THE EFFECT OF REPEATED READING ON THE ORAL READING FLUENCY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS WITH SPECIFIC LEARNING DISABILITY

by

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ABSTRACT

There is a growing number of English Language Learners (ELLs) in the United States. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2020) found that about 10.1% of students enrolled in public school across the United States in the fall of 2017 were ELLs and by 2030 students from this population will make up 40% of K-12 students in the US (US DOE & NICHHD, 2003). Furthermore, in the fall of 2017 about 14.3% of the total ELL population enrolled in K-12 schools were identified as students with disability (NCES, 2020). Research has shown that one particular area of challenge for ELLs with specific learning disability (SLD) is reading fluency (Brisk & Harrington, 2000; Therrien, 2004). With this challenge in mind, it is imperative for teachers to utilize research-based practices to support these students (Albus et al., 2007). Repeated reading (RR) has shown to improve the reading fluency of ELLs with SLD or who read below grade level. To date, only a handful of studies have examined the efficacy of repeated reading with ELLs with SLDs (Barber et al., 2018; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010; Landa & Barbetta, 2017; Linan-Thompson et al., 2003; Rubin, 2016; Shore et al., 2015; Tam et al., 2006). Using a single-case, alternating treatment design, this study examined the differential effects of

RR and non-repeated reading in the oral reading fluency (ORF) and comprehension of two elementary school students in second and fifth grade who were ELLs reading below grade level.

INDEX WORDS: Alternating treatment design, specific learning disabilities, repeated reading, non-repeated reading, oral reading fluency, English Language Learners

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this feat to the Lord God Almighty who gave the wisdom and strength to 'keep on keeping on.' I am eternally grateful for He is my comfort and peace in those stressful moments. I also dedicate this thesis to my treasure, my darling husband, Nathaniel, who supported, inspired and encouraged me all along the way. You devoted of your most precious time, out of your busy schedule, to lend an ear and to lend a hand to keep the home running smoothly. You deliberately ensured you spiced up my "busyness" with some fun activities. To my amazing children (Diamond, Theophilus, Jason) and Maria, you all were very patient with me as I journeyed on in my quest. I enjoyed those delicious meals you fixed. You guys were always checking on me and asking to see if you could help me with anything. Those days of feet massage and hugs were calming. Thank you all for cooperating with me in this endeavor. I am grateful for each of you.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The ability to read fluently, quickly, and accurately has many benefits. Fluent readers are able to read lengthy passages with relative ease and swiftly complete academic tasks (Rasinski, 2000). However, English Language Learners (ELLs) tend to struggle with reading fluency, which impacts their ability to read quickly and comprehend what they are reading. As a result, they experience negative outcomes associated with not being able to read well in English (Bernhard et al., 2006; Osborn et al; 2007). Limitations with fluency and comprehension affect other academic areas because the ability to read is a means to access a wide array of information (Rasinski, 2000). The challenges experienced by ELLs with specific learning disabilities (SLDs) are amplified as these students struggle to cope with the demands of learning a new language in addition to the neurobiological challenges presented by their learning disability. Difficulties associated with language learning and poor reading have been shown to lead to school dropout (McCardle et al., 2005). Unfortunately, there is very little research on evidence-based strategies to improve the reading fluency of ELLs with SLDs (Tam et al., 2006).

The number of ELLs with SLD in reading in the United States is growing. About 10.1% of students enrolled in public school across the United States in the fall of 2017 were ELLs (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020). The NCES (2020) data also indicated that 14.3% of the total ELL population enrolled in K-12 schools in fall 2017 were identified as students with disabilities (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020). The Center for

Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence predicted that ELLs will make up 40% of K-12 students in the United States by 2030 (US DOE & NICHHD, 2003).

In light of the growing number of ELLs in the US, the need to know and use evidence-based strategies to meet the learning needs of this population is paramount. In particular, teachers of ELLs with SLDs are increasingly in need of research-based practices to support these students (Albus et al., 2007). In addition to the unique challenges associated with SLDs, ELLs also possess diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Padolsky, 2004). Consequently, ELLs with SLDs have to cope with the stress of learning a new language, gaining mastery in a subject matter, and having to deal with learning problems imposed by their disabilities (Correa & Heward, 2000; Gersten & Jimenez, 1998).

One particular area of challenge for ELLs with SLD is reading fluency (Brisk & Harrington, 2000; Therrien, 2004). For these students, reading can be a daunting, slow, and laborious process (Anderson, 1999). As a result, they are less likely to be enthusiastic about reading. However, this lack of interest in reading further perpetuates a vicious cycle that exacerbates their dysfluent reading experience. Reading researchers and cognitive scientists have found that reading fluency is necessary for reading comprehension (Kamil et al., 2010). Despite the importance of reading fluency, the National Reading Panel found that an insufficient amount of research had been conducted on reading fluency. In turn, they determined a need for more research to see the connection between guided oral-reading instruction and fluency (NRP, 2000). Oral reading fluency is evidenced by rapid, effortless, and prosodic flow that makes it sound as if the reader is speaking. Although there are slight variations in how reading fluency is conceptualized, general consensus exists. Armbruster et al. (2001) defined fluency as “the ability to read a text accurately and quickly” (p. 22). However, Bryant et al. (2007) differentiated

between oral reading fluency and silent reading fluency. According to Bryant et al. (2007) oral reading fluency is a combination of speed, accuracy, and expression or prosody as well as other vocal elements necessary for punctuation. Silent reading fluency, on the other hand, combines rate with comprehension (i.e., extracting meaning from text).

Kuhn and Stahl (2003) proposed a standard conceptualization of reading fluency. They identified three main areas of fluency: (a) decoding, (b) word automaticity, and (c) the use of prosodic features such as pitch, text phrasing, and stress. A deficit in any of these areas would affect oral reading fluency. Oral reading fluency is a challenge for ELLs with SLDs partly because of the effect of the constant cross-linguistic transfer from their native language to the English language (Shore & Sabatini, 2009).

Another challenge could arise from lack of enough exposure to spoken and written English, which in turn inhibits their development of oral reading fluency; ELLs may have limited exposure to English at home, in the community, and even in schools. However, researchers have found that ELLs whose native tongue have alphabetic language with consistent grapheme-phoneme correspondences are more efficient in processing English words (Akamatsu, 2003; Bialystok et al., 2005; D'Anguilli et al., 2001; Geva, 1992; Geva & Clifton, 1994). Finally, deficits in phonological processing can negatively impact word-identification skills. Having a high level of phonemic awareness of English phonemes predict reading in English (Shore & Sabatini, 2009; Spear-Swerling, 2006**).** Therefore, it is likely that ELLs with SLDs will require both language and phonological support to improve their oral reading fluency.

Repeated reading is one evidence-based practice that has been demonstrated as effective for improving oral reading fluency. To implement repeated reading, the reader reads a short passage of about 200 words repeatedly until fluency improves (Samuels, 1979; Stahl & Heubach,

2005). Morisoli (2010) defined repeated reading as "an instructional method in which a student rereads a short, meaningful passage several times until a satisfactory level of fluency is reached" (p. 20). Repeated reading has shown to increase reading fluency in both ELLs with and without disability as well as monolingual speakers (Adams, 2009; Ardoin et al., 2009; Ardoin et al., 2013; Barber et al., 2018; Farstrup & Samuels, 2002; Gibb & Wilder, 2002; Gonzales & Elijah, 1975; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010; Homan et al., 1993; Landa, 2009; Landa & Barbetta, 2017; Linan-Thompson et al., 2003; Morisoli, 2010; Tam et al., 2006; Samuels, 1979; Shore et al., 2015; Vadasy & Sanders, 2008).

