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The Effects of Repeated Reading Interventions on First-Grade Reading Fluency

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The Effects of Repeated Reading Interventions on First-Grade Reading Fluency

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In fulfillment of final requirements for the MAED degree

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the effects of daily repeated reading on first-grade students' oral reading fluency scores and to examine the role of parental involvement in this process. The study used fluency benchmark scores and bi-weekly progress monitoring scores to collect data over a nine-week period. Although there was an initial statistically significant increase in scores, the study's results showed no overall effect on oral reading fluency scores. Variables, including outliers and limited parental involvement, may have affected the study's results. Further research with larger sample sizes and more rigorous control over variables is needed to confirm these findings.

Keywords: Fluency, Oral Language Development, Reading, Primary Grades

Introduction

Recent data shows that nearly two-thirds of all fourth-grade students read at less than adequate levels on reading achievement tests and that the problem has persisted for decades (Paige et al., 2019). Coming out of the COVID-19 pandemic, with ever-changing school and home environments, students lack the fluency skills built early in their education. More than ever, students are facing a decline in oral language development. Researchers at Stanford found that reading scores among second and third-graders in the U.S. are roughly 30% behind what is expected in a typical year (Spector, 2021). According to Haines et al. (2018), students must be identified as struggling readers by the end of first grade to avoid falling further behind as they continue through the grades.

Thousands of schools across the United States attempt to close this gap by implementing reading programs incorporating read-aloud and interactive lessons where students are exposed to modeled, fluent reading. Some popular programs are Fountas and Pinnell Literacy, Units of Study, Journeys Reading Program, and more. Marie Clay suggested that as students engage with texts, they will develop the skills necessary to become skilled readers (Clay, 2005a, p. 1). Many researchers have questioned Clay's theories and proven them inaccurate, yet educators and schools continue to follow this practice. Teachers often tell parents that reading to a child is one of the most beneficial ways to increase their reading skills. There is a prominent belief that children naturally learn to read if they are read to enough.

Reading fluency has also been found to be a valid predictor of reading achievement. According to a recent study discussed in Schilling's article, oral reading fluency assessments such as DIBELS were reasonably accurate in identifying second and third-graders who were reading below the twenty-fifth percentile by the end of the year (Schilling, 2007). This made me wonder if exposing a child to fluent reading every day would be sufficient to improve their

reading abilities. Could it be true that the best thing that one can do for a struggling reader is to read to them?

In my research, I exposed a first-grade class of twenty-two students to daily repeated readings of short poems and passages. I did not expose the students to any fluency practice or modeled reading for the first three weeks. Repeated readings were conducted daily for the second three weeks, always beginning with modeled fluent reading. For the final three weeks, students took the poems home to practice with a family member and worked on the skill in the classroom. At the end of each three weeks, I assessed these students using a Decodable Words Fluency Assessment to measure their growth. The purpose of this research was to see the effects of repeated readings and modeling fluent reading on a student's overall ability to read and decode words.

Theoretical Framework

There are many theories regarding early literacy, with many of those theories contradicting one another. Regarding reading fluency, LaBerge and Samuels' (McCormick & Samuels, 1979) developed the theory of automaticity, which says that decoding includes two components—accuracy of word recognition and speed of word recognition. Their theory suggests that fluent readers can decode words without attention to decoding. When readers do not have automaticity, decoding words requires more effort and, thus, delays processing.

Many people think that if children are exposed to enough reading, they will learn to read independently. Another theory regarding literacy is the Autonomous Model. This model defines literacy and learning to read as skills that can be taught similarly across varying contexts (Larson & Marsh, 2005). This is how many of today's popular curricula are designed. The focus is on modeled fluent reading and skilled comprehension. Lessons and units are scaffolded to build

upon one another. The idea is that students will become skilled, fluent readers by practicing reading often.

While many of these theories differ, what they have in common is the importance of reading skillfully and automatically. Reading fluency is frequently seen as a crucial concept in reading development. For a reader to be proficient in both text comprehension and word recognition, language comprehension abilities must be combined with word recognition abilities (Scarborough, 2018).

