Developing Reading Potential Using Repeated Reading and Phonic Awareness

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Developing Reading Potential
Using Repeated Reading
and
Phonic Awareness
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Running head: DEVELOPING READING
Abstract

The author examined the relationship between the assistance given with an independence clue book, and an individual reading instruction by the author, with a reading text selected by the student. This design also involved a built in success model with repeated readings. The results, in the units of words per minute, were graphed and became a visual reinforcement for success. This was a single subject design and included twenty minutes of individual reading instruction per day with a pre and post-test evaluation along with daily and weekly comparisons. The student was tested on a Curriculum-Based Assessment.
Acknowledgement

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Developing Reading Potential
Using Repeated Reading and Phonic Awareness

The U.S. Department of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services spoke of the challenges of America 2000 (Davila, 1991). Our goal for children with disabilities is to develop their potential and maximize their participation and productivity in society, but the facts are alarming. Brubaker (1991) stated that 700,000 students per year drop out of schools in the United States. According to Brubaker (1991), these dropouts will earn $237 billion less during their lifetime than will high school graduates. Students who are two or more years below reading grade level are major candidates for dropping out of school (Quinn, 1991). To increase these students' potential in life, it is of paramount importance to increase their reading ability.

In order to insure success these students with poor academic skills must be placed in remedial programs as early as possible. Early intervention is definitely the key to children's later success (Clay, 1979).
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Students who fail to learn to read during the first grades are already far behind their peers and will have difficulty catching up (Wasik & Slavin, 1993). At an early age, children observe the importance of the written language (Wilson, Mosley, & Shirley, 1992). Wasik & Slavin (1993) argued that it may be easier to prevent learning problems in the first place than to attempt to remediate them in later grades. Hynd, Connor, and Nieves (1988) are convinced as these children mature, the specifics of their learning disabilities evolve into more general deficits across many skill areas. So, the longer these difficulties occur, the more difficult they are to solve, and the more far-reaching are their implications. There are students, however, who were not privileged enough to get early intervention procedures. How do we insure maximum ability with older students?

High school students whose reading level is below 4th grade survive on their wit and charm, as well as memorizing, cheating, failing, and not caring strategies. Armstrong (1983) stated that high school
students with learning disabilities meet increasing demands in terms of reading assignments in mainstreamed subject areas. So as students grow, their reading competence becomes increasingly demanding. To be successful in the upper grades, they must be able to read and absorb knowledge presented in textbook form (Fowler, 1992). Horn, O'Donnell, Vitulano (1983) indicated that the majority of the learning disabled students in high school were at a substantial disadvantage in trying to comprehend textbooks which have an average readability of 9.5 grade level. Rose, McCintire, and Dowdy (1982) suggested that oral reading must be viewed as a survival skill, because of the frequent demands placed on students to demonstrate proficiency. Fowler (1992) stated that our objective as educators must be to strive to discover what works and what does not work to improve reading competence.

Somewhere down the road these students never progressed on their own. These students have been left behind and have no skills for finding their own way. They have wondered around in the forest of words, lost, afraid, and angry. Coxrath (1988) believed that
schools cannot continue to patronize at-risk students.

According to Coxrath (1988), these students are at risk, not stupid, and they are usually discouraged and defeated learners. Pflauon and Pascarella (1982) stated that L.D. children's feelings of incompetence shows up in their apparent lack of effort. This may impede their acquisition of skilled reading behaviors.

A pattern of motivational problems exists among learning disabled and other poor readers (Butkowsky, & Willows, 1980). Vacca and Padak (1990) stated that students often do not read well because they believe that they cannot be successful. Richardson, Ayers, and Zalud (1992) described remedial students with poor self images, who always avoid reading tasks, procrastinate, and approach assignments without any purpose. Butkowsky and Willows (1980) wrote that these reading weaknesses cause low self-esteem and inaccurate perception of both their talents and failures. These students are turned off to reading and are, therefore, at risk of dropping out completely. Thus, the dynamic need of success must be addressed in any reading program with older children who possess extreme weakness.
To build in success in reading, several components must be addressed simultaneously. Students must be able to see their own success on a daily basis. Only constant success can overcome an already entrenched attitude of failure. Decoding skills and phonics must be incorporated. Yet because isolated drills do not show relevance, a whole language approach within a context environment must be used. Reading instruction, during actual reading of context, allows the students to incorporate these decoding and phonics skills. This will allow the student to succeed in an atmosphere of independence, pride, and ownership.

**Seeing Success Through Repeated Readings**

To build in success, students must see improvement on a regular, short-term basis. This is extremely hard, since reading requires so much time and reading levels improve so slowly that students do not notice their own improvement. These students have little patience and expect failure. To encourage them to proceed, they must be shown that they are indeed going
in the right direction. Repeated readings are an excellent modem to accomplish both speed and confidence in the student.

Samuel (1987) suggested that to build up reading fluency automaticity practice is required, and he suggested repeated readings. Torgesen (1986) concluded that word recognition process in reading must occur fluently, rapidly, effortlessly, and accurately, before higher level comprehension can be fully developed. The most common methods for increasing the fluency involved practice and over-learning (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Torgesen (1986) wrote that learning disabled children appear to have particular difficulty acquiring fluent word identification skills. Torgesen (1986) also suggested that to increase reading comprehension, these students must have instructional experiences that build both speed and accuracy in decoding.