Practice with repeated reading strategies have shown to build fluency and automaticity (Samuels, 1979). Just as athletes or artists need extended, systematic, structured, frequent practice to ensure mastery of their skills, it is also necessary to apply this principle to reading to build oral reading fluency. Researchers have found that several practice opportunities through the repetition of words and phrases help students become better and fluent readers (O'Shea & O'Shea, 1988; Sweeney et al., 2003). Despite a large body of research on repeated reading with non-ELLs, only a handful of studies have examined the efficacy of repeated reading with ELLs with SLDs. As such, this study will provide more insight related to the use of this intervention with this particular population.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The bid for a greener pasture has led to the ever-growing population of English Language Learners (ELLs) in the United States. These students come from different language backgrounds and are considered one of the largest group of students who experience challenges with reading accuracy and fluency (Denton et al., 2004). Reading is even more challenging for ELLs with specific learning disability (SLD) as they go through the arduous task of learning a new language and coping with learning challenges as a result of their disabilities. Repeated reading intervention has shown to benefit students with various reading abilities including monolingual speakers with or without SLD and ELLs with or without SLD.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 referred to language minority students as Limited English Proficiency students or LEPs (cited in Wright, 2005). However, the Georgia Department of Education, similar to experts in the field, refers to this population of students as English Language Learners (ELLs). Federal laws govern most services and policies concerning ELLs. Those laws include Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Title VI) and the Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) of 1974 (GaDOE, 2010). According to Title VI, school districts are required to provide educational opportunities to minority students who may be LEP. The EEOA requires school district to provide opportunities for ELLs to have equal access and participate in educational programs.

The US Census Data (2010) showed that over 55 million people in the US speak a second language. About 24.2 million members of this population are five years old or over. These kids either do not speak English well, or they do not speak English at all (US Census Data, 2010). In addition, 19.7% of census respondents reported having a family member who spoke another language than English at home (US Census Data, 2010). According to the data, some of the languages spoken were Spanish, Chinese, Tagalog, French, Vietnamese, German, Korean, Russian, Italian, Portuguese and Polish. In fall 2017, 3.8 million Hispanic public school students were ELLs, 530,900 were Asian ELL students, 327,300 were white ELL students, 211,000 were black ELL students and 40,000 were from other racial or ethnic groups (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020).With the ever-growing ELL population and the seemingly challenges they experience with reading accuracy and fluency, it is important to utilize culturally-responsive content (i.e., content that builds on students' cultural experiences) with effective instructional method such as repeated reading, to build the oral reading fluency (ORF) of ELLs to ensure learning success. (Ziegenfuss et al., 2014).

ELLs come from over 200 different language backgrounds and the closer their native language to English, for example romance languages, the easier it is for them to learn the English language (Reading Rockets, 2014). On the contrary, the farther the native language is from English, such as Russian, Arabic or Turkish, the more challenging it becomes to learn the English language (Reading Rockets, 2014). When ELLs find themselves in US, most of them have problems with becoming accustomed with the language and the classroom (Kim & Helphenstine, 2017). According to the US Department of Education (2016) English Language Learners are students who are:

> Age 3–21, enrolled in elementary or secondary education, born outside of the United States or speaking a language other than English in their homes, and whose difficulties in speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language may be sufficient to deny the individual 1) the ability to meet the challenging State academic standards; 2) to successfully achieve in classrooms where the language of instruction is English; or 3) the opportunity to participate fully in society.

Simply put, ELLs are individuals who learn English as a new language or as an additional language or whose first language (i.e., language 1 or L1) is not English (Yuan et al., 2019). This term is usually used with learners at the K-12 level and rarely used for older learners as the terms English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) are commonly used for that population (Shore & Sabatini, 2009).

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS WITH SLD

The ability of ELLs to succeed depend on some factors which include their past educational literacy experiences in L2 context, their disabilities, their literacy and language skill in their mother-tongue, reading proficiency levels in L2 context, their text comprehension level, their background knowledge, and teacher abilities (August et al., 2009; Eskey, 2005; Samson & Lesaux, 2009; Saracho, 2007). These many factors are paramount and tend to put the ELL in a disadvantaged position. As a result, they struggle with reading challenges and fall behind their peers in reading more than in other subject areas (Gersten & Baker, 2000). When compared to non-ELLs, the achievement gap is evident by kindergarten and then continues to widen through fourth grade to high school (Hansen & Collins, 2015; Hemphill et al., 2011; Kieffer, 2010).

ELLs are one of the largest groups of students who experience reading challenges (Denton et al., 2004). The challenge is even greater for ELLs who have SLDs (Tam et al., 2006).

Unfortunately, to accurately determine whether an ELL's academic difficulty is due to a learning disability or second language acquisition is complicated because the process of language acquisition mimics behaviors similar to having a learning disability (Burr et al., 2015). Two factors that can lead to inconsistent identification are: (a) a lack of understanding on the part of teachers of the reasons ELLs are not making progress and (b) problems with the design and implementation of the referral processes (Klingner & Harry, 2006; National Association for Bilingual Education & ILIAD Project, 2002; Shore & Sabatini, 2009).

Despite the difficulty in separating the challenges associated with learning a new language from those associated with a SLD, it is important to recognize that some ELLs do have SLDs. When ELLs have SLDs, the disability places more demands on them as they have to deal with the challenges of learning a new language in addition to the processing challenge associated with the learning disability. When trying to identify such students, it can be helpful to examine their native language development as the SLD would also impact their native language development (Miller et al., 2006; Samson & Lesaux, 2009). Evidence of literacy characteristics similar to English speaking children with SLD such as reading below grade level in their L1, difficulty comprehending passages, and behavior problems or withdrawal as a result of reading difficulties may be seen in ELLs with SLDs (McCardle et al., 2005). Poor reading skills may be a result of deficit in phonological processing abilities (Leafstedt & Gerber, 2005; Manis et al., 2004; Nakamoto et al., 2007). The students have difficulties in detecting and discriminating sounds, this in turn affects oral reading fluency as reading would be slow and laborious.

READING FLUENCY

Fluency is the ability to accurately and quickly read a text, which involves the ability to decode with automaticity and proper expression (Chard et al., 2002). When students have

difficulty with reading fluency, they show difficulty in reading accurately and quickly (Mathes et al., 1992; Meyer & Felton, 1999). Fluency is "reasonably accurate reading, at an appropriate rate, with suitable expression, that leads to accurate and deep comprehension and motivation to read" (Hasbrouck & Glaser, 2012, p. 13). A fluent reader may comprehend what is being read; however, fluent reading does not automatically mean that the reader comprehends because it is not the only component that is needed for comprehension (Ardoin et al., 2009). Background knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, and understanding of text structure are also necessary for comprehension (International Literacy Association, 2018; Wexler, 2019). Researchers have identified the importance of including fluency in reading instruction (Allington, 1983; Chard et al., 2002; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; Nichols et al., 2009; Rasinski, 2006; Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003).

