word read incorrectly. The researcher made a notation of the incorrect word read by the student (see Appendices B, C, D, and E).

Chapter Summary

In summation of Chapter 4 regarding the de-identified data of the four language impaired students, the researcher was able to obtain sufficient information for both

primary and secondary analysis. The de-identified data gave the researcher information to create a baseline (i.e., archival data from the academic year 2012-2013) indicating the performance on the oral language assessment these four students. The researcher was able to obtain information for the intervention of these students during first-grade instruction from the academic year 2013-2014. Chapter 4 presented the data and data analysis to answer the research questions regarding the effects of interactive read-aloud on oral language skills and reading comprehension skills. The discussion of Research Question 1 was highlighted by two tables. In Research Question 2 results, the baseline and intervention are highlighted in Figures 1-4. In Chapter 5, the findings in relationship to the research questions from Chapter 2 will be addressed. Suggestions for future research of language impaired students who are performing below grade-level standards will be provided.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study, along with implications of the study, and suggestions for future research. The purpose of this study was to provide the elementary teachers of the school district with information useful for several purposes. Teachers will become better informed as to how their interventions will help students improve in their reading skills. The teachers, reading coaches, and administrators will also understand how effective the interactive read-aloud and literature discussions may affect the reality of the overall reading program. This suggests that changes or adjustments in this program may ultimately improve the school climate, increase student achievement, enhance collaboration between the reading coaches and teachers, and increase parental involvement in their children's reading.

This study conducted an embedded case study design using a quantitative method for data collection and analysis. The data was collected and analyzed from two consecutive school years (i.e., 2012-2013, 2013-2014). The first research question, using the modeling and explicit teaching of comprehension strategies overtime was explored using a multiple case study design. The second research question looked at active engagement in literature discussions, which is to increase student's performance level. The third research question looked at the impact that vocabulary interventions have on performance of language impaired students. The students' scores were determined using ongoing data collection and intervention. Since the overall design is to measure improvement in the four students overtime, no comparison groups were used.

Summary of the Findings

The A-B design is a two phase, basic signal-subject design (Creswell, 2012; Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013). Based on the research, A in the A-B design was the individual student's baseline data; whereas, B was the data point after the intervention. The researcher observed and measured the students' data from the kindergarten school year (A); this data was taken from the 2012-2013 school year. The researcher administered the read-aloud intervention, and observed and measured multiple data points after the intervention (B) during the 2013-2014 school year.

Research Question 1. The results for Research Question 1 showed that one of the four language impaired students scored satisfactory on the comprehension conversation assessment of the running reading record for the 2013-2014 school year. The other three students scores ranged from excellent to unsatisfactory. The last assessment for two of three students revealed an unsatisfactory comprehension conversation score of the running reading record. The reason for a low comprehension conversation score was due to the low reading accuracy rate for these two students.

Table 4 illustrates Case Study 1 reading level, running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2012-2013 school year. For the 2012-2013 school year, this student's reading accuracy and comprehension scores fluctuated from high to low accuracy rate (96, 95, below 90, 0) to an excellent to unsatisfactory comprehension conversation score (0, 3, 5, and 6 rubric score). The Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3), recommends that kindergarten students should be on a Level D-E by the end of the 2012-2013 school year. Because this student reached a frustrational level

on Level C and Alternate C, these levels were not adequate for grade level consideration.

However, Case Study 1 read on an independent Alternate B level indicating that he

Needs Development (ND) in reading.

Table 4

Case Study 1: 2012-2013 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
A	0	0, unsatisfactory
Alternate A	95	5, satisfactory
B	below 90	0, unsatisfactory
Alternate B	96	6, excellent
C	below 90	6, excellent
Alternate C	below 90	3, unsatisfactory

Table 5 illustrates a comparison of Case Study 1 performance of the 2012-2013

school year to the 2013-2014 school year. Table 5 defines this student's reading level,

running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the

2013-2014 school year. Compared to the 2012-2013 school year, this student's reading

level increased by two levels. Performance on Level E was below 90% suggesting that

this student reached a frustrational level. On Level D, this student performed on an

instructional level; whereas, on Alternate Level D, he performed on an independent

reading level. Based on the Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for

Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3), students

should be reading between Level G-H by this time of year, for the 2013-2014 school year. The Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card suggests that this students Needs Development (ND) in reading.