Armstrong (1983) found that by increasing the oral reading rate, students also expand their reading comprehension. Armstrong (1983) concluded a significant amount of time should be allotted to oral
reading instruction. O'Shea and O'Shea (1988) also agreed that by using repeated readings, students improve both word recognition and comprehension. O'Shea and O'Shea (1988) determined that the increase in comprehension was due to the fact that this practice involved reading passages rather than isolated words. Weinstein and Cook (1992) postulated that students can only achieve understanding when they are able to recognize words without attention to decoding process. Consequently repeated reading give practice in fluency, increase in comprehension, and success on a daily basis.

Independence

Pflaum and Pascarella (1982) found if learning disabled students had greater control over their self-generated effort, then they would believe in themselves and their own ability in other settings. Students who use their own strategies for decoding, improve their independence with the printed word (Fowler, 1992). Therefore teachers must turn over ownership and release some control of the reading activity to the students.
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themselves, thus allowing them to take their own risks (Fowler, 1992). Billingsley and Wildman (1990) also determined that a critical component of reading instruction is helping the students develop control over their own skills and strategies. For independent reading, the responsibility must be shifted gradually toward the student. Therefore the adult must become only a supportive and sympathetic audience, a guide, not a leader (Paunscar & Brown, 1982). In order to combat reading failure, Pflaum and Pascarella (1982) concluded that long-term, independent learning must require self-generated effort. Independence and motivation must be added to any reading program to counterbalance the low self-esteem and learned helplessness (Torgesen, 1986) that children with disabilities demonstrate.

Decoding and Phonics

Fluency, repeated reading, and improving attitudes are extremely important and necessary, but phonics must also play a significant part. Phonics is the key that
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unlocks the door to unknown words and therefore helps to build vocabulary and universal knowledge. Rose, McEntire, and Dowdy (1982) suggested that an accelerated learning rate requires instructional practices involving phonics, pre-teaching words, and error correction. Students, according to Uhry and Shepherd (1993), are expected to deduce phonics patterns solely from exposure to print. But for reading to be successful, Rastall (1993) explained that the rules of phonics must be introduced in the initial stages of learning. Otherwise students have no rules for decoding unfamiliar words. Wilson, Mosley, and Cooke (1992) recognized that when children begin to write they form a strong connection between oral and written language.

Uhry and Shepherd (1993) suggested that combining sound categorization with letter training can increase sensitivity to the sounds in words, and this is a prerequisite for skilled decoding. The phonological constituents of blending, segmenting, and rhyming seemed to identify specific competencies related to
early reading mastery (O'Conner, Jenkins, Leicaster, & Slocum, 1993). Phonological skills are necessary for reading acquisition and should be taught before students receive reading instructions (Ball & Blachman, 1991).

Students that are experiencing trouble with reading show evidence of their lack of ability to both blend sounds and segmenting words (Vellutino & Scanlon, 1987). The research has shown that phonological knowledge is an indicator for early success in learning to read (Mann, 1993). Phonetic awareness has a proven relationship to reading success and its deficiency is one of the more consistent characteristics of poor readers. (Mann and Brady, 1988). Schink and Rice (1987) found remedial readers benefited from phonic knowledge. Uhry and Sheperd (1992) said that combining sounds with letter training was the most effective method. Adams (1990) determined that the combination approach in which direct instruction in phonics along with a meaning-based approach to reading instruction was the most
successful. Uhry and Sheperd (1992) showed evidence that indicated that instruction in phonetic segmentation and phonetic spelling can help children who have a history of poor reading.

Mann (1993) documented that good and poor readers differ in certain language processing skills and that these competences related to phoneme awareness. Other research has supported emphasis on letter-sound correspondence especially for children at risk for reading deficiencies (O'Conner, Jenkins, Leicester, & Slocum, 1993). According to O'Conner et al. (1993) phonics is the critical element for successful reading programs. Phonic knowledge is a right of passage from the darkness of frustration into the light of knowledge. Carnine and Silbert (1979) stated that phonics is not only a word-attack strategy but also an error-correction strategy that learners may actively employ independently. Phonics awareness will improve these students' confidence, their independence, and their reading mastery.
Whole Language

Children with learning disabilities may not be as good at generalizing their skills into different situations (Rottman & Cross, 1990). Therefore teaching phonics outside the normal reading atmosphere could prove counter productive. Extracting meaning from a message must be accomplished within the natural setting of literature (Weinstein & Cooke, 1992). Borkowski, Johnston, and Reid (1987) concluded that LD students have lower planning ability, are more disorganized, and lack the skills to generalize out of context. Therefore phonics and decoding must be taught during the actual reading lessons. By using the whole language approach the student with leaning disabilities does not have to generalize into a different content area. In the whole language process reading, decoding, and phonics become one. Decoding is the interaction with print that prompts the construction of meaning (Wilson, Mosley, & Shirley, 1992). Comprehension on the other hand is constructing meaning from decoding at a rate that allows chunks of information to be stored in long term memory (Wilson et al., 1992). In order to have
comprehension the student must be able to decode within a reading selection. In this way the student can relate to the rules of phonics when actually reading. This is especially true in the higher grades where the remedial readers have experienced so much failure.

Summary

Several factors must be combined in a successful reading program: proven success through repeated readings, phonic rules that the student can use independently, and phonic instruction within the general context of reading itself. The author attempted to integrated a program of various strategies that will be incorporated into one "whole" process and will allow students to "help" themselves.

The major issues addressed in this study were the following:

1. Does repeated reading enhance the acquisition of fluency and also accomplish success oriented confidence in an LD student? Assuming that repeated readings relate to both fluency and comprehension, can it also restructure long-standing failure beliefs?
2. With instructional tutoring of phonics within a textual context, will this improve a student's decoding skills on unknown words?