In addition to the basic foundational skills such as phonological awareness and decoding, home literacy environment (HLE) can be instrumental to improve oral reading fluency and competency. Some studies have shown that home literacy environment (HLE) is also a predictor of children's emergent literacy skills and future reading abilities (Evans & Shaw, 2008; Foy & Mann, 2003; Niklas & Schneider, 2013; Phillips & Lonigan, 2009; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002). For example, Burgess et al. (2002) defined HLE as consisting of three factors: limiting environment, literacy interface, and shared reading. For their study, they referred to limiting environment as the parents' abilities to provide literacy opportunities for their children considering their socioeconomic status, IQ, and language skills and abilities. Literacy interface referred to parents' provision of activities and opportunities to boost their children's literacy. Literacy interface was further divided into active HLE and passive HLE. Active HLE involved activities such as parents taking their children to the library or playing with puppets with their children, while passive HLE referred to when children observe and imitate what their parents do

(e.g., when a child sees his parents read a journal or other literacy materials). The third conceptualization, shared reading, referred to when parents and their children read books together. During shared reading, parents could model reading with appropriate expression and children could be asked to read, too, which would promote oral reading behaviors. Oral reading fluency is an early predictor of reading competency (Fuchs et al., 2001).

Reading fluency has been described as the bridge between emergent reading and later reading phases (ILA, 2018). Emergent readers develop oral language and phonemic awareness. They utilize their knowledge of letter-sound relationship to decode new words (Kamhi & Catts, 2014). Willis (2008) posited that fluent readers possess the ability to cognitively and automatically divide text into chunks of meaningful phrases. As fluent readers read, they decode words quickly, scan ahead for punctuation cues, and see how sentences end. Continuous reading practice strengthens the neural pathway that enables swift decoding. As reading skills increase, reading is done with greater expression and comprehension. When decoding is not automatic, comprehension is impacted. When decoding becomes automatic, students can read words by sight because the words are now stored in their memory by a process called orthographic mapping (Kilpatrick, 2016; Moats, 2000). With orthographic mapping, students connect the sound to symbols, which facilitates automatic retrieval of those letter combinations when the word is encountered again (Ehri, 2014).

Lack of fluency can affect the development of vocabulary skills and comprehension (ILA, 2018). In a process that is referred to as the *Matthew Effec*t—"the rich get richer and the poor get poorer"—is evident for struggling readers. As the years go by, these readers lag behind and have less and less literacy exposure. In contrast, good readers continue to read more and more; thus, gaining exposure to more words, ideas, and text structures. All of this aids their

reading fluency. The Scarborough reading rope model (Scarborough, 2001) provides a graphic image demonstrating the connectivity of the foundational reading skills necessary for fluent reading.

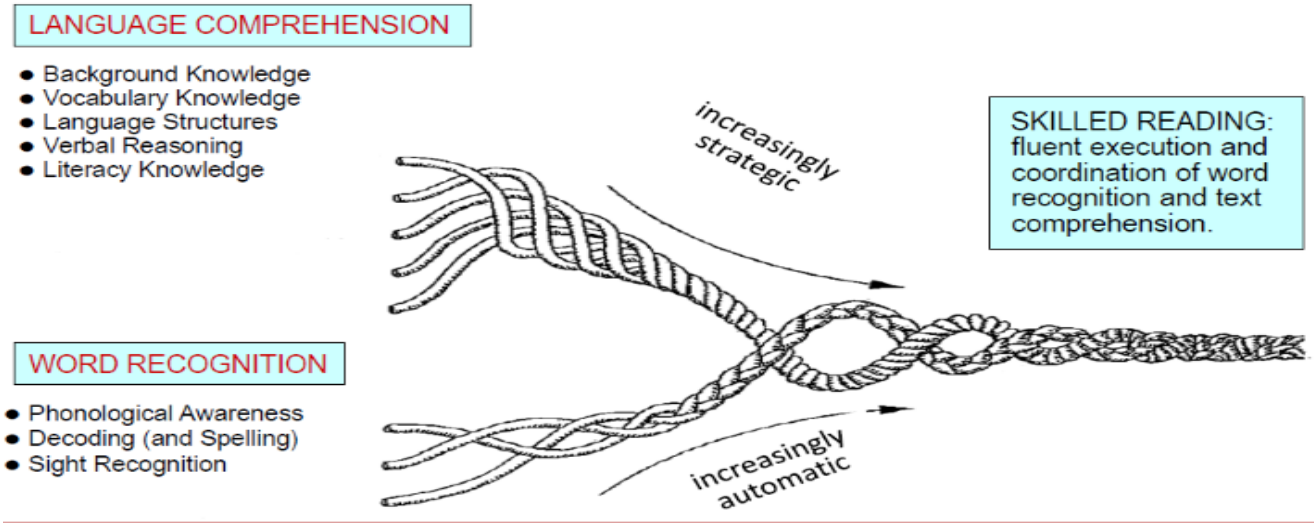

Figure 1. Scarborough's reading rope.

The strands can be divided into two areas of instruction: language comprehension and word recognition. A student's language comprehension is developed through background knowledge, vocabulary, language structures, verbal reasoning, and literacy knowledge. Word recognition, on the other hand, depends on phonological awareness, decoding, and sight recognition. As language comprehension becomes increasingly strategic and word recognition becomes increasingly automatic, skilled reading is achieved.

REPEATED READING AND FLUENCY

Repeated reading is an instructional method where a student reads a short passage several times until a particular fluency level is achieved. As the student repeatedly reads, speed and word recognition errors are recorded. Repeated reading aims to free up cognitive energy for text comprehension as automaticity in lower-level comprehension is being developed (Dlugosz,

2000; Tagushi & Gorsuch, 2002). According to Perfetti's (1985) theoretical framework of *verbal efficiency,* lower level lexical skills (i.e., word identification) must first be intact before higher level processes such as comprehension can be performed at the same time when reading. A dysfluent reader shares attention between decoding and comprehension, thereby making reading laborious.

Studies on repeated reading have shown that repeated reading intervention increase reading fluency. Samuels (1979) conducted one of the earliest studies. In his study, students read a short, easy passage repeatedly until a rate of 85 wpm was reached. On five separate passages, reading speed increased as errors in word recognition decreased. Other studies conducted using repeated reading intervention include: Adams, 2009; Allington, 1983; Anderson, 1981; Ardoin et al., 2009; Ardoin, et al., 2013; Dowhower, 1987; Gonzales et al., 1975; Herman, 1985; Homan, et al.,1993; O'Shea et al., 1985; Rashotte & Torgensen, 1985; Rasinski & Zutell, 1990; Stoddard et al., 1993; and Vadasy & Sanders, 2008. Repeated reading can be implemented in different formats such as partner reading, reading to an older peer or family member, or reading with an audio recording (Chard et al., 2009).

Adams (2009) described and assessed the efficacy of a model research-based reading program that addressed the summer achievement gap. The study, which lasted 4-weeks, evaluated how effective repeated and accelerated reading were on the fluency and reading comprehension of students who were ELLs, students who were from low socioeconomic groups (SES) and those with reading disabilities. Result showed that the reading interventions were effective in addressing the summer achievement gap.

Furthermore, Ardoin et al. (2009) utilized a multicomponent RR intervention to see if students could generalize to unpracticed passages. Four boys who were learning at a residential

facility for troubled youth and were identified to benefit from an intervention to build fluency participated in this study. Results indicated that students' performances on generalization passages were low compared to the final reading on practice passages, although when students were exposed to six RR of practiced passages, they increased in fluency more than when they were exposed to 3 RR. A subsequent study by Ardoin et al**.** (2013) evaluated the effect of using eye-tracking procedures on 84 second-grade students who were randomly assigned to one of a control group, a RR condition (students read a passage four times) or a multiple exemplar (ME) condition (students read four different passages to an adult). Findings indicated that students in the RR condition showed greater gains than students in the ME condition.

Vadasy and Sanders (2008) compared the effect of a RR intervention, *Quick Reads*, with a regular classroom reading instruction for second and third grade students' word reading and fluency. Participants included 96 students in treatment condition and 92 students in control condition. Result showed that students in the treatment condition made more gains in word reading and fluency than the students in the control condition.