Review of Literature

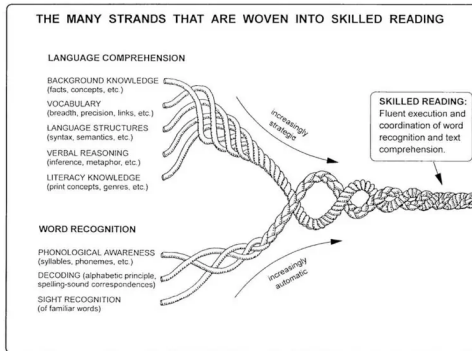
The literature in this review supports the theory that word reading fluency, phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and model fluent reading are all integral parts of oral language development, which, in turn, is an essential construct in early reading development.

Reading Gap

Before the COVID-19 Pandemic, standardized test scores in reading declined. Close to two-thirds of all fourth-grade students read at less than adequate levels on reading achievement tests (Paige et al., 2019). After the COVID-19 Pandemic, this reading gap grew even more prominent. Spector (2021) shares that reading fluency among second and third-graders in the U.S is roughly 30% behind what is expected in a typical year. This may be due to the uncertainty of the past few years in education and the differences in hybrid, distance, and in-person learning. However, despite the cause, according to Haines et al. (2018), if students are identified as struggling readers by the end of first grade, they will fall further and further behind as they continue through the grades.

What is Reading Fluency?

Fluent reading is the ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with proper expression (Kim, 2015). In order to read a text fluently, many different literacy skills come into play.



Students need to be able to decode words, both known and unknown, have skills in phonemic awareness and orthographic awareness, and have an understanding of punctuation and expression (Duke et al., 2021). Reading fluency is often thought to be an important construct in reading development. Dr. Hollis Scarborough (2018) describes this relationship as a rope. Language Comprehension

skills must work together with word recognition to create a skilled reader with fluent word recognition and text comprehension (Scarborough 2018).

Effective Strategies for Building Reading Fluency

Reading fluency has also been found to be a valid predictor of reading achievement. According to a recent study discussed in Schilling's article, oral reading fluency assessments such as DIBELS were reasonably accurate in identifying second and third graders who were reading below the 25th percentile by the end of the year (Schilling, 2007). The results showed that DIBELS subtests significantly predicted end-of-the-year reading achievement. Schilling (2007) discusses the variance in scores when analyzing summative reading assessments. Assessments for first-graders were given in fall, winter, and spring. However, it is essential to note that the fall assessment does not include oral reading fluency (ORF) assessments. When looking at the data, Schilling (2007) found that winter subtests, including ORF, accounted for a significant 51% variance in the reading total. Articles and studies agree on the importance of reading fluency in developing skilled reading and indicating later reading achievement.

Like Schilling (2007), Coyne (2006) also discusses the use of DIBELS fluency assessments to identify areas of need in individual early childhood literacy skills. Coyne (2006) suggests assessing Initial Sounds Fluency (ISF), Phonemic Segmentation Fluency (PSF), Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF), and Oral Reading Fluency (ORF). ISF, PSF, and NWF are all Phonemic Awareness skills. ORF assesses Accuracy and Fluency in Connected Text (Coyne 2006). The goal is for students to identify 40 correct words per minute by the end of first grade. It is recommended that these assessments are given in the fall, winter, and spring, to assess growth and progress monitoring assessments every 2-3 weeks.

A study discussed by Stevens et al. (2017) examines reading fluency and comprehension outcomes of reading fluency interventions for Kindergarten through 5th-grade students, many of whom had learning deficits or were identified as "high-risk." Results from this study showed that repeated reading, oral language interventions, and assisted reading with audiobooks produced growth in reading fluency and comprehension (Stevens et al., 2017). Stevens goes on to explain that providing a model of fluent reading and performance feedback is the most critical intervention for improving reading fluency in struggling readers.

The first strategy that Stevens et al. (2017) discussed is repeated reading. When implementing a repeated reading intervention, students are asked to read a short passage, phrase, or word list repeatedly until they have reached a criterion level of success. Between each reading, students receive formative feedback that they are expected to implement. Guided oral repeated reading with a teacher or peer feedback was identified by Stevens et al. (2017) as an effective method for improving reading fluency and comprehension for readers.

Stevens et al. (2017) also discuss assisted reading with audiobooks to promote fluent reading. They state that assisted reading using audiobooks and multi-component interventions

also show promise for improving reading fluency and comprehension outcomes (Stevens et al., 2017). However, they also emphasize that more research is needed to determine the effectiveness of modeled reading with audiobooks regarding fluency and comprehension outcomes.