Table 5

Case Study 1: 2013-2014 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
D	94	5, satisfactory
Alternate D	96	5, satisfactory
E	below 90	3, unsatisfactory

Table 6 illustrates Case Study 2 reading level, running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2012-2013 school year. For the 2012-2013 school year, this student performed on a frustrational reading level for Level A and Alternate Level A. The Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3) suggest that kindergarten students be on a Level D-E by the end of the 2012-2013 school year. Based on this guideline, this student Needs Development (ND) in reading.

Table 7 illustrates a comparison of Case Study 2 performance of the 2012-2013 school year to the 2013-2014 school year. Table 7 defines this student's reading level, running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2013-2014 school year. Compared to the 2012-2013 school year, this student's reading improved for Level B and Level C. Level B suggested an independent reading level;

whereas, Level C suggested an instructional reading level for Case Study 2. However, performance on Level D was below 90% suggesting that this student reached a frustrational level. Based on the Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3), first grade students should be reading between Level G-H. Based on Case Study 2 performance level, this student Needs Development (ND) in reading as illustrated in Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card.

Table 6

Case Study 2: 2012-2013 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
A	below 90	0, unsatisfactory
Alternate A	92	4, unsatisfactory

Table 7

Case Study 2: 2013-2014 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
B	100	6, excellent
C	92	5, satisfactory
D	below 90	3, unsatisfactory

Table 8 illustrates Case Study 3 reading level, running reading record accuracy

rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2012-2013 school year. For the 2012-2013 school year, this student's reading accuracy and comprehension scores put this student on an independent level for Level A, Level B, and Alternate Level B. However, for Level C, this student performed on a frustrational level. The Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3) suggest that kindergarten students should be on a Level D-E by the end of the 2012-2013 school year. Based on this guideline, this student Needs Development (ND) in reading.

Table 8

Case Study 3: 2012-2013 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
A	97	5, satisfactory
B	96	6, excellent
Alternate B	98	6, excellent
C	91	3, unsatisfactory

Table 9 illustrates a comparison of Case Study 3 performance of the 2012-2013 school year to the 2013-2014 school year. Table 9 defines this student's reading level, running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2013-2014 school year. Compared to the 2012-2013 school year, this student's performed on an independent reading level for five reading levels. Performance on Level H was at a 93% reading accuracy and satisfactory performance on comprehension conversation, suggesting that this student reached his instructional level. Based on the Trimester

Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3), first grade students should be reading between Level G-H. Case Study 3 reading level places him on a Proficient (PR) level according to the Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card.

Table 9

Case Study 3: 2013-2014 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
Alternate C	100	5, satisfactory
D	100	5, satisfactory
E	96	5, satisfactory
F	98	5, satisfactory
G	95	5, satisfactory
H	93	5, satisfactory

Table 10 illustrates Case Study 4 reading level, running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2012-2013 school year. For the 2012-2013 school year, this student reached a frustrational on Level A. The Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3), suggest that kindergarten students be on a Level D-E by the end of the 2012-2013 school year. Based on this guideline, this student Needs Development (ND) in reading.

Table 10

Case Study 4: 2012-2013 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
A	94	3, unsatisfactory

Table 11 shows a comparison of Case Study 4 performance of the 2012-2013 school year to the 2013-2014 school year. Table 11 defines this student's reading level, running reading record accuracy rate, and comprehension conversation scores of the 2013-2014 school year. Compared to the 2012-2013 school year, this student performed on an instructional reading level on Alternate A. This is the only reading score obtained for the 2013-2014 school year. The reason for this is that the student was not ready to be assessed on the next level. He was not using the reading strategies to decode text. Based on the Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3), first grade students should be reading between Level G-H. According to this guideline, Case Study 4 Needs Development (ND) in reading.