REPEATED READING AND STUDENTS WITH SLDs

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004 defined SLD as:

> A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations.

A student with learning disability may exhibit difficulty in reading aloud, learning the alphabet, writing, following directions or understanding math problems. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2020) in 2018-2019, out of about 7.1 million students between the ages

of 3-21 attending public schools who received special education services under IDEA, about 33 percent had SLD. At least one in five students has significant difficulties with reading acquisition (Lyon & Moats, 1997). Data from the Nation's Report Card (2019) revealed lower reading scores for students in grades 4 and 8 in 2019 compared to 2017. It also showed lower reading scores for lower performers at both grades.

Students who are at risk for reading disabilities experience a formidable challenge with developing fluency and reading connected texts (Chard et al., 2009; Meyer & Felton, 1999). Studies have shown that repeated reading increase fluency and comprehension of students without disabilities and students with learning disabilities (Meyer & Felton, 1999; Therrien, 2004). The use of repeated reading provides students with several exposures to the same words. The meta-analysis by Therrien (2004) found that repeated reading interventions yielded an effect size of $d = 0.75$ on fluency and 0.73 on comprehension for students with LD. In the recent review by Stevens et al. (2017), repeated reading was found to be effective in improving fluency for students with learning disabilities.

REPEATED READING AND ELLs

ELLs with SLD experience greater challenges than ELLs without disabilities. In addition to language and cultural barriers, ELLs with SLD have to deal with a disabling condition. This condition poses a great challenge with learning and mastery of content areas (Tam et al., 2006). Data provided by WIDA (2017) showed that many students who were identified as ELL in 2014 were also identified under one of the 13 federal categories of disabilities. Interestingly, majority of them are identified as having SLD (WIDA, 2017). Also, data provided by the Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) revealed that in 2013-2014, the national percentage of ELLs was 8.8 percent and 9.2 percent were reported as having disabilities (OELA, 2017).

Although misidentification of ELLs as students with SLDs is a concern (see Linan-Thompson, 2010; Sanchez et al., 2010), the larger issues is that ELLs who struggle with reading—whether they have a co-morbid reading disability or not—require evidence-based strategies to support their learning.

Repeated exposure to text is one of the effective strategies identified to improve reading fluency in ELL and students with SLD. Some studies utilized repeated reading with ELLs. Monobe et al. (2017) used whole-class repeated reading (WCRR) to build ELLs reading competence and confidence to create social interaction in the classroom. The findings revealed that ELLs could read previously unfamiliar words and phrases, after having engaged in highly scaffolded WCRR. Often, ELLs find it difficult to interact because they find themselves in a culture that is different from theirs. It is imperative for educators to help develop motivation and provide opportunities to build self confidence in ELLs. However, many educators see second-language acquisition as the only ultimate priority, without considering the importance of also developing ELLs motivation and self-confidence (Ball, 2012).

Villanueva (2017) compared the effectiveness of HELPS-SG curriculum and a small group repeated-reading (RR) intervention on oral reading fluency and comprehension of 42 second-grade ELLs. Results showed that there was no statistical difference between both groups, both groups made gains overtime, however the RR intervention resulted in more improvement than the HELPS-SG curriculum. The RR intervention was faster to implement with fewer steps. In addition, Brandes (2015) compared repeated reading with and without vocabulary instruction on the reading fluency, comprehension and vocabulary knowledge of ELLs in third grade. Although findings revealed a statistically significant difference in comprehension and vocabulary knowledge, there was no statistically significant difference for reading fluency.

Russell (2014) conducted a pre-post experimental study with Hispanic high-school ELLs. Treatment group received a modified repeated reading with self-voice listening and oral dictation output from a speech recognition program. The study utilized a technology-enhanced variation of repeated reading. Findings indicated that oral reading accuracy improved for the treatment group. They were also able to retain and transfer new vocabulary and rate. The study reported students' improvement in pronunciation, reading, and liking for school. The author posited that improved oral reading skills and vocabulary acquisition would be instrumental to closing the reading gap between ELLs and native speakers. Furthermore, the intervention tool explored in this study can play a great role in English language acquisition than traditional practices.

REPEATED READING AND ELLs WITH SLDs

Looking through the literature, there seems to be limited peer-reviewed research with ELLs with SLDs conducted in the US. Some studies investigated repeated reading in ELLs with SLD with participants outside the US. However, only seven peer-reviewed studies were found that had conducted repeated reading with participants in the US from 2000 until 2021. These studies considered the effects of repeated readings on ELLs with SLDs (Barber et., al 2018; Gorsuch & Taguchi 2010; Landa & Barbetta 2017; Linan-Thompson et al., 2003; Rubin, 2016; Shore et al., 2015; Tam et al., 2006).

Barber et al. (2018) embedded culturally relevant material within repeated reading delivered through computer software that focused on errorless learning and learner independence. Participants were three urban first graders who were ELLs and showed reading/special education risk. An increase in oral reading fluency and comprehension of novel culturally relevant (CR) passages were observed. The participants were also able to slightly generalize these skills to non-culturally relevant passages. The findings in the study by Gorsuch

and Taguchi (2010) revealed that repeated reading had positive effects on ELLs reading fluency and comprehension development, as well as general language development. Participants were thirty young adult EFL learners. The report focused on the qualitative data from an earlier quantitative quasi-experimental study conducted by Gorsuch and Taguchi (2008).

Landa and Barbetta (2017) reported that students read more words correctly per minute in the repeated reading condition. They made fewer errors, correctly answered literal comprehension questions, and could generalize to untaught passages. Participants for this study were 4 third to fifth grade ELL with SLD. Linan-Thompson et al. (2003) reported that long-term follow-up (over 4 months) showed great gains for oral reading fluency of 26 second grade who were ELLs and at risk for reading difficulties. Shore et al. (2015) utilized guided repeated reading (GRR) with findings that indicated that 30 hours of GRR tutoring can yield significant gains with a noticeably large effect on fluency skills. In the study by Tam et al. (2006) the results for five participants, two of whom were ELLs, showed that repeated reading interventions resulted in gains in fluency and reading comprehension.

CONCLUSION

Fluent readers can read effortlessly with appropriate expression. Dysfluent readers on the other hand find reading laborious. Reading for them is a herculean task, and they would prefer to avoid reading because of the difficulty they experience with decoding. Reading is daunting for ELLs, because they have to learn to read in a language different from their L1. Reading is even more challenging for ELLs with SLD as they have to deal with the challenges of learning a second language, as well as having to deal with a learning disability. This puts them in double jeopardy. The repeated reading intervention is one intervention that has shown promise for increasing the fluency in ELLs with and without SLD.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

As noted in the review of the literature, repeated reading (RR) interventions have resulted in gains in fluency and reading comprehension of English Language Learners (ELLs) with specific learning disabilities (SLDs). This study will provide more insight related to the use of this intervention with ELLs who are reading below grade level.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions were:

(a) Is there a differential effect on the fluency rate in an ELL who reads below grade level when exposed to a repeated reading intervention and a non-repeated reading intervention?

(b) Is there a differential effect on the number of literal comprehension questions answered by an ELL who reads below grade level when exposed to a repeated reading intervention and a non-repeated reading intervention?

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were two, elementary-age ELLs who had been identified as struggling readers because they read at least one year below grade level based on grade-level assessment. These students would likely benefit from the repeated reading intervention. Participants' names used throughout the study were pseudonyms. Calvin was 8 years 6 months old and in second grade, and Dealyn was 10 years 11 months old and in fifth grade. These participants grew up in

homes where parents communicated in their native language other than English and upheld West-African cultural practices.