The final strategy discussed in the article by Stevens et al. (2017) is multi-component oral language interventions. These interventions combined repeated reading with phonics instruction and modeled fluent reading. Stevens discusses the benefit of repeated reading interventions when paired with vocabulary or comprehension instruction (Stevens et al., 2017).

Gaps in Research- Parental Involvement

While many articles and studies agree on the importance of fluency when building reading comprehension and the importance of modeled reading and repeated reading interventions, there is a gap in research surrounding parental involvement. Many studies focus on building early literacy skills and reading aloud to children under five. In a study discussed by Niklas et al. (2016), 104 children were assessed prior to school entry. Their parents were asked how old their students were when they started reading to them and how often they did so. Nearly half of the study's participants were first read aloud to prior to 6 months old (Niklas et al., 2016). The results suggest that reading to very young children significantly contributes to a positive home literacy environment and promotes children's language development (Niklas et al., 2016).

An article by Sénéchal (2008) studies the relationship between family reading interventions on children's reading acquisition between the ages of Kindergarten and third grade. Like the findings discussed in the article by Niklas et al., Sénéchal shares that the development of children's reading skills is positively impacted by parental involvement (Sénéchal, 2008). However, of these studies discussed by Sénéchal, there were found to be no significant reading gains in the three studies where parents read to their children (Sénéchal, 2008). Sénéchal goes on to discuss the benefits of teachers encouraging parents to read to their children, stating that

parents are often told that reading to their children is the best way to ensure later success in reading (Sénéchal, 2008). However, Sénéchal explains that this recommendation cannot be justified because the present analysis revealed very limited intervention research on the topic for this age group (Sénéchal, 2008).

Conclusion

With recent data showing that close to two-thirds of all fourth-grade students read at less than adequate levels on reading achievement tests and that the problem has persisted for decades (Paige et al., 2019), educators must take action to close this reading gap. Shilling (2007) and Coyne (2006) discuss the importance of reading fluency as an early indicator of reading achievement. Assessments such as DIBELS can be used to assess early fluency skills and target areas of need in individual students. Through these assessments, teachers can use multi-component oral reading interventions paired with repeated reading, modeled fluent reading, and formative feedback to build fluency skills. With teachers working in the classrooms to bridge these learning gaps, it raises the question of what can be done at home to improve reading fluency skills? Little research is found on this topic, as stated by Sénéchal (2008). It is widely known that reading to very young children significantly contributes to a positive home literacy environment and promotes children's language development (Niklas et al., 2016). Teachers encourage parents of elementary school students (first through fifth grade) to read to children as a way of improving reading skills. However, recommendations like this cannot be justified because the present data shows very limited intervention research on the topic for this age group. In conclusion, literature in this review supports the theory that word reading fluency, phonological awareness, morphological awareness, and model fluent reading are all integral parts of oral language development, which, in turn, is an essential construct in early reading development.

Methodologies

For this study, quantitative data was measured using bi-weekly progress monitoring and formative benchmark scores.

The population for this study was made up of first-grade students at a public elementary school in suburban Minnesota. The sample was composed of 22 students enrolled during the 2022-2023 school year, and includes 10 males and 12 females.

Students were assessed using the Fastbridge Early Reading Decodable Words Assessment, Form 1 (Appendix A) in September, three weeks into the beginning of the school year. This assessment is administered 1-1. For this assessment, both the students and the teacher have a decodable word list. The lists were given to the student in a paper copy, and the teacher followed along marking the errors virtually. At the end of one minute, the teacher marked the last word read. Fluency scores are calculated by the number of words read correctly in one minute. This same assessment, using different decodable word lists, was given bi-weekly in order to progress monitor the student's Rate of Improvement. The quantitative data provided the Rate of Improvement in a 60 second early reading fluency assessment. This data provided insight into whether or not the 10 minutes of repeated reading fluency intervention increased the Rate of Improvement in students.

For the first three weeks, students received no fluency instruction. At the end of the three weeks, students were assessed using the Decodable Words Assessment Form 2 (Appendix B) to measure the rate of improvement without intervention. For the second phase of the study, students received a ten minute whole-class fluency intervention using repeated reading. For this instruction, the teacher read a fluency passage (Appendix E) to the students using the following five-day instructional routine.