Table 11

Case Study 4: 2012-2013 Running Reading Records

Level	Accuracy %	Comprehension Conversation score
Alternate A	92	7, excellent

Research Question 2. The results for Research Question 2 illustrated that three of

the four students experienced challenges with engaging in literature discussions of the 2013-2014 school year. However, during the past two months of the intervention, the last student improved with engaging in literature discussions. In relation to the comprehension conversation assessment, all four students required prompting during the assessment. Ideally, teachers would rather not prompt students, as this practice causing an interruption halting the natural flow of language. Nevertheless, utilizing prompting helped stimulated the oral retell of the story for each of these students. Lastly, performance on the Oral Language Assessment of the 2013-2014 indicated a fluctuation in scores. Overall, scores of these four language impaired students revealed a 7, 5, 8, and 10 point gain on the Oral Language Assessment.

Research Question 3. Research Question 3 examined whether vocabulary interventions affect performance on the Oral Language Assessment for students with language impairments. The results of the 175 high frequency word list varied across all four language impaired students. Results of the 175 high frequency words revealed final scores of 63, 32, 151, and 9 for these individual students. Students continued to receive explicit teaching of vocabulary during the guided group and Triple I instructional blocks. Furthermore, these students required additional instruction of reading strategies (i.e., teaching points) that was taught during the interactive read-aloud. The researcher observed that students were not practicing the newly taught teaching points. Performance was inconsistent across all four language impaired students revealing a need to provide additional support to students. Individual students were provided with explicit modeling and re-teaching of these teaching points. The purpose of doing this was for these students to become component readers.

The findings of this study support research, which shows that the Health Research Extension Act of 1985 put NICHD in charge of improving the quality of reading research by conducting rigorous studies to investigate the increase of reading problems and learning disabilities (NICHD, n.d.). Learning disabled students can master content concepts and improve learning performance when taught systematically what good readers do (Alvermann, Phelps, & Gillis, 2010). No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) requires that special education students must meet the same standards as their nondisabled peers without disabilities (Friend & Bursuck, 2009).

The importance of understanding written text is highly crucial for readers to attain. The Department of Education reported that the State of Florida transitioned from the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) to Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test 2.0 (FCAT 2.0) in the spring of 2012. This criterion-referenced assessment measured student progress toward meeting Next Generation Sunshine State Standards (NGSSS) in mathematics and reading for grades 3-10.

According to Vygotsky's (1978) theory of reading development, students are successful in improving literacy skills when learning activities build on prior knowledge and provide the opportunity to participate in social interactions with teachers and peers. Furthermore, it is imperative that peer partnerships are grouped with peers of different developmental levels and that the high level partner is cognizant of the low level partner's ability (Driscoll, 1994; Hausfather, 1996).

In the target school, first grade students with language disabilities continually scored substantially lower on the diagnostic testing compared to their counterparts as well as demonstrated weakness in communicating effectively in both an academic or social

setting. Students' attitudes about reading were poor.

Implications

The results of this research support recommendations for continuing the use of the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 for kindergarten and first-grade students for assessment purposes as well as the interactive read-aloud and literature intervention. This will increase the opportunities for students to become more efficient in reading; thus, leading to a better school experience and increasing student achievement. According to these findings, more students should be encouraged to participate in this intervention. As school administrators, teachers etc. attempt to increase student achievement in reading, further analysis of the programs offered to students needs to take place.

With this information the researcher was able to determine whether the interactive read-aloud coupled with literature discussion improved reading comprehension of four language impaired students. The researcher concluded that language impaired students improved their reading comprehension performance on the comprehension conversation of the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1. However, three of the four students continued to perform below grade level standard as suggest by the Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card (see Table 3). According to the Trimester Benchmark Reading Levels: Guideline for Aligning the Student Progression Plan With the Report Card first-grade students should be reading on a Level I-J by the end of the 2013-2014 school year. The main areas of concern that held students behind from attaining grade level standards were their (a) limited vocabulary knowledge, which included reading high frequency words; (b) limited background knowledge; (c) low reading levels coming into first grade; and (d) lack of

consistency using reading strategies (e.g., teaching points) during independent. The researcher believes that improvements in these areas will result in students meeting grade level standards for first grade.

Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of this study supported the following recommendations for future research of the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1, to include the Leveled Literacy Intervention: (a) provide teachers with professional development and training on the implementation and analysis of using the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 and the Leveled Literacy Intervention, (b) conduct a phenomenological study and interview teachers to gain the lived experiences on utilizing the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 and 2, and (c) conduct a mixed study using quantitative and qualitative data to gain a better understanding to improve reading comprehension of language impaired students.

The Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 have many positive features to help teachers analyze and encompass intervention in order to improve their students' decoding skills, reading fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. The Benchmark System 1 is a comprehensive diagnostic tool to assess reading accuracy and comprehension as well as assess phonics and word analysis. Although this assessment tool does focus on the reading needs of students, there are no areas within the assessment that need to be improved as it truly defines the areas where students are struggling. This is basically a comprehensive diagnostic assessment tool. The only concern would be whether a teacher understands how to use this assessment tool to diagnosis reading deficiencies. A suggestion for future research would be to provide teachers with professional

development and training on how to administer and analyze data based on the Benchmark System. This will drive the teacher's instruction that will target the students' individual needs.

For students to improve, teachers need to have intensive training; in addition, this training must be constant and consistent and with fidelity. Administrators could budget for a mentoring program where coaches and/or mentors can encourage beginning or veteran teachers to persevere in their work ethic and success rates for their student's academic achievements. Mentors need to be aligned with teachers based on their experience and content knowledge. Future research suggests developing these mentor programs as it will benefit the schools' visions and mission statements. Mullen (2009) suggests that a mentoring program will help support teaching and learning as well as increase teacher retention rates and job satisfaction. McNulty and Fox (2010) and Darling-Hammond (2003) support school administrators who implement a structured mentoring program. This will help train, retrain, and retain teachers to stay within the educational system by improving their attitudes, feelings of efficacy, and instructional skills; this will also help prevent school grades to decline.

The purpose of suggesting future research using a phenomenological approach is to understand teachers' experiences using the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Systems and the Leveled Literacy Intervention. The knowledge gained from the interviews of the teachers could lead to many themes and opportunities to help language impaired students increase their skills in decoding skills, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Additionally, this study could seek to understand the challenges and successes of the use of the assessment tools. A mixed study approach would gather the data from the

assessment tools, both archival and intervention data, and then use the qualitative data of interviews and observations in the classroom.

Conclusion

Educational researchers, school administrators, reading coaches, and teachers realize the significance of implementing an effective reading program into the school curriculum. These programs should align with the school's vision and mission statement, which is to achieve grade-level competency. In a reading program, literacy achievement and learning outcomes is determined through the increase of reading fluency, decoding, vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension. The outcome of this embedded case study validated the review of the literature. The de-identified data revealed that the language impaired students had various commonalities: three of the four were English Language Learners, two of the four students' primary exceptionality was specific learning disabled, and two of the four students' primary exceptionality was language impaired. One of the four language impaired student is speech impaired. Some of the differences amongst these four language impaired students was the primary language spoken at home. Two of the four students spoke Spanish, one student spoke Creole, and the last student spoke English. As indicated by the findings, language impaired students required additional vocabulary instruction (book vocabulary and high frequency word) as well as reading strategies to build comprehension of text. Moreover, the researcher believes that these language impaired students need to develop their background knowledge, improve reading comprehension, expand their vocabulary, improve oral language skills, improve decoding skills, as well as, they need to learn to understand text structures and other patterns in ways that build comprehension. Students, who are not

instructed in the five components of reading, find themselves not meeting grade level competency; therefore, it is important for teachers to instruct students based on their individual learning needs. The Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1 and 2 and the Leveled Literacy Intervention are beneficial tools for diagnostic assessments and for literacy intervention.

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Appendix A

Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark System 1: 175 High Frequency Words Assessment

175 High Frequency Words Assessment

no	the	his	then	because	one
is	my	how	they	from	with
can	to	if	this	have	five
me	all	jump	too	there	their
you	are	look	us	any	what
and	as	man	was	into	but
he	ball	mom	went	just	here
at	be	not	will	little	going
a	boy	now	yes	make	our
so	by	of	than	before	three
on	come	or	about	two	want
in	day	out	back	four	able
up	did	play	after	mother	bad
am	eat	put	I'm	where	give
we	for	ran	been	very	today
like	get	read	big	could	week
see	girl	run	came	were	something
I	got	sat	away	over	bus
go	had	saw	your	ride	year
it	has	say	who	don't	can't
do	her	she	when	said	tell
an	him	sit	them	that	across

world	under
cat	fast
take	hill
dad	know
hide	use
almost	let
dog	place
anything	sleep
home	love
down	much
become	stay
end	name
behind	new
fish	paper
why	rain
car	door
books	fun
good	sky
help	both
city	time
write	
top	
room	