DESIGN

An alternating-treatment design was used for the study. An alternating treatment design (ATD) consists of the random or semi-random alternation of two or more conditions. This single-case design is used to demonstrate changes an individual exhibit after being exposed to different interventions or treatments (Wolery et al., 2010). Of all the interventions an individual is exposed to, we can see the intervention that is most effective as seen in the impact on the dependent variable. Alternating the treatment conditions can yield information about the functional relation between the independent variable(s) and the dependent measure(s). Intervention effects are determined through visual analysis (Hua et al., 2019).

A limitation of ATD is the effect of multiple treatment interference (Manolov & Onghena 2018). This happens when the same research participants are exposed to multiple treatments. It refers to whether the effect of an intervention would be the same if only one treatment is applied or if that one treatment is compared with a control condition. It is sometimes difficult to know whether each independent variable is acting independently without the influence of another independent variable. For example, when the same plant is exposed to both sunlight and water, it is difficult to tell whether the rapid and healthy growth of the plant have been made possible by only adding water or by only exposing the plant to sunlight.

Independent Variables

Repeated reading intervention. Repeated reading intervention is a fluency strategy where a student reads a short passage several times for a fixed number of times (Ardoin et al**.**

(2013) or until a particular fluency level is achieved (Tam et al., 2006). In the study by Tam et al. (2006) the results for five participants, two of whom were ELLs, showed that repeated reading interventions resulted in gains in fluency and reading comprehension.

Non-repeated reading intervention. In this condition, the participant completely read the passage aloud once and the researcher provided immediate error correction like the one used in the repeated reading condition.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables for the study were: (a) oral reading fluency (ORF) as measured by word correct per minute (WCPM) and (b) number of literal comprehension questions correctly answered aloud.

WCPM. After each of the interventions, an end-of-session assessment was conducted that consisted of an ORF measure and literal comprehension questions. To measure participants' WCPM, each participant read the same passage used for the intervention for 1 minute. The ORF score was calculated by subtracting the total number of errors the participant made from the total number of words read in one minute. Errors included hesitating for more than 3 seconds, mispronunciations, and skipping a word. Self-correction within 3 seconds, additions, or pronunciations that reflect dialectical interference were not counted as errors (Diamond & Thorsnes, 2018). ORF for each end-of-session assessment were recorded and graphed.

Literal comprehension questions. At the end of each session, the participants answered five literal comprehension questions aloud. To be counted correct, participants were required to answer within 5 seconds and their responses must match the answer key provided. If the participant responded correctly, the researcher affirmed the response with a short positive response such as "yes" or "correct." The researcher ensured that the responses to the questions

were found directly in the passages. The questions did not require the participants to summarize, draw conclusions, predict, infer, or give opinions (Tam et al., 2006). The correct responses were recorded and graphed.

PROCEDURE

Placement Data Collection

MASI-R-Oral Reading Fluency Measures, a curriculum-based measure (CBM) designed to determine students' oral reading fluency, was used to determine participants' instructional level at which to implement the repeated reading intervention (Diamond & Thorsnes, 2018). Calvin who was in second grade at the time of this study, read second grade passages, while Dealyn who was in fifth grade, read fifth grade passages. The participants read the passages while the researcher read along from the teacher copy of the same passage. The three grade-level student passages were administered at one time and each passage was timed for 1 minute. After calculating the oral reading fluency (ORF) score for each of the three passages, the median ORF score was compared with Hasbrouck and Tindal's (2017) ORF norms (see Appendix A). According to the norms, a student is considered to be reading at grade-level if the median ORF score falls within plus or minus 10 Word Correct Per Minute (WCPM) of the 50^{th} percentile on the ORF norms table (Diamond & Thorsnes, 2018).

After comparing with Hasbrouck and Tindal's 2017 second grade ORF norms for Calvin and fifth grade ORF norms for Dealyn (see Appendix A), both participants received the repeated reading intervention on passages below their grade level because they were not reading at grade-level expectations. Calvin winter's median WCPM was 73, therefore, he received intervention in first-grade passages. Dealyn winter's WCPM was 110, he therefore received intervention in fourth-grade passages.

A commercially prepared reading fluency passages by Melissa Mazur-Learning Lab Resources purchased online on Teacher Pay Teacher (TpT) was used for this study. This resource had student grade-level passages with corresponding teacher passages as well as comprehension questions for each passages. A total of twelve grade-level fiction and non-fiction passages were selected for the intervention for each student. The passages selected for the study were between 150-200 words for first grade and 190-200 for fourth grade (see Appendix B).

Intervention Procedures

The study was conducted on Zoom and recorded because of the COVID-19 pandemic that made it necessary for social distancing. The researcher provided a Zoom link for the participants, and the participants used the same link to join the meeting each time. The researcher met one-on-one with participants, twice a week at approximately the same time each week for about 15 to 20 minutes. The researcher used a randomization tool from randomizer.org, to randomly assign the treatment conditions to each of the participants each week ensuring that they were exposed to each of the treatments each week. Randomizing the treatment conditions would help control for any sequencing effects that might likely occur (Kazdin, 2011). In other words, randomization addresses the possibility of a treatment yielding a particular outcome as a result of the effect of the previous treatment.

The two treatment conditions used were non-repeated reading and repeated reading. With the non-repeated reading treatment (treatment 1), the researcher shared the passage on the screen and the participant read the passage aloud once. The researcher immediately corrected any error by reading the word(s) read incorrectly and asking the participant to repeat the word as well as read the sentence where the word occurred. The participants read the entire passage. After the initial reading practice, the researcher stopped the screen share in order to conduct an oral end-

of-session comprehension assessment comprising of 5 literal comprehension questions from the passage. The researcher then shared the passage on the screen again and asked the participant to read for 1 minute.

In the RR treatment condition (treatment 2), the participant read the passage aloud 3 times, while the researcher provided immediate error correction only for the initial reading practice similar to the one provided in the non-repeated reading condition. There was no error correction provided for the second and third reading. Using a stopwatch, researcher recorded the WCPM during the first minute of the 2nd and 3rd reading. The researcher, however, allowed the participant to read to the end of the passage. After the third practice reading, researcher stopped the screen share in order to conduct an oral end-of-session comprehension assessment comprising of 5 literal comprehension questions from the passage. The researcher then shared the passage on the screen again and asked the participant to read for 1 minute. ORF from the end-of-session assessment was used as the dependent variable.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Alternating treatment design was used to compare the effects of non-repeated and repeated reading intervention on the fluency and comprehension of two elementary English Language Learners (ELLs) who read below grade level. Two end-of-session assessments which entailed literal comprehension questions and Oral Reading Fluency were administered after the treatment, at the end of each session. Data were collected on the number of literal comprehension questions answered correctly and word correct per minute (WCPM) across the non-repeated reading and repeated reading conditions for the participants. The passages selected for the study ranged between 150-200 words for first grade and 190-200 for fourth grade (see Appendix B).

During the non-repeated reading condition, participants read the passage one time, with error correction only at the initial reading. After this reading, participant answered 5 literal comprehension questions, followed by a one-minute timed end-of-session oral reading fluency assessment. During the repeated reading condition, participants read the passage three times, with error correction only at the initial reading. Also, after this reading, participant answered five literal comprehension questions, followed by a one-minute timed oral reading fluency assessment.

DATA ANALYSIS

The differential effects of repeated and non-repeated reading on Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) and numbers of literal comprehension questions answered correctly were compared using an alternating-treatment design. The WCPM and the number of literal comprehension questions

answered correctly were graphed for visual analysis for each participant (see Figures 2 and 3). Furthermore, individual and group means, and performance ranges for the participants are presented in tables (see Tables 1 and 2). The graphic plots in Figures 2 and 3 were used to examine the effect of non-repeated and repeated reading on fluency and comprehension for each participants.