Table 1
Repeated Reading Instructional Routine

Day	Routine
Day 1	Introduce passage/ teacher models reading
Day 2	Echo Read teacher leads
Day 3	Echo Read teacher leads
Day 4	Choral reading, teacher leads
Day 5	Choral reading, students lead

After three weeks of this intervention, students are assessed again using Decodable Words Assessment Form 3 (Appendix C). The teacher is assessing to see the Rate of Improvement from Form 2, as well as the student's Words Correct Per Minute (WCPM) and overall accuracy score.

The third and final phase of the study assessed the effectiveness of parental involvement. For the final three weeks, the teacher continued with the same five-day instructional routine with the exception of day four. On day four, the same fluency passages were sent home with students with the expectation that they were to read the poem with an adult five times.

Table 2
Repeated Reading Instructional Routine with Parental Involvement

Day	Routine
Day 1	Introduce passage/ teacher models reading
Day 2	Echo Read teacher leads
Day 3	Echo Read teacher leads
Day 4	Choral reading, teacher leads *Passages are sent home with students
Day 5	Choral reading, students lead

After three weeks, students are assessed once more using Decodable Words Assessment Form 4 (Appendix A). The teacher is assessing to see the Rate of Improvement from Form 3, as well as the student's Words Correct Per Minute (WCPM) and overall accuracy score.

Data was not assessed cumulatively, from Form 1 to Form 4. Instead, data was assessed from Form 1 & 2, Form 2 & 3, and Form 3 & 4, in order to determine which phase of the study yielded the most growth. Students in this study were all given the same goal of a 1.15% Rate of Improvement. The biweekly progress monitoring assessments were used to measure whether they were on pace to achieve that goal.

In the original design of this study, a survey was going to be administered to parents prior to the start of the study and after its conclusion. This survey would gather information regarding the family's reading habits at home, the child's access to books, and the amount of time spent outside of school reading to their child. The intent was that this survey would offer some insight into the results of the data from the final three weeks of the study, which included a parental involvement component. However, upon administering the first survey, only 2/23 parents

completed the assessment. Of those two parents, one shared that they did not feel comfortable discussing their family's reading habits outside of school. Due to the lack of data, a decision was made not to administer the second survey or use any of its data.

Data Analysis

Benchmark and Progress Monitoring Results

Table 1

Fastbridge Decodable Words Assessment Scores

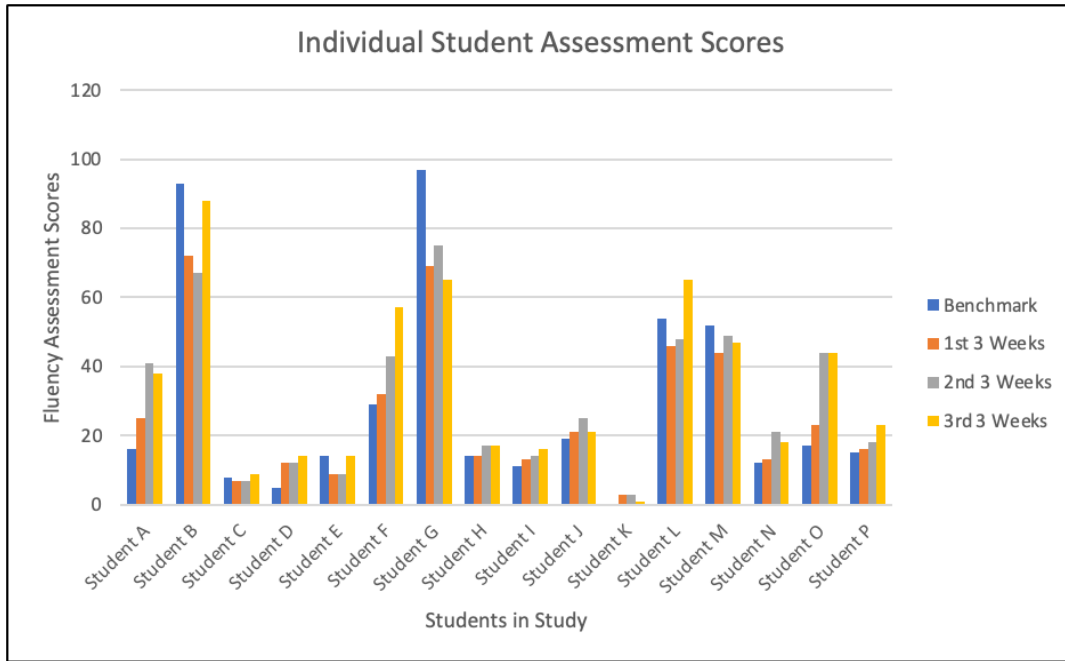
	Benchmark	1st 3 Weeks	2nd 3 Weeks	3rd 3 Weeks
Student A	16	25	41	38
Student B	93	72	67	88
Student C	8	7	7	9
Student D	5	12	12	14
Student E	14	9	9	14
Student F	29	32	43	57
Student G	97	69	75	65
Student H	14	14	17	17
Student I	11	13	14	16
Student J	19	21	25	21
Student K	N/A	3	3	1
Student L	54	46	48	65
Student M	52	44	49	47
Student N	12	13	21	18
Student O	17	23	44	44
Student P	15	16	18	23