3. Can the student with learning disabilities learn to generalize phonics rules in text independently by using a pre-written Clue Book (Appendix C)?

The author expected that this retraining program will enhance reading strategies and will provide the LD student with the independent motivation necessary to use these strategies with all reading assignments. As Fowler (1992) explained, educators must be willing to take risks and evaluate all results. Since the level of literacy can determine academic success, social well being, and future self-worth, it behooves all educators of at-risk students to find the path to reading success.

These goals are not new. Every educator knows the value of teaching reading and the implications for those who do not achieve a high enough level to succeed in this world. As Fowler (1992) concluded, literacy can raise confidence and can provide a means of
fulfilling consciousness in addition to being the spring board to adult thinking. Therefore, teaching reading will lead children to a more successful future in their lives and their independence. This will accomplish our goal of developing students potential and maximizing their participation in the year 2000.
Method

Subject

The student selected for this study was a male student in a rural high school. He has been in a special education program since elementary school. The participant was in a self contained English classes for ten years. Now the student is in all mainstream classes, with extra help both in and out of his regular classrooms by the special education teachers. Test performed by the school psychologists indicate severe discrepancies between achievement and ability due to psychological processing disorder, qualifying him for special educational services within his school district. Testing shows that the individual has normal hearing, vision, and motor skills, while evidencing a specific learning disability in the psychological processing of both auditory and visual information, along with attention deficient. On the Weschsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (Weschler, 1974) he obtained a Full Scale Intelligence
Quotient within Normal limits. Weak areas showed up on the subtests of the WISC-R to be verbal comprehension, degree of abstract thinking, verbal reasoning, spatial ability, sequencing ability, freedom from distractibility, attention span, and auditory short-term memory.

According to the Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery-Revised (Woodcock and Johnson, 1989) his scores indicated specific difficulties in the Letter-Word Identification, Passage Comprehension and Dictation. This student has strength in math calculations and math problem solving. He does well in a one-on-one setting and hands-on instruction.

The participant was selected because of his low reading ability, his desire to learn and his paramount need for intervention in his regular classes. His low reading ability has caused much frustration throughout his academic career. The student is at risk of dropping out of school. It is of paramount concern of the student, the special education teacher, and the parents that the student get one-on-one tutoring in
reading to increase his chances for success. Since this student is distracted easily, he was instructed within a designated room outside the regular resource room.

The subject was selected from those students identified as Learning Disabled by the criteria developed by the school division and were receiving services in the Special Education Program.

The student was asked if he would be interested and his parents also were included in the discussions. All parties agreed with this reading program (Appendix A). Also the school principal was consulted and agreed with both the program and the parameters of the study. The participant was never named in this program to insure his privacy. The treatment of the participant was in accordance with the "Ethical Principles of Psychologists" (American Psychological Association, 1981).
Setting

The setting for this study was done in a rural county high school. The student body of the high school was approximately 700 and was served by a faculty and support staff of 66 employees.

The high school included ninth grade through twelfth. There was a wide selection of vocational programs which included Cosmetology, Agriculture, Food Services, Health Occupations, Business, Drafting, Building Trades and Automotive. The school system served children living in small villages, rural areas and one large recreational resort. The Blue Ridge Mountain Range ran thorough the entire county. These mountains gave a panoramic view throughout the country side. There was no incorporated town within this entire mountainous county. The school system was the major employer of the county. Therefore most residents commuted out of the county to the surrounding towns and cities for employment opportunities. The county's main attraction was the mountains and the rural setting of large farms and orchards.
Family income ranged from less than $8,000.00 to over $100,000.00. Approximately 35 percent qualified under the federal guidelines for free food programs in the school system county wide. Parental education ranged from less than an eighth grade to PhD degrees. Approximately 30-35 percent of the population are represented by minority groups, with a seasonal migrate population of Spanish speaking individuals.

Measures

Data were collected from a curriculum-based measurement designed for this study on a reading level equivalent to grade 3.5. The passages were taken from Developing Reading Strategies: Challenges series (Dillingofski, Menconi and Willis, 1991). A curriculum-based measurement system can be used to monitor students' academic growth (Deno, 1985). With CBM, teachers (a) use a prescriptive measurement system first to sample the curriculum systematically to produce tests and then regularly administer the short
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tests representing the regular curriculum; (b) determine the curriculum goal for a student; and (c) use the assessment information to monitor progress and to adjust programs necessary to enhance a student outcome (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hamlett, & Ferguson).

Tindal and Marston (1990) defined curriculum-based measurement as a process in which they assessed production response on a timed basis to provide data for a variety of educational decisions. According to Shinn (1989), an fluency-based measurement that is timed can assess a student's performance. Fowler (1992) recognized any assessment for reading fluency has to include speed, accuracy, and chunking ability. Fowler (1992) recognized that for a reader to construct meaning, decoding must proceed at a rate no slower than 200 words per minute. This assessment is used as an integrated teaching/learning approach, and is recommended for assessing fluency and the rate of performance of the most basic skills that students need to know automatically (Choate, Enright, Miller, Poteet, & Rakes, 1992).
According to Jenkins and Jewell (1993), curriculum-based measures, in relationship to reading, have been shown to be correlated significantly with other measures of reading performance and growth, including performance on standardized achievement tests, teacher judgement, grade placement, and placement in special education and Chapter 1 programs. In 1988, Fuchs, Fuchs, and Maxwell assessed the validity of four reading comprehension measures. They concluded that the consistent performance of oral reading as a measure of progress demonstrated that a correct oral reading rate score demonstrated the strongest criterion validity. Choate, Enright, Miller, Poteet and Rakes (1995) have concluded that curriculum-based assessment is recommended as the format for assessing and programming in reading fluency and comprehension. Jitendra and Kameenui (1993) stated that either criterion- or curriculum-based assessment provides information about the acquisition of specific knowledge within a content domain. Due to a mounting database supporting the effectiveness of the curriculum-based
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assessment, Reisberg and Wolf, 1988, stated that this type of assessment has unlimited potential for enhancing the quality of services within both regular and special education settings. Fuchs, (1986) indicated that the research on CBM shows the rationale for at least biweekly measurement, the need for graphing data, and the importance of employing data utilization rules for determining when and how to modify students' instructional programs.