PARTICIPANTS RESULTS

Oral Reading Fluency

The first data analysis examined whether there is a differential effect of repeated reading intervention and a non-repeated reading intervention on ORF score after the participants read the intervention passages for one minute. The ORF score was calculated by subtracting the total number of errors the participants made from the total number of words read in one minute. Errors included hesitating for more than 3 seconds, mispronunciations, and skipping a word.

Calvin. Figure 2 and Table 1 display Calvin's end-of-session ORF Performances during repeated and non-repeated readings. The mean WCPM score for Calvin's end-of-session repeated reading ORF was 90.17 (range 54-115). His end-of-session mean ORF during non-repeated reading was 86.67 (range 65-114). The mean WCPM score for Calvin's ORF performance was higher during repeated reading with a mean difference of 3.5 WCPM over non-repeated reading.

Dealyn. Figure 2 and Table 1 display Dealyn's end-of-session ORF performances during repeated and non-repeated readings. The mean WCPM score for Dealyn's end-of-session repeated reading ORF was 125.17 (range 106-142). His end-of-session mean ORF during non-repeated reading was 103.50 (range 83-119). The mean WCPM score for Dealyn's ORF

performance was higher during repeated reading with a mean performance of 21.67 WCPM over non-repeated reading.

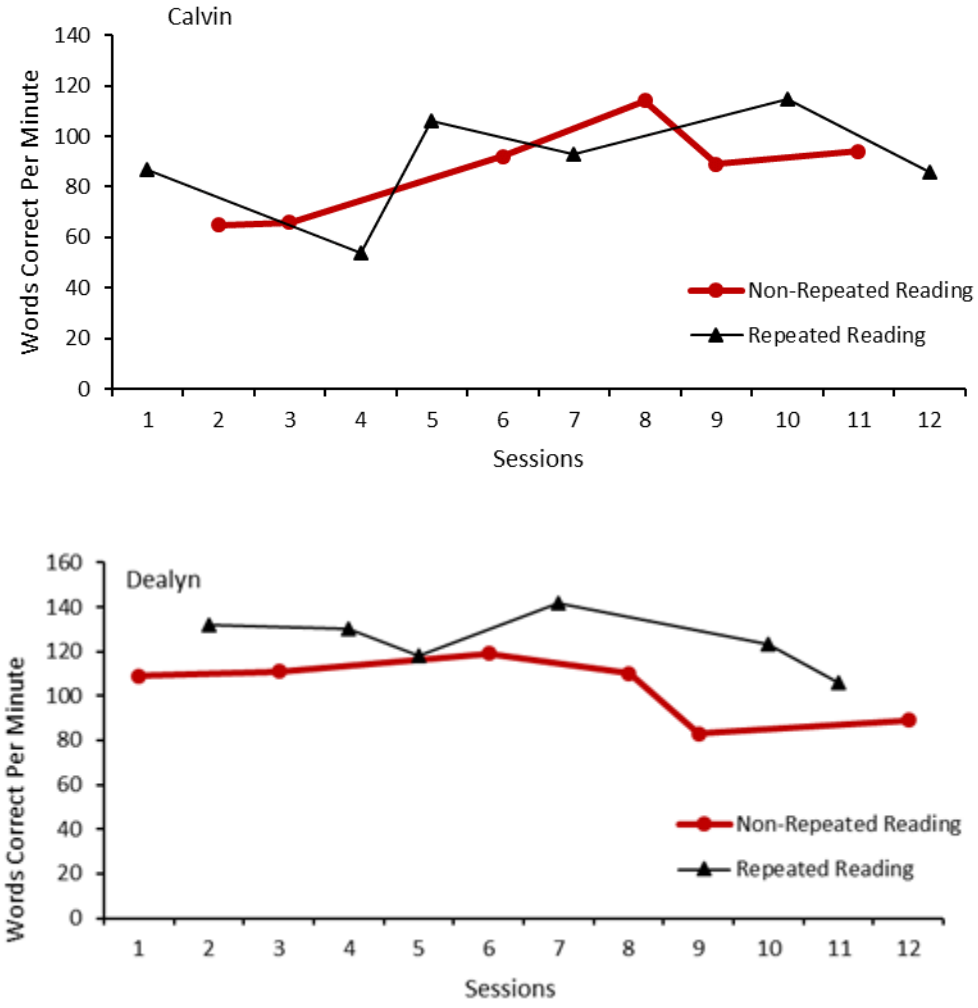

Figure 2. Reading Fluency (WCPM)

Note: Reading fluency score was calculated by subtracting the total number of errors the participant made from the total number of words read correctly in one minute at the end-of-session assessment.

Table 1

Individual and group means on Reading Fluency

Participants	WCPM	
	Non-Repeated Reading	Repeated Reading
Calvin	86.67	90.17
	(65 - 114)	(54 - 115)
Dealyn	103.50	125.17
	(83 - 119)	(106- 142)
Group	95.08	107.67
	(65 - 119)	(54 - 142)

Note: The top numbers show individual mean numbers of words read correctly per minute. The bottom numbers show the range of scores. Group mean was calculated by adding the total number of group sessions completed by both participants and dividing by the number of individual sessions.

Correct answers to literal Comprehension questions

The second data analysis examined whether the repeated reading and the non-repeated reading interventions had differential effects on the number of literal comprehension questions answered correctly. Participants answered five literal comprehension questions aloud during the first end-of-session assessment. To be counted correct, participants were required to answer within 5 seconds and their responses must match the answer key provided. If the participant responded correctly, the researcher affirmed the response with a short positive response such as “yes” or “correct.” The researcher ensured that the responses to the questions were found directly in the passages. The comprehension questions did not require the participants to summarize,

draw conclusions, predict, infer, or give opinions (Tam et al., 2006). Correct responses were recorded and graphed.

Calvin. Figure 3 and Table 2 display Calvin's performances on the end-of-session comprehension questions for the repeated and non-repeated reading sessions. Calvin's end-of-session mean for the number of correct comprehension question responses for the repeated reading was 1.83 (range 1-3). His end-of-session mean for the number of correct comprehension question responses for non-repeated readings was 2.50 (range 1-3.5). Calvin's mean performance for the number of correct responses was higher during non-repeated reading, with a mean difference of 0.67 over repeated reading.

Dealyn. Figure 3 and Table 2 display Dealyn's performances on the end-of-session comprehension questions for the repeated and non-repeated readings sessions. Dealyn's end-of-session mean for the number of correct comprehension question responses for the repeated reading was 4.50 (range 4.5-5). His end-of-session mean for the number of correct comprehension question responses for non-repeated readings was 4.58 (range 3.5-5). Dealyn's mean performance for the number of correct responses was higher during non-repeated reading, with a mean performance of 0.08 over repeated reading.