Appendix B

Case Study 1: 175 High Frequency Words Assessment

1.	no	+	32.	by	+	63.	saw	said
2.	is	+	33.	come	+	64.	say	so
3.	can	+	34.	day	+	65.	she	+
4.	me	+	35.	did	+	66.	sit	say
5.	you	+	36.	eat	+	67.	then	this
6.	and	+	37.	for	+	68.	they	now
7.	he	+	38.	get	+	69.	this	+
8.	at	+	39.	girl	+	70.	too	+
9.	a	+	40.	got	+	71.	us	has
10.	so	+	41.	had	+	72.	was	+
11.	on	+	42.	has	+	73.	went	want
12.	in	+	43.	her	+	74.	will	+
13.	up	+	44.	him	+	75.	yes	you
14.	am	+	45.	his	+	76.	than	-
15.	we	+	46.	how	now	77.	about	-
16.	like	+	47.	if	+	78.	back	-
17.	see	+	48.	jump	+	79.	after	-
18.	I	+	49.	look	+	80.	I'm	-
19.	go	+	50.	man	mat	81.	been	-
20.	it	+	51.	mom	+	82.	big	-
21.	do	+	52.	not	+	83.	came	-
22.	an	+	53.	now	+	84.	away	-
23.	the	+	54.	of	+	85.	your	-
24.	my	+	55.	or	+	86.	who	-
25.	to	+	56.	out	+	87.	when	-
26.	all	+	57.	play	+	88.	them	-
27.	are	+	58.	put	+	89.	because	-
28.	as	+	59.	ran	+	90.	from	-
29.	ball	boy	60.	read	+	91.	have	-
30.	be	+	61.	run	ran	92.	there	-
31.	boy	+	62.	sat	+	93.	any	-

94. into	-	122. able	-	150. good	-
95. just	-	123. bad	-	151. help	-
96. little	-	124. give	-	152. city	-
97. make	-	125. today	-	153. write	-
98. before	-	126. week	-	154. top	-
99. two	-	127. something	-	155. room	-
100. four	-	128. bus	-	156. under	-
101. mother	-	129. year	-	157. fast	-
102. where	-	130. can't	-	158. hill	-
103. very	-	131. tell	-	159. know	-
104. could	-	132. across	-	160. use	-
105. were	-	133. world	-	161. let	-
106. over	-	134. cat	-	162. place	-
107. ride	-	135. take	-	163. sleep	-
108. don't	-	136. dad	-	164. love	-
109. said	-	137. hide	-	165. much	-
110. that	-	138. almost	-	166. stay	-
111. one	-	139. dog	-	167. name	-
112. with	-	140. anything	-	168. new	-
113. five	-	141. home	-	169. paper	-
114. their	-	142. down	-	170. rain	-
115. what	-	143. become	-	171. door	-
116. but	-	144. end	-	172. fun	-
117. here	-	145. behind	-	173. sky	-
118. going	-	146. fish	-	174. both	-
119. our	-	147. why	-	175. time	-
120. three	-	148. car	-		
121. want	-	149. books	-		

Appendix C

Case Study 2: 175 High Frequency Words Assessment

1.	no	+	32.	by	dy	63.	saw	sew
2.	is	+	33.	come	ki	64.	say	so
3.	can	+	34.	day	dad	65.	she	+
4.	me	+	35.	did	-	66.	sit	sot
5.	you	+	36.	eat	-	67.	then	den
6.	and	dan	37.	for	+	68.	they	dis
7.	he	+	38.	get	+	69.	this	is
8.	at	+	39.	girl	-	70.	too	+
9.	a	+	40.	got	get	71.	us	nos
10.	so	+	41.	had	hit	72.	was	will
11.	on	no	42.	has	his	73.	went	wilt
12.	in	+	43.	her	+	74.	will	+
13.	up	+	44.	him	+	75.	yes	+
14.	am	me	45.	his	has	76.	than	-
15.	we	+	46.	how	+	77.	about	-
16.	like	+	47.	if	for	78.	back	-
17.	see	+	48.	jump	jent	79.	after	-
18.	I	+	49.	look	+	80.	I'm	-
19.	go	+	50.	man	mean	81.	been	-
20.	it	+	51.	mom	+	82.	big	-
21.	do	+	52.	not	int	83.	came	-
22.	an	+	53.	now	in	84.	away	-
23.	the	+	54.	of	for	85.	your	-
24.	my	me	55.	or	far	86.	who	-
25.	to	+	56.	out	ant	87.	when	-
26.	all	-	57.	play	down	88.	them	-
27.	are	ren	58.	put	dun	89.	because	-
28.	as	+	59.	ran	an	90.	from	-
29.	ball	-	60.	read	-	91.	have	-
30.	be	dis	61.	run	an	92.	there	-
31.	boy	di	62.	sat	soap	93.	any	-