For this study seven different passages were utilized (Appendix B). These excerpts were timed for one minute. As in a study of oral reading errors done by Rose, McEntire, and Dowdy (1982), "an error is defined as any mispronunciation, omissions, substitutions, and unknown words. The few exceptions will be (a) omitted or mispronounced articles (e.g., the) (b) suffixes such as ing, ed, and s, and (c) verb tense changes." These passages were taped for accurate scoring. In Armstrong's (1983) study the tapes were later analyzed to determine the correct reading rate per minute.
The pre-assessment occurred on the first day with a reading of three passages. Each reading was timed for one minute only. The student had not seen nor was he familiar with these readings before this assessment. This established a baseline for comparison. The post assessment also included three reading assignments unfamiliar to the student, timed at one minute each, and evaluated for correct words read per minute.

Procedure and Design

The research design utilized a single-subject design, for a four-week period. On the first day the individual was given the pre-test to determine a baseline. Then the student was given The Clue Book (Appendix C). The exercise began by training the student how to use the book, how to find what he would need, and to familiarize himself with the sections. Mann (1993) determined that understanding that words can be broken down into phoneme-size units is clearly
an achievement that has both natural and environmental determinants. The Clue Book helped the student understand the syllable break down of larger, more complicated words. Then the student orally read a fourth grade fiction book working on phonics, decoding, and syllables within the context of the reading assignment. He was instructed to use The Clue Book as much as possible, enabling him to have an independence in his own decoding skills. These reading sessions lasted between 30-40 minutes a day. During the last five minutes of the lesson the student chose one of the reading assessment passages and the teacher and the student read it again together. After this second reading, the student was allowed to study or read the passage to himself. During this review, he received help from the teacher decoding any words he felt unsure about. Then the student was timed for one minute on this same passage to determine fluency rate.

Sindelar (1987) stated that the idea underlying the repeated readings approach is that students should master material before progressing to more difficult
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passages. Sindelar (1987) said that mastery is seldom achieved with a single reading, especially for students with learning disabilities.

The criterion for which a student masters reading fluency was still in question. Samuel (1979) has recommended that students read passages until they reach a criterion of 85 words per minute, while Dahl (1979) recommended a criterion of 100 words per minute. Alternatively O'Shea, Sindelar, and O'Shea (1985) stated that a student should only be allowed to re-read the same passage three times. In this study, the student re-read the passage a total of six times. The first reading gave a baseline. For the next reading, the teacher and the student re-read together. The student read the same passage by himself for the next four readings. The re-readings accomplished (1) mastery of word recognition, (2) evaluation analysis, and (3) success. Each day's fluency rate was graphed as a steadfast visual reminder of improvement. Borkowski, Weyhing, and Carr (1988) stated that when negative attributions become entrenched, LD children who attribute success to luck may not use, appreciate,
or generalize newly acquired strategies to their reading assignments. Borkowski, Weyhing, and Carr (1988) postulated that students with learning disabilities needed to attribute success to their own effort. The graph proved to be a positive reinforcement for both effort and success, exactly what students with learning disabilities need to see and understand.

For the remaining three weeks the student spent 30-40 minutes using *The Clue Book* to increase independent decoding skills, doing repeated readings and practicing his oral reading ability. When decoding help was needed the instructor used the three strategies that O'Conner, Jenkins, Leicester and Slocum used in their 1993 study. These strategies were rhyming, blending and segmenting with the added help of a phonics book. O'Shea and O'Shea (1988) stated that special education students need greater amounts of practice at given skill levels, and must spend as much time as possible practicing reading whole passages. O'Shea, Munson, and O'Shea (1984) believed that reading
rate should be one criterion of success and that the same passages should be read at least three times. O'Shea and O'Shea (1988) concluded that through repeated passage reading, word recognition and comprehension skill are developed. At the end of the four weeks the student was given a post test, comprised of the three unfamiliar curriculum-based assessment reading passages to be compared to the pre-assessment done earlier. These two average reading rates, at the beginning of the program and the end, were compared. The daily rates were also compared to see if the fluency rate had improved with repeated readings. These results were graphed for a visual comparison also.
RESULTS

Displayed in Figure I are the results of the first days testing. Three Curriculum-Based Assessments sections (Appendix B) were read and the scores are indicated on this graph. Errors were not counted, only correctly pronounced words were tallied to give the number of words read orally within one minute.

Pretest Assessment
Figure 1

![Graph showing words per minute for 1st, 2nd, 3rd readings and average total.]
The subject was not enthusiastic about this testing and did not exhibit much effort at the beginning of this study. This could have greatly influenced these results. The average reading for the pretest assessment was only 52 words per minute. The subject had not pre-read the sections and struggled through the passages, not even accomplishing 60 words a minute. This score was used as an introductory assessment to determine the student's reading rate at the particular level. The reading level for these reading sections was between 4.2 and 4.7 grade equivalent. The student then was given instructions about The Clue Book and was able to familiarize himself with its context.