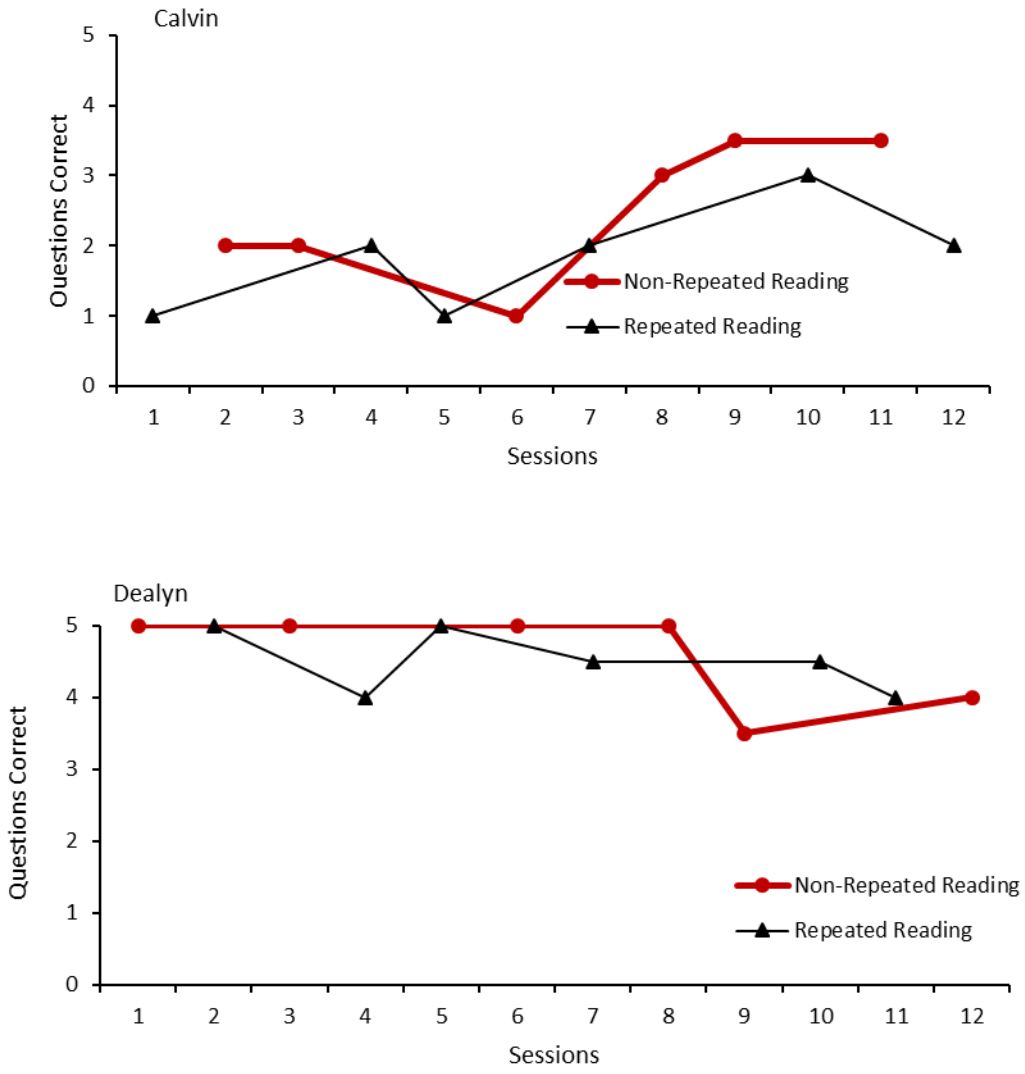

Figure 3. Correct answers to literal comprehension questions

Note: Literal comprehension as measured by the number of questions correctly answered during the end-of-session assessment.

Table 2

Individual and group means on Comprehension

Participants	Comprehension	
	Non-Repeated Reading	Repeated Reading
Calvin	2.50	1.83
	(1 -3.5)	(1 - 3)
Dealyn	4.58	4.50
	(3.5 - 5)	(4.5 - 5)
Group	3.46	3.17
	(1 - 5)	(1 - 5)

Note: The top numbers show individual mean numbers of words read correctly per minute. The bottom numbers show the range of scores. Group mean was calculated by adding the total number of group sessions completed by both participants and dividing by the number of individual sessions.

SUMMARY

This study examined whether there are differential effects in the ORF and number of literal comprehension questions answered correctly when participants were exposed to repeated reading or the non-repeated reading conditions. Calvin was 8 years 6 months old and in second grade, and Dealyn was 10 years 11 months old and in fifth grade at the time of the study. The two participants were ELLs who read below grade level. The results of the analysis of Calvin's study data showed an improvement in ORF score in the repeated reading condition compared to the non-repeated reading condition. However, the participant scored slightly higher on literal comprehension questions in the non-repeated reading condition than in the repeated reading condition. For Dealyn, the results showed an improvement in ORF score in the repeated reading

condition than in the non-repeated reading condition. Whereas, he scored slightly higher on the literal comprehension questions answered correctly when he was exposed to the non-repeated reading than in the repeated reading condition.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Despite a large body of research on repeated reading with non-English Language Learners (ELLs), only a handful of studies have examined the efficacy of repeated reading on ELLs with Specific learning disability (SLD) or who read below grade level. As such, this study adds to the literature base relating to the use of repeated and non-repeated reading intervention with ELLs who read below grade level. Specifically, this chapter presents an overview of the results of a study that used an alternating treatment design (ATD) to determine if the participants improved more in Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) and the number of comprehension questions answered correctly after performing repeated reading or non-repeated reading tasks. Additionally, a summary of the results, limitations, implications for practice and implications for future research are discussed.

MASI-R-Oral Reading Fluency Measures, a curriculum-based measure (CBM) designed to determine students' oral reading fluency level, was used to determine participants' instructional level at which to implement the intervention (Diamond & Thorsnes, 2018). After determining the instructional level, a commercially prepared fluency passage was used for the study. Passages used included a total of 12 fiction and non-fiction passages for each participant for the 6-week period. Passages were carefully chosen while gradually increasing the Lexile level (see Appendix B). The purpose of the Lexile level increase was to ensure the participants were exposed to the passages in a gradually increasing difficulty order because of the limited number of passages available for the researcher to use. Before beginning the study, the

researcher used a randomization tool from randomizer.org, to randomly assign the treatment conditions for each of the participants. Passages were assigned to the treatment conditions and WCPM and the correct numbers of literal comprehension questions were recorded accordingly.

The study was conducted on Zoom and recorded. The researcher provided a Zoom link for the participants, and the participants used the same link to join the meeting each time. The researcher met one-on-one with participants, twice a week at approximately the same time each week for about 15 to 20 minutes. The study lasted for six weeks. The researcher followed a script during the study to ensure language consistency (see Appendix C). The independent variables were repeated reading and non-repeated reading. For the repeated reading, the participants read the passage three times after which they answered five literal comprehension questions and then read for one minute. Feedback was provided only during the first practice reading. For the non-repeated reading, the participant read the passage once and then answered five literal comprehension questions and read for one minute. Feedback was also provided only during the first practice reading.

Data for the dependent variables were collected and analyzed. The data included a total of 24 intervention sessions with a total of 12 repeated reading condition and 12 non-repeated reading condition for both participants over a 6-week period. The mean results showed that repeated reading had some impact in improving ORF for both participants, although Dealyn made more improvement than Calvin. In addition, the mean result also showed that the non-repeated reading condition improved the number of literal comprehension questions answered correctly for both participants.

In sum, the current study contributed to the limited number of studies previously conducted on the ORF of ELLs reading below grade level or with Specific Learning Disability

(Barber et., al 2018; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010; Landa & Barbetta, 2017; Linan-Thompson et al., 2003; Rubin, 2016; Shore et al., 2015; Tam et al., 2006). These studies showed RR had a positive effect on ORF and comprehension development. In addition, some of the studies showed that participants could generalize to untaught passages (Barber et al., 2018; Landa & Barbetta, 2017).