Students in this study were assessed using the Fastbridge Decodable Words Assessment.

Table 1 shows their scores recorded during each phase of the study, as well as their benchmark

scores. Students below 9 were labeled in red as high risk, between 9-16 were labeled in yellow as some risk, and students scoring 16+ were identified in green as meeting standards.

Figure 1
Individual Student Fluency Assessment Scores



Note: This figure shows the assessment scores from individual students taken at each phase of the study.

*Study K was absent for the first benchmark assessment in the study, and thus does not have an initial data point.

The data set (see Figure 1) shows the benchmark and progress monitoring scores of first-grade students over the course of a 9-week repeated reading intervention. The benchmark scores were taken at the beginning of each three-week period, while progress monitoring scores were taken at the end of each three-week period. From the data, it can be observed that some students made significant progress, while others did not.

For example, students F and O made remarkable progress throughout the nine weeks, with consistent scores in each progress monitoring period. In contrast, some students such as K did not make any progress, as their progress monitoring scores remained consistently low throughout the intervention.

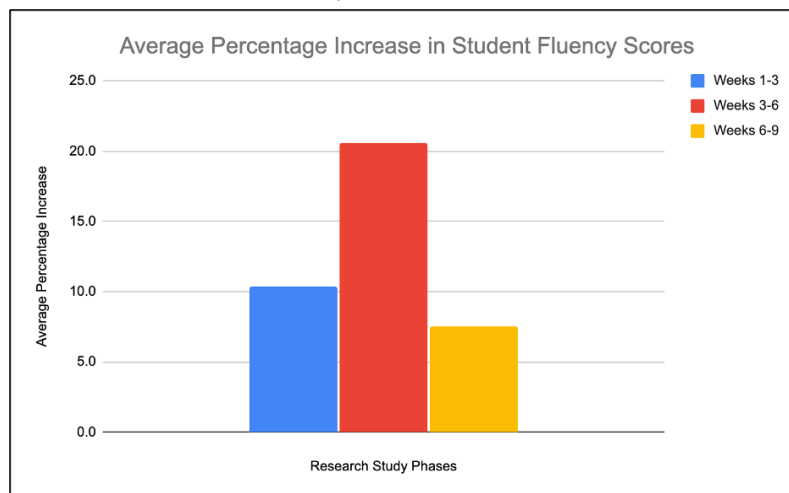
From an examination of the data, it appears that there are a few outliers in the dataset. For example, Student B had very high benchmark and progress monitoring scores compared to the rest of the class, while Student K had consistently low scores.

It is important to investigate these outliers further to determine if there are any factors that contributed to their scores. Outliers can be indicative of exceptional performance or a potential issue that needs to be addressed.

Effectiveness of Intervention Phases

Figure 2

Average Percentage Increase in Student Fluency Scores



Note: This graph describes the average percentage increase in student fluency scores through each phase of the study. Percentage Increase was determined using the following equation;

$$\text{Percentage Increase} = \left[\frac{(\text{Final Value} - \text{Starting Value})}{|\text{Starting Value}|} \right] \times 100$$

*The initial phase of the trial included an outlier, with a student showing a percentage increase of 104% between weeks 1 and 3.

The percentage increase (See Figure 2) was calculated for all students, by taking their score at the beginning of the phase and comparing it to their score at the end of each phase. The phases consisted of weeks 1-3, weeks 3-6, and weeks 6-9. After the percentage increase was

found for each student, the average was taken from each phase in order to determine the average percentage increase in student fluency scores.