The next day, after the pretest assessment, the student read another reading assessment section and then plotted the correct number of words read. His words per minute score for the first day of reading was 67 correctly read. (Figure 2) The student was then instructed in phonetics only on a need basis as he proceeded to read orally The Mask from the Gooseberry Series written by R. L. Stine. This book was his c
choice. When a decoding problem arose the student was instructed and encouraged to help find it for himself in *The Clue Book* (Appendix C) written for this study. The student had an average of about twenty minutes of individual oral reading per day. For the next four days the student read the same reading assessment selection, recorded his own results onto the graph, and then he would read *The Mask* for twenty minutes. Figure 2 consists of the results of the first full week of reading instruction.
For the next three weeks the subject read a reading assessment passage (Appendix B) every day, was clocked per minute and then orally read *The Mask* for twenty minutes with the instructions in phonetics and back-up reinforcement with *The Clue Book*. The student graphed his own results. The same assessment passage was read consecutively for one whole week. The student was allowed to practice this reading assessment before he orally read it for a score. Any practice was done solely on a volunteer basis. The student asked twice to be allowed to clock the instructor to see how fast a particular passage had to be read in order to achieve 200 words per minute. On one occasion, the student requested the instructor to read with him aloud to help him practice the passage correctly. This practice was done on the fourth reading, second week. He received 178, the highest score he had so far achieved.
Figure 3 shows the second week of reading. By the second week the student started to pre-read the assessment selections to enhance his chances of receiving a higher score.

The student received the highest score on the fifth day of testing, which was 228 words per minute. The average weekly score for the second week was 164.2 words per minute. This was a 65.8 word increase over the first week's scores.
Figure 4 lists the scores the subject achieved during the third week of this reading program.

As the results indicate the student’s scores are not as high as the previous week. The average weekly score for this third week was 134 words per minute as compared to 164 words per minute the week before. On the first day of the week the student complained that he was very tired and this could have influenced his score of 83 words per minute.
Figure 5 is the last week of testing. The fourth week scores were much higher than any of the previous weeks. The weekly average was 169 words per minute. On the third day and the fifth day the student received a score of 200 words per minute.

The student was very proud of the results of the four week graphing. He could see his own daily, as well as weekly improvement.
Figure 6 lists the post-test assessment done after the four weeks were finished. These three different reading scores were from unfamiliar assessment passages given to the student. The student was given no assistance on decoding but he was allowed to pre-read the passage. He was also permitted to use The Clue Book to do any independent decoding.
The post-test score was given as an after study base-line to be compared with the pre-test average assessment. The average reading score on the post-test was 94 words per minute. This is an increase of 42.33 words over the pre-test assessment. This is an approximately 56 percent increase from the beginning of the test to completion.

Figure 7 indicated the scores in the weekly comparison over the four-week period.
Figure 7 lists average scores per week. The first week average score was 98.4, the second week was 164.2, the third week was 134 and the fourth week was 169 correctly read words per minute. In an analysis of the average scores per week the results were as follows: From the first week to the second week there was a 44 percent increase, the second week to the third week there was a 18 percent decrease, and the third week to the fourth week there was a 20 percent increase. The average overall increase from the first week to the last week was 58 percent.
DISCUSSION

This study was designed to address several issues, directly related and indirectly related to the process of improving reading. Since reading is an accumulation of visual, oral, cognitive, physical, and metacognitive skills, among others, it is extremely difficult for the student with disabilities in reading, to factor all the processes needed to achieve a successful level.

Added to this is the fact that reading levels increase so gradually that an individual will be improving but not realizing it. Any reading study done within a period of one month can expect marginal improvement at best. The purpose of this study was to teach reading with a visual measure of success, not only for the context of this study itself, but also for the confidence of the student.

As Choate, Enright, Miller, Poteet, and Rakes (1995) stated that the use of frequent assessment and charting allows progress toward mastery and attainment of short-term instructional objectives and that charting, itself is an appealing way of presenting achievement
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progress. Repeating Reading has built in success, over
time and because of practice. Therefore Repeated
Reading reinforces both the idea that success is
obtainable and with practice, improvement continually
increases.

Charting the increase in reading rate over the four
weeks was a visual reminded that proved to be more
powerful than any spoken words of encouragement. The
student in this study was extremely proud of the
improvement that the graph showed.

The idea that success breeds success will only be
believed when the individual student actually sees
improvement. This was evident by the fact that on the
first day the student read without much effort or
thought. On that day his reading score was 67 words
per minute. The student read the second day without
much care but his score still increased up to 75 words
per minute. This increase surprised the student. By
the third day, the student was voluntarily practicing
reading the assessment before the words per minute
score was taken. His practice score on that day was 92
words per minute. The student showed excitement about
beating his previous score. Three times during this study, he mispronounced several words at the very beginning and asked if he could start over. This request was honored because his attitude about reading was of paramount concern within the parameters of this study. The student wanted to read it over. That was practicing reading on a volunteer basis. He also had learned that he could get a better score if he practiced. His successful scores were determined by his own choice. This idea gave the student ownership in his own learning.