Similarly, findings for the current study show that fluency performance for the participants improved in the RR condition, however, individual mean for the correct number of literal comprehension answered show that both participants improved more in the non-repeated reading condition than the repeated reading condition. The findings in the current study supports Therrien et al. (2012) conclusion that both RR and non-repeated reading may improve students' overall reading achievement. In addition, both repeated reading and assisted non-repeated reading improved comprehension among sixth grade students (Homan et al., 1993). Also, on measures of word identification, vocabulary or comprehension, findings in O'Connor (2007) revealed that there was no significant difference between whether a student repeatedly read a text for 15 minutes or whether they read for 15 minutes.

Furthermore, the group mean for this study also explains findings from the current study. In examining the fluency performance for both participants, group mean for the non-repeated reading and repeated reading were 95.08 and 107.67 respectively, the group mean was higher during the repeated reading condition. Also, the group mean for the correct number of literal comprehension questions answered for the non-repeated reading and repeated reading were 3.46 and 3.17 respectively. Unlike with the ORF group mean, the group mean for the correct number of literal comprehension questions answered correctly was higher during the non-repeated reading condition.

Ultimately, findings from this study should be interpreted with great caution considering the type of passages used and the fact that the study was conducted via Zoom. Prior to this study the researcher had received a 30-hour Institute of Multisensory Education (IMSE) comprehensive Orton-Gillingham training and had been utilizing this methodology in practice with students reading below grade level, and these students made great reading progress. However, at school, participants used for this study were exposed to the balanced literacy approach. Before this study was conducted, Dealyn on the other hand, had received a few private tutoring using the structured literacy methodology adapted to the IMSE methodology and had read decodable texts. The current study used non-decodable grade level text, however, Dealyn made some improvement in fluency. Calvin on the other hand struggled with decoding and reading with speed, he does not seem to have been exposed to the structured literacy methodology. Future research should explore decodable text with RR to see whether English Language Learners (ELLs) reading below grade level would improve more in ORF and the number of comprehension questions answered correctly.

LIMITATIONS

The current study had some limitations associated with it. First, the participants were only males. An attempt was made to include a female participant, however, her parents indicated that they were unable to commit to being available twice every week because the participant was also attending a school-based reading program. Therefore, this study cannot be generalized to female ELLs reading below grade level.

A second limitation of the study was that it was conducted via Zoom due to the prevailing COVID-19 pandemic that allowed for social distancing. Using this online platform may or may

not have impacted the participant's performance as they had to read on the screen and the researcher was unable to determine how legible the prints were for the participants.

In addition, a study by Middleton (2020) noted how problematic it would be to interpret standardized and national test scores because of the impact of COVID-19 which resulted in online learning. The study further explained that students who were behind continued to fall farther behind. Others had to deal with the lack of reliable internet access, background noise, computer accessibility, technology glitch and illness. In the current study, the researcher began the study with Dealyn and Calvin on the same week. Dealyn was present at all times, at about the same time for the study. Calvin on the other hand took ill at week 4 and this resulted in the completion of the study one week later than Dealyn. The researcher is unable to tell how Calvin's illness impacted his performance in the study.

Also, passages used for this study were non-decodable text. The researcher also gradually increased the lexile level (See Appendix B). The purpose of the Lexile level increase was to ensure the participants were exposed to the passages in a gradually increasing difficulty order because of the limited number of passages available for the researcher to use. This may or may not have affected how the participants performed.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The results of this study provide some implications for classroom practice. Calvin's ORF result show several overlaps between repeated reading and non-repeated reading (see figure 2). He seems to exhibit deficit in lower level lexical skills (i.e., word recognition) and higher level processes such as comprehension (Perfetti, 1985). Scarborough (2001) posited that word recognition depends on phonological awareness, decoding and sight recognition. When fluent readers decode words quickly, their word recognition become automatic. As their word

recognition become increasingly automatic and language comprehension become increasingly strategic, skilled reading is achieved (Scarborough, 2001). Hence, an ELL like Calvin might greatly benefit from a systematic, explicit and cumulative structured literacy instruction that has shown to be effective for struggling readers (Moats, 2017). This instruction utilizes evidence-based practices to teach basic foundational skills necessary for skilled reading. Structured literacy provides instruction in core skill areas needed for reading such as: phonology, sound-symbol correspondence, syllables, morphology, syntax and semantics (Carreker, 2020). Teachers who work with struggling readers like Calvin should first utilize structured literacy instruction and then incorporate repeated reading with decodable texts to build ORF.

In addition, internet instability and background noises sometimes got in the way too. Teachers should ensure that internet connection is strong and stable before conducting the intervention on any online platform. Another suggestion is that teachers could have the participant turn off the video to save on internet bandwidth. For background noises, teachers could provide an alternative quiet environment if they envisage that there would be a possibility of having to deal with background noises.

Also, after the screen share, the researcher was unable to decipher how legible the passage prints were on the participant's screen – although the researcher ensured to ask if the participants could see and read from the screen well. Teachers could provide training to students to help them navigate the Zoom interface and ensure they can read on Zoom in full screen mode. Also, teachers should ensure students do not join the meeting using an Ipad or a phone. Encouraging the student to use a device such as a laptop or a desktop and read from a full screen mode would mitigate legibility issues. In addition, teachers should zoom in or out on reading passage to ensure that the passage is legible enough for the student to read.

Other considerations for practice with using RR on Zoom is that the teacher could use the RR strategy for individual students in Zoom break out room. The student could repeatedly read aloud for a fixed number of times e.g. 3 times or the student could repeatedly read aloud until a particular predetermined criterion level of fluency is attained as determined by the teacher. An example of using the predetermined criterion to increase fluency would be when a participant might have to read a particular passage for up to 10 times over 4 instructional days until they are able to read 120 words correct with 0 or 1 error. The number of rereads vary. Some might be able to achieve the 120 words correct in less than 10 rereads, while others might be needing more.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Due to the limitations discussed above, the observations in the current study could be further explored under more suitable study conditions. Participants in this study were of the same cultural and ethnic background. These participants grew up in homes where parents communicated in their native language other than English, and upheld West-African cultural practices. Both participants also have considerable access to the social support that typical middle-class homes can afford. Future research may explore how ELLs of different ethnic and social economic backgrounds would respond to RR and non-RR interventions.

In this study, participants repeatedly read for a fixed number of times (i.e., three times). A future study of ELLs reading below grade level may consider using a predetermined fluency criterion instead (Tam et al., 2006). Unlike in reading for a fixed number of times, the participants meet a specific ORF rate set by the researcher for the reading passage to be completed when a predetermined fluency criterion is used. In Tam et al. (2006) result showed that using a predetermined fluency criterion in repeated reading was more effective than

repeatedly reading the same passage three times. Participants, who were English Language Learners (ELLs) with Learning Disabilities made more gains in ORF when they read until they reached the fluency criterion.

Furthermore, the current research utilized only non-decodable text. After ensuring that participants have been systematically, explicitly and cumulatively exposed to structured literacy instruction, future research should compare the differential effects of repeated and non-repeated reading on decodable and non-decodable texts. Future research should ensure that the participants have been exposed to, and mastered the concepts in the decodable texts before using them for the study. In addition, the researcher could collect repeated readings practice trial data, to be able to analyze and compare the differences and errors made across the rereadings.

In conclusion, despite the various limitations and the need for future research, this study contributed to a handful of research that had examined the effects of repeated reading on the ORF and comprehension of ELLs with SLD or who read below grade level.

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APPENDIX A

COMPILED ORF NORMS

Hasbrouck & Tindal (2017)

From Hasbrouck, J. & Tindal, G. (2017). *An update to compiled ORF norms* (Technical Report No. 1702). Eugene, OR. Behavioral Research and Teaching, University of Oregon.

Grade	Percentile	Fall WCPM*	