During weeks 1-3, the teacher administered a baseline fluency assessment on the first and third weeks. During this time, no repeated reading interventions were conducted. Between weeks 1-3, the average percentage increase in student fluency scores was 10.4%. It is important to note that this phase of the trial included an outlier, with a student showing a percentage increase of 104% between weeks 1 and 3.

During the second phase, the teacher began implementing the repeated reading fluency interventions daily. Percentage increase was calculated by comparing assessment scores from week six and week three. The average percentage increase in student fluency scores during this phase was 20.6%.

In the final phase, the teacher continued using repeated reading fluency interventions daily, but also began to encourage reading at home by sending home the reading passages nightly. Percentage increase was calculated by comparing assessment scores from week six and week nine. The average percentage increase in student fluency scores during this phase was 7.5%.

Looking at this data, it appears that the most effective phase of the study was between weeks 3-6, when the teacher began the repeated reading intervention with the students. On the contrary, students appear to have made the least amount of growth between weeks 6-9 of the study when parents were involved with repeated reading at home. In fact, students made less growth during this period than they did during the initial three weeks when no intervention was being administered.

Analyzing the Significance

Table 4

Statistic Significance of Phases

Weeks	P-Value
3 and 6	Statistically Significant; P Value equals .0137
6 and 9	Not Statistically Significant; P Value equals 0.1998
Weeks 3 and 9 (Overall)	Not Statistically Significant; P Value equals 0.1791

In order to determine the effectiveness of each phase, and the overall effectiveness of the study, the P-value of each progress monitoring assessment was measured using a paired test (Table 4). If the P-Value resulted in a value $< .05$, it was statistically significant.

The first P-Value was calculated using individual scores from week 3, when students were not receiving the intervention, and week 6, when students had received the intervention for three weeks. These scores resulted in a P-Value .0137, which is statistically significant. This means that there was a statistically significant change in scores between when students were not receiving the intervention, and when students had three weeks of the intervention administered by the teacher.

The second P-Value was calculated using individual scores from week 6, when students had received the intervention for three weeks, and week 9, when students had received the intervention for another three weeks in addition to parents reading the fluency passages with them at home. These scores resulted in a P-Value 0.1998, which is not statistically significant.

There was no statistically significant difference between the teacher providing the intervention, and the parents.

Finally, a P-value was calculated using the individual students' scores from week 3 when students were not receiving the intervention, and the scores from week 9, in order to assess the overall effect of the study. These scores resulted in a P-Value 0.1791 , which is not statistically significant. There was no statistically significant difference between student scores before receiving the intervention, and after. This implies that, although there was originally a significant jump in student scores, the difference between the initial scores and the scores at the end of the study were not statistically significant, and no overall effect was observed.

The data study conducted on first-grade students over a 9-week repeated reading intervention showed varied results in terms of progress made by individual students. The study used Fastbridge Decodable Words Assessment to assess students and recorded benchmark and progress monitoring scores throughout the study. The data set indicated that some students made significant progress while others did not, with a few outliers in the dataset. The percentage increase was calculated for all students to determine the average percentage increase in student fluency scores, and the data showed that the most effective phase of the study was between weeks 3-6 when the teacher began the repeated reading intervention with the students. However, the data also revealed that involving parents in the intervention during weeks 6-9 did not show statistically significant progress compared to the teacher providing the intervention. Outliers in the dataset are indicative of exceptional performance or potential issues that need to be addressed.

Conclusion

This study aimed to identify the effects that daily repeated reading had on first-grade students' oral reading fluency scores and to what extent parental involvement impacted fluency. The data collection tools included fluency benchmark scores and bi-weekly progress monitoring scores over nine weeks.

Student benchmark scores were taken using the Fastbridge Decodable Words Assessment. This allowed the researcher to get a baseline of a student's reading fluency abilities without prior interventions or instruction. The hope was for students to increase their fluency scores by the end of the 9-week trial. When the initial assessment was taken, 50% of the class was deemed "below benchmark" in district fluency standards. On the other hand, 50% of the students assessed were on or above the benchmark. When the final progress monitoring assessment was taken, 68% of the students assessed were on or above the benchmark, and 31% were below the benchmark. However, of the eight students who began the study below the benchmark, only three could improve their scores enough to be considered proficient by the end of the study, and on the other hand, of the 11 students who began the study on or above benchmark, only five of those students increased their scores by the end of the nine weeks. The scores of the remaining six students decreased by the end of the study.