How the student acted after he recorded his score on the graph was also evidence that the scores meant something to him. If his scores improved he was pleased and then excited about reading the fiction book that day. On the few days that the student did not do as well on his reading scores, he was slow to get out the book and made comments like, "Do we have to read today?" This happened only twice and both days the student was observed to be extremely tired, or unhappy about other matters.
At the beginning of each week, when the student had to read a new reading selection from the Curriculum-Based Assessments, he always acted apprehensive. He knew his score would not be as high as the well practiced Fridays. He voiced this opinion on the second Monday. However, it was observed that every Tuesday he was always pleased about the improvement of his reading scores. By Wednesday the student was voluntarily practicing before a reading score was taken. It was also noted that the student continually asked to see the graph. He would always smile and say that he could beat that score. This comment became so predictable that it became a joke between the instructor and the student. He would then start silently re-reading, or asking for help in decoding certain words, without any cues to practice. On two occasions the student asked the instructor to read the selection in order to pace himself to get the 200 words per minute. While the instructor was orally reading the selection and being timed, the student was observed
Developing Reading

reading silently with the teacher. These actions indicate that he was concerned both with his score and was willing, on his own initiative, to practice to improve his reading. These comments also proved that the student believed this goal was reachable. He made it his race toward improvement. This is a student who has received only marginal success in academics. The pride in his own success showed up when he asked for a copy of the graph to take home and to show his family. What this student took away from this month-long study was a feeling of success, proof of that success, and the idea that practice does helps.

Another issue addressed in this study was the idea of independence through the use of *The Clue Book*. This was not well received by the student. He hated using the book to look up decoding problems. His criticism was negative but also pleading. His comment to the instructor on a daily basis was "Can't you just tell me!". Students with disabilities are sometimes given so much help they do not know how to help themselves. Too much help can result in LD students losing their own independence. They expect and receive too many
crutches. Therefore helping them to help themselves is, at times, a very big battle in itself. The student did not like *The Clue Book* and tried repeatedly to get help without opening the book. However during the post-test, after the student was told that there would be no assistance, he was seen opening *The Clue Book* to help himself to decode a word. The particular word he was looking up was still mispronounced, but the effort was there.

The first step of independence is to try to achieve on his own. The student did this by using *The Clue Book* on his own. The instructor noticed that although the student took the graph home to show his improvement, he left *The Clue Book*. He obviously felt that *The Clue Book* was not of any lasting value.

Did the student increase his ability to decode? This was not measured. It must be noted that while some words that he had difficulty decoding at the first of the reading book, he latter recognized throughout the text. Yet he continued to need assistance in decoding. But one thing was observed, there was some remembrance of the rules of phonetics. He could recite
what made a vowel long or short. He started looking for small words within the larger ones. The student was practicing some of the tools of decoding. He did not have to rely totally upon memory. However, to implant these concepts firmly into the student's long term memory, more practice is needed.

The idea of decoding within the content of general reading did work in this study. The student was reading a book he selected and was interested in the outcome of the story. Therefore the student showed motivation when decoding. He had a vested interested in sounding out the words to achieve a self appointed goal, to finish the story. When he became frustrated in his reading, he never wanted to end the story. He wanted the instructor to read instead. This student has since informed the instructor that there are other Goosebump books and that he would not mind reading another.

**Improvements**

Several extensions in this study would improve the validity of the test results. This study should
continue over a much longer period of time. This would not only help to measure improvements in the phonetics and decoding areas, but also help teach independence. As was already stated, independence is a life long skill and the concept is an idea that must be shown to work. The benefits from independence must be felt, to be understood completely. This can only happen over time. Experience is a long term teacher.

This study did not conclusively determine what error-correction method gives the best results for decoding difficulty. However the results of this study, did prove that the time allotted for decoding instruction did lead to some improvement in at least the fundamental rules governing oral reading. This phonical instruction allowed the student other avenues, besides relying totally on memorization, for decoding difficulty.

The instructor believes that the assessment should not be changed until the student reaches 200 words per minute at least three times. The 200 words per minute score will accomplish two objectives. The words in the selections will become so familiar that the student
will recognize them as sight words. The second goal is that it re-emphasizes the idea of success. A change in the reading selection should only take place with the consent of the student. This decision allows the student some control over his own progress. Letting the student have some decision making ability, helps give independence in his or her own learning.

In order to establish true validity, more than one student needs to be included in this study. To show relative comparison and true change a control group must be incorporated in the design of the study. A much larger sample of the population would also increase reliability of this study. It is the opinion of the author that a more extensive study needs to be done on a larger population for a longer period of time.
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Appendices
Appendix A
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Appendix A

Parents Permission

To: Parents

From: Resource and Reading, Special Ed. Teacher

Subject: Reading Program

has been chosen to participate in Reading Program. The student will be reading from his choice selection. The student will be assessed both before and after the four week period. This program is designed to strengthen the students' ability to sound out complex words and to understand the basic rules of phonics.

I, __________________, consent to participate (or to allow my child or legal subject to participate) in this research project entitled:

I acknowledge that the purpose of this study, the procedures to be followed, and the expected duration of my participation have been explained to me. Possible benefits of this project have been described to me, as have alternative procedures, if such procedures are applicable and available.
I acknowledge that I have had the opportunity to obtain additional information regarding this research project, and that any questions I have raised have been answered to my full satisfaction. Further, I understand that my (or my child's or legal subject's) participation in this research is voluntary, and I am free to withdraw my consent at any time and to discontinue participation in this project without prejudice. I understand that no information will be presented which will identify me (or my child or legal subject) as the subject of this study unless I give my permission in writing.