94. into	-	122. able	-	150. good	-
95. just	-	123. bad	-	151. help	-
96. little	-	124. give	-	152. city	-
97. make	-	125. today	-	153. write	-
98. before	-	126. week	-	154. top	-
99. two	-	127. something	-	155. room	-
100. four	-	128. bus	-	156. under	-
101. mother	-	129. year	-	157. fast	-
102. where	-	130. can't	-	158. hill	-
103. very	-	131. tell	-	159. know	-
104. could	-	132. across	-	160. use	-
105. were	-	133. world	-	161. let	-
106. over	-	134. cat	-	162. place	-
107. ride	-	135. take	-	163. sleep	-
108. don't	-	136. dad	-	164. love	-
109. said	-	137. hide	-	165. much	-
110. that	-	138. almost	-	166. stay	-
111. one	-	139. dog	-	167. name	-
112. with	-	140. anything	-	168. new	-
113. five	-	141. home	-	169. paper	-
114. their	-	142. down	-	170. rain	-
115. what	-	143. become	-	171. door	-
116. but	-	144. end	-	172. fun	-
117. here	-	145. behind	-	173. sky	-
118. going	-	146. fish	-	174. both	-
119. our	-	147. why	-	175. time	-
120. three	-	148. car	-		
121. want	-	149. books	-		

Appendix D

Case Study 3: 175 High Frequency Words Assessment

1.	no	+	32.	by	+	63.	saw	+
2.	is	+	33.	come	+	64.	say	+
3.	can	+	34.	day	+	65.	she	+
4.	me	+	35.	did	+	66.	sit	+
5.	you	+	36.	eat	+	67.	then	+
6.	and	+	37.	for	+	68.	they	+
7.	he	+	38.	get	+	69.	this	+
8.	at	+	39.	girl	+	70.	too	+
9.	a	+	40.	got	+	71.	us	+
10.	so	+	41.	had	+	72.	was	+
11.	on	+	42.	has	+	73.	went	+
12.	in	+	43.	her	+	74.	will	+
13.	up	+	44.	him	+	75.	yes	+
14.	am	+	45.	his	+	76.	than	+
15.	we	+	46.	how	+	77.	about	+
16.	like	+	47.	if	+	78.	back	+
17.	see	+	48.	jump	+	79.	after	fur
18.	I	+	49.	look	+	80.	I'm	am
19.	go	+	50.	man	+	81.	been	+
20.	it	+	51.	mom	+	82.	big	+
21.	do	+	52.	not	+	83.	came	+
22.	an	+	53.	now	+	84.	away	+
23.	the	+	54.	of	+	85.	your	+
24.	my	+	55.	or	+	86.	who	+
25.	to	+	56.	out	+	87.	when	+
26.	all	+	57.	play	+	88.	them	+
27.	are	+	58.	put	+	89.	because	+
28.	as	+	59.	ran	+	90.	from	+
29.	ball	+	60.	read	+	91.	have	+
30.	be	+	61.	run	+	92.	there	+
31.	boy	+	62.	sat	+	93.	any	+