The study's effectiveness was determined by measuring the P-value of each progress monitoring assessment using a paired test. A P-value less than .05 was considered statistically significant. The first P-value was calculated by comparing the scores of students from week 3, when they were not receiving the intervention, to week 6, when they had received it for three weeks, resulting in a statistically significant P-value of .0137. The second P-value compared the scores of week 6 to week 9 when students received the intervention and parents read fluency passages with them at home, resulting in a non-statistically significant P-value of 0.1998. The

last P-value compared the scores of week 3 to week 9 to assess the overall effect of the study, resulting in a non-statistically significant P-value of 0.1791. Although there was an initial significant increase in scores, there was no statistically significant difference between the initial scores and those at the end of the study, indicating no overall effect.

There were variables in the study, including two outliers in the initial benchmark assessment. Student B had very high benchmark and progress monitoring scores compared to the rest of the class, while Student K had consistently low scores. This could be due to several factors outside the researcher's control. However, these factors affect the data when calculated for the overall growth and effectiveness of the study.

Another variable occurred during the final phase in weeks 6-9. The study had planned to give a survey to parents before and after weeks 6-9 to gather information on the family's reading habits and the child's access to books, with the hope of gaining insight into this parental involvement component of the study. However, only 2 out of 23 parents completed the initial survey. As a result, the decision was made by the researcher to refrain from administering the second survey or using any of its data. Parent involvement in this study in and of itself was a variable. The study was explained to all families, and expectations were shared weekly. However, all parents cannot be guaranteed to read the required fluency passage nightly. This could affect the scores and validity of this phase of the study.

In conclusion, this study aimed to investigate the impact of daily repeated reading on first-grade students' oral reading fluency scores and the role of parental involvement in this process. Although the progress monitoring assessments showed an initial significant increase in scores, there was no statistically significant difference between the initial scores and the scores at the end of the study, indicating no overall effect. Variables such as outliers, along with the

parental involvement component, may have affected the study's results. Further research with larger sample sizes and more rigorous control over variables is needed to confirm these findings.

Recommendations

Based on this study's findings, several recommendations can be made to inform best practices for improving first-grade students' reading fluency. First, researchers should ensure a large enough sample size to ensure statistical significance and account for outliers. A larger sample size will help capture the overall effectiveness of any studied interventions. Additionally, researchers should consider other factors that may impact reading fluency, such as socio-economic status and language barriers, and account for them in their study design.

Secondly, future research should investigate more ways to involve parents in children's reading development. The study found that parental involvement had a potentially important role in improving students' reading fluency but that the planned survey to gather more information on this component was not successful due to low participation. Researchers should consider alternative ways to collect data on parent involvement and analyze its impact on students' reading fluency, such as through direct observations or interviews with parents.

Finally, educators and parents can use daily repeated reading to support first-grade students' reading fluency development. Although the study did not find statistically significant improvements in overall reading fluency, the initial significant increase in scores during the first three weeks suggests that repeated reading can be a helpful technique for improving reading fluency. Teachers can incorporate repeated reading into their daily routines and track progress over time to monitor for improvements. However, it may not be effective to administer this intervention in a whole-group setting. The data showing that only three students managed to raise their fluency scores from below benchmark to proficient suggests that this intervention may

not be effective on a beginning reader learning to decode words. These students would benefit from intensive phonics and phonemic awareness instruction. Students proficient in reading and decoding words may benefit from this repeated reading intervention. The recommendation would be to utilize a repeated reading intervention in small group formats only, focusing on those students who do not have trouble decoding words and are working on fluency and comprehension skills. This highlights the importance of differentiating instruction to meet the specific needs of each student rather than implementing a one-size-fits-all approach that many popular curricula use to teach beginning reading.