I understand that if I have concerns or complaints about my (or my child's or legal subject's) treatment in this study, I am encouraged to contact the Office of Academic Affairs at Longwood College at (804) 395-2010. Finally, I acknowledge that I have read and fully understand this consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Date:_______ Signed:__________________________ (Participant)

Date:_______ Signed:__________________________ (Witness)

Date:_______ Signed:__________________________ (Parent)

Date:_______ Signed:__________________________ (Legal Representative)

2.
Developing Reading

Appendix B
Last Friday I watched the late movie on TV. It was called Dracula. The movie was made in 1931. Mom had seen it before. "It's a classic," she said. "But it's scary." "I think I can take it," I said. So I watched it. It was about Count Dracula. He's a vampire. That means he bites their necks and then drinks their blood. He does this at night. During the day, he rests in a coffin. There's only one way to kill him. That's by driving a wooden stake through his heart.

The movie was a little spooky, but it was also O.K. There were bats flying around. There were big spider webs. Dracula had black hair and wore lots of dark eye make-up. One thing was just plain funny. To keep Dracula away, people would hold up garlic. That made me laugh.
Monday in school, I ran into my friend Kate. She's an old movie fan; she's seen them all. "Oh, Yeah," she said. "It's a classic-one of the greats of this century." "So I've heard," I said. "Have you heard about the original Dracula?" she asked. "What do you mean?" I asked. "Vlad the Impaler. The real Dracula. Check it out." The bell rang then, and we had to run to class. That afternoon, I stopped by the library. I was curious. I wanted to see if she was right.
On June 14, 1985, a flight took off from Athens, Greece. Captain John Testrake was the pilot. He turned the plane toward Rome. Uli Derickson was a flight attendant. She turned her attention toward her work. There were 153 people on the plane. Many were Americans on vacation. Suddenly there was shout in on board. Someone pushed Uli Derickson against the cockpit door. A man held a gun at her head. Another man held a live hand grenade. Both men shouted at Uli in Arabic. She did not understand them. She told them she spoke English and German.
One of the men yelled in German, "Open the cockpit door. We come to die." He wanted everyone alive when this was over. He turned the plane toward Beirut, Lebanon. The hijackers ran up and down the aisles beating more passengers.

Derickson knew Arab men respect the role of mother. She told the hijackers she had a seven year old son. She also knew some of the teaching of the Koran, the Muslim holy book. Derickson let the hijackers know she was interested in their country. She made tea. When the highjackers took the tea, Derickson knew she had won their respect.

Captain Testrake landed the plane in Beirut. Nobody there would talk to the hijackers. In Beirut Derickson talked the terrorists into freeing the old women and children. The other passengers forced themselves to stay calm. They knew their lives depended on not making the hijackers angry.
THE END OF THE FIRST OLYMPIC GAMES

Rome and Greece went to war. Greece lost. Now 9 people from Rome and other countries could compete 17 in the Olympic Games. These athletes did not 25 care about giving honor to Greek gods. They only 34 They only cared about prizes. The prizes became 42 became bigger and worth more money. Some people 50 cheated to win. So the king of Rome ordered the 60 games to end. He knew that people no longer competed 70 in the games for the joy of it.

No Olympics were held for more than 1500 years. 86 An earth-quake destroyed the building where the 94 Olympics took place. Then the pieces were buried 102 in a landslide. In 1875 scientists from Germany 110
began to find pieces of the old building. This discovery gave a man in France named Pierre Coubertin an idea. He liked the idea of people from many countries meeting together to enjoy sports. He thought it would help world peace. So he started new Olympic Games. These are the games we know today. In honor of the first Olympics, the new Olympics began in Greece.

The only event of the first 13 Olympic Games was a foot race. The runners had to run about the length of two football fields. Later, longer running were included. Soon boxing and wrestling were also added. Another sport to be added was discus throwing.
THOMAS EDISON'S GREAT INVENTION

Thomas Edison wondered about how things worked. He was always asking questions. He asked "Why?" He asked "Why not?" He did many experiments to find answers. Sometimes he would work for many days and stop only for naps. Thomas Edison's experiments had wonderful results. He was responsible for inventions like the phonograph and movie camera. He set up the first movie studio.

One of Edison's ideas was to make small lights for people to use in their homes. At that time no one knew much about electricity. Scientists were doing experiments to learn about it. Edison was sure he could use it to power house lights.
He decided to invent a light bulb. It would glow when electricity passed through a wire inside the bulb.

Edison and his helpers spent nearly two years doing experiments. They could not find the right kind of thin wire for the light bulb. Then one day Edison took a piece of sewing thread and baked it. He placed it in a bulb. Much to his surprise, it worked! The thread glowed when electricity passed through it. In October of 1879 this first light bulb glowed for almost two days straight.
ON THE TRAIL OF A LIVING MONSTER

It happened in Kelso, Washington, on October 29, 1924. Five miners from this area had reported an odd event. A few weeks ago, they built a log cabin in the woods near their mine. Soon they saw strange footprints in the sand. The prints were made by naked feet but were much larger than any human foot. Twice they saw a strange beast, more than seven feet tall. It looked like a "great hairy ape." The men fired rifles at it. They never found the beast, however.

A few nights later, the men were asleep in their cabin. They heard odd screams. Huge rocks were being thrown onto the cabin roof. The men feared for their lives, but they dared not leave the cabin. The attack went on till dawn. Then the miners fled. Searchers went back to the miner's
cabin. It had been wrecked. Huge rocks lay all around. Big footprints, larger than any man's marked the ground. Yet no beast has been found. Bluff Creek, Northern California. November 1, 1967 for years there have been reports of a strange creature in this area. Hundreds of footprints have been found. Hairy beasts have been seen. But none have been found, yet....
Natural gas is a useful fuel. People use it to cook and to dry their clothes. Natural gas lies deep in the ground. To get the fuel out, workers drill a well and put pipes into the space where the gas is. Then a valve is put on the pipe so the gas flow can be turned on and off.