#	Word	Response	#	Word	Response	#	Word	Response
94.	into	+	122.	able	sub	150.	good	+
95.	just	+	123.	bad	+	151.	help	+
96.	little	+	124.	give	+	152.	city	+
97.	make	+	125.	today	+	153.	write	writing
98.	before	+	126.	week	cake	154.	top	stop
99.	two	+	127.	something	sommy	155.	room	worm
100.	four	+	128.	bus	+	156.	under	-
101.	mother	+	129.	year	care	157.	fast	first
102.	where	+	130.	can't	+	158.	hill	+
103.	very	every	131.	tell	+	159.	know	-
104.	could	+	132.	across	-	160.	use	us
105.	were	air	133.	world	+	161.	let	+
106.	over	+	134.	cat	+	162.	place	+
107.	ride	+	135.	take	+	163.	sleep	+
108.	don't	+	136.	dad	+	164.	love	+
109.	said	+	137.	hide	instead	165.	much	+
110.	that	+	138.	almost	-	166.	stay	+
111.	one	+	139.	dog	+	167.	name	am
112.	with	+	140.	anything	-	168.	new	+
113.	five	+	141.	home	+	169.	paper	+
114.	their	+	142.	down	+	170.	rain	+
115.	what	+	143.	become	+	171.	door	+
116.	but	+	144.	end	+	172.	fun	+
117.	here	+	145.	behind	befind	173.	sky	+
118.	going	+	146.	fish	+	174.	both	doof
119.	our	+	147.	why	way	175.	time	+
120.	three	+	148.	car	+			
121.	want	what	149.	books	+			

Appendix E

Case Study 4: 175 High Frequency Words Assessment

1.	no	+	32.	by	-	63.	saw	-
2.	is	-	33.	come	-	64.	say	-
3.	can	so	34.	day	-	65.	she	-
4.	me	him	35.	did	-	66.	sit	-
5.	you	he	36.	eat	-	67.	then	-
6.	and	up	37.	for	-	68.	they	-
7.	he	and	38.	get	-	69.	this	-
8.	at	t	39.	girl	-	70.	too	-
9.	a	+	40.	got	-	71.	us	-
10.	so	+	41.	had	-	72.	was	-
11.	on	no	42.	has	-	73.	went	-
12.	in	yes	43.	her	-	74.	will	-
13.	up	ul	44.	him	-	75.	yes	-
14.	am	+	45.	his	-	76.	than	-
15.	we	yum	46.	how	-	77.	about	-
16.	like	yut	47.	if	-	78.	back	-
17.	see	+	48.	jump	-	79.	after	-
18.	I	+	49.	look	-	80.	I'm	-
19.	go	can	50.	man	-	81.	been	-
20.	it	at	51.	mom	-	82.	big	-
21.	do	+	52.	not	-	83.	came	-
22.	an	end	53.	now	-	84.	away	-
23.	the	and	54.	of	-	85.	your	-
24.	my	yes	55.	or	-	86.	who	-
25.	to	+	56.	out	-	87.	when	-
26.	all	-	57.	play	-	88.	them	-
27.	are	-	58.	put	-	89.	because	-
28.	as	-	59.	ran	-	90.	from	-
29.	ball	-	60.	read	-	91.	have	-
30.	be	-	61.	run	-	92.	there	-
31.	boy	-	62.	sat	-	93.	any	-

94. into	-	122. able	-	150. good	-
95. just	-	123. bad	-	151. help	-
96. little	-	124. give	-	152. city	-
97. make	-	125. today	-	153. write	-
98. before	-	126. week	-	154. top	-
99. two	-	127. something	-	155. room	-
100. four	-	128. bus	-	156. under	-
101. mother	-	129. year	-	157. fast	-
102. where	-	130. can't	-	158. hill	-
103. very	-	131. tell	-	159. know	-
104. could	-	132. across	-	160. use	-
105. were	-	133. world	-	161. let	-
106. over	-	134. cat	-	162. place	-
107. ride	-	135. take	-	163. sleep	-
108. don't	-	136. dad	-	164. love	-
109. said	-	137. hide	-	165. much	-
110. that	-	138. almost	-	166. stay	-
111. one	-	139. dog	-	167. name	-
112. with	-	140. anything	-	168. new	-
113. five	-	141. home	-	169. paper	-
114. their	-	142. down	-	170. rain	-
115. what	-	143. become	-	171. door	-
116. but	-	144. end	-	172. fun	-
117. here	-	145. behind	-	173. sky	-
118. going	-	146. fish	-	174. both	-
119. our	-	147. why	-	175. time	-
120. three	-	148. car	-		
121. want	-	149. books	-		