Appendix A

Levels KG & 1 Progress Monitoring Form 1

ran jog pod nod van

man yet gag zap sum

fit hit cab tax lag

bid den wet lop map

sob nap gum pot rim

leg tin tap mat bag

kid rat rod net lid

jig fed cot gut log

nit mid fin dab bit

dot top win fad men

Appendix B

Levels KG & 1 Progress Monitoring Form 2

zip wax hug rot mix

tan kit sad lag dot

bat gas pop ox jog

fig cup nat lad sub

pal fun rib lop fox

beg job jam nip hip

tab map fin mid hen

gum bob rim pot nap

pig leg tin tap con

bag nag bed cot sob

Appendix C

Levels KG & 1 Progress Monitoring Form 3

gum cod tap yak rot

vet zap sap hog wet

jab dab fit beg met

nap pan lit con ten

nut gas rig pet sun

tin sub log rip pop

men wag bud cab ban

dig jug hum fix hid

ran rat fig led yum

ox bid bug jog rag

Appendix D

Levels KG & 1 Progress Monitoring Form 4

sat dad fig ham pod

zen van gas yet box

mid jog leg ram cod

nod tan wed ten pal

con sip hot cap bug

beg dig tin log ran

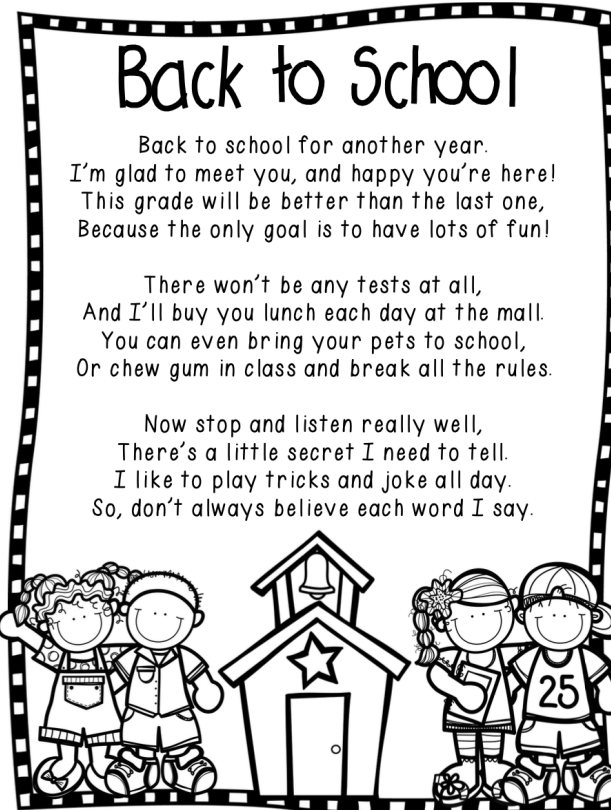
jig dot bat tug nut

pot hum gap sun rag

bad sob rob sad mug

fun lip lag dog nit

Appendix E



Fairness

Fairness can be shown,
at home or at school.
It isn't that difficult,
if you follow these rules.

If you're playing a game,
taking turns is the key.
Or it won't be very fun,
I'm sure we'll agree.

If you've got candy,
for your friends to share,
they'll each need the same.
You'll need to be fair.

Fairness is important,
for you and for me.
So try to be fair.
It's easy, can't you see?

Showing Respect

Respect the environment by...
Never littering on the ground.
Polluting will certainly spoil,
The earth that we live on,
Destroying our water, air and soil.



Respect objects by...
Joining together as a team,
To put things like toys away.
Make it a point to use them gently,
So they can last another day.

Respect animals by...
Making good choices regularly,
And not harming living things.
Take good care of your pets,
And joy to their lives you'll bring.



Respect people by...
Treating others just the way,
You'd like to be treated too.
Give many appreciations to peers,
And to yourself always be true!

Fire Drill

Today our teacher taught us,
A really important skill.
We learned exactly what to do,
In case of a fire drill!

We lined up very quickly,
And moved silently through the hall.
We left our books and pencils,
And kept our coats hung on the wall.

We walked outside in a line,
And stayed together as a class.
Then, our teacher counted us,
While we waited on the grass.

We weren't allowed to run or speak,
Until the drill was through.
If there ever is a real fire at school,
Will you know what to do?

Stormy Day



The wind bangs, making a drumming beat.
Rain splashes and splatters in the street.
When the leaves start scrambling around,
They make a scraping, scratching sound.

Then the wind starts getting stronger,
And lightning streaks grow even longer.
The thunder spreads across the sky,
With a loud striking noise, way up high!

When the sprinkling rain no longer drops,
It signals that the storm has stopped.
Then the clouds begin to clear away,
And the sky is no longer dark or grey.

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