In 1961, a natural gas well caught fire. The well was in the Sahara Desert in North Africa. It was in one of the biggest natural gas fields in the world.

The fire was really a huge torch, 450 feet high. People 90 miles away saw it and heard it. The noise the burning gas made was like twelve jets taking off at once.
The company that owned the gas knew they had to hire the only man in the world who could put out the fire. That man was a Texan named Red Adair. He is the world's best and most famous fire fighter. He and his crew put out fires no one else will go near. This story tells how Red put out the biggest fire of his life. It is told just as Red might have written it.
A Clue Book
for
Reading

by Dorothy E. Dawson
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VOWELS:

(I). SHORT Vowels:
   - Short A (apple)
   - Short I (in)
   - Short E (egg)
   - Short O (on)
   - Short U (up) .... U-G-L-Y (UGLY) not pretty...

(II). LONG Vowels:
   (These sound like their NAME.)

1.) Vowel Combinations: TWO VOWELS beside each other.
   REMEMBER: When two vowels go walking, the FIRST does All the TALKING and he SAYS his NAME. The SECOND is SILENT.
   Examples:
   - Long A = jail [j-A-l], rain [r-A-n]
   - Long E = eat [E-t], tree [tr-E]
   - Long O = boat [b-O-t], road [r-O-d]*
   *this long vowel rule works with O only with "oa".

(II). SILENT "e"
   REMEMBER: Silent "e" .... at the END of the word makes the vowel BEFORE it, LONG....
   Examples:
   - Long A = ate [A-t], cake [c-A-k], name [n-A-m]
   - Long I = fire [f-I-r], ice [I-c]
   - Long O = coke [c-O-k], smoke [sm-O-k]
   - Long U = cute [c-U-], huge [h-U-g]

3.
VOWEL EXCEPTIONS:

1. all vowel combinations of O other than OA......
oi........[oil]
oy........[boy]....These two sound the same
oo........[look]...Like in SCHOOL, COOK, BOOK
ou........[out]....This sounds like you hurt
yourself....OUCH!!!!

2. vowel with "w"
   ew........[new]
   aw........[saw]
   ow........[how]

3. vowels with "u"
   au........[auto]
   ue........[blue]

4.
THE BEGINNING OF WORDS:

I. First Syllables:

ac..........................act
ab..........................absent [ab-sent]
ad..................[add].....adhere [ad-her-e]
con..................[con]......concord[con-c-or-d]
com..................[com]......command [com-mand]
de..................[de]......decide [de-cide]
di..................[die]......dice
dis..................[d-is]......disc
ex..................[ex]......exit
mon..................[m-on].....monster
um..................[um]......umbrella
un..................[un]......under

II. "C" and "G" sounds

(A). "C" says:

1. Hard "c"....car
2. Soft "c"...city.....[s]

(B). "G" says

1. Hard "g"....go
2. Soft "g"....gym.....[j]
BLEND SOUNDS:

bl=black
br=brat
ch=chin
ck=chicken
c1=clean
cr=cry
dr=dry
em=Emily
en=enclose[in-close] ....[says"in"]
ex=exit
fl=flat
fr=free
gl=glad
gr=green
kn=knee
ph=alphabet [ph says "f"]
pr=pray
qu=queen
sch=school

sh=show
shr=shrimp
sk=sky
sl=sleep
sm=smell
sn=snow
sp=spell
spl=split
spr=spring
squ=square
st=stop
sw=swim
th=the
tr=tree
tw=twin
un=under

wh=what
wr=write
LOOK IN THE MIDDLE OF THE WORDS:

Look for SMALL words INSIDE big words....

Examples:

act    ear    oil
air    eat    on
all or al ed    or
am    ill or il    out
an    in or en    son
and    is    up
as    it    us
ENDING LETTER SOUNDS:

1. "R" Ending Words...
   A. ar........car...........[says "R"]
   B. er........her
   C. ir........sir
   D. or........for..........[says "or"]
   E. ur........fur

2. "Y" Ending Words...
   A. Y.........baby..........[says "E"]
   B. Y.........by...........[says "I"]

3. "NG" words........
   A. ang..........sang.......I sang well today.
   B. ing.........sing.......I will sing later.
      I am singing now.
   C. ong..........wrong
   D. ung.........hung.........We already sung that song

4. "GHT" words........"gh" is silent
   A. ight.........right.......[r-I-t]
      [igh says I]
   B. ough........fought.......[says f-AU-t]
      We fought all the time.
   C. augh.........caught.......[says c-AU-t]
      I caught a fish.

5. "OUS"..........joyous.......[says "us"]
6. "LY"..........family.......[says "lee"]
7. "ICK"..........sick
8. "NESS"..........sadness
9. "TION"..........shun
Ending Letter Sounds: (Cont'd)

10. "ment"..........meant
11. "ish"..........fish
12. "ic"..........sick
13. "able"..........A-Bull

Words that are confusing:

1. Thought.....(think).....I though you knew.
   Through......(go).........We went through the door.

2. Know....................I know about it.
   Knew....................We already knew about it.
   Now.....................Now, I can see it.

3. Here....................Come over here.
   There...................Look over there.

4. Where....................Where is it?
   When....................When are we going?

5. Was....................Was that your cat?
   Were....................We were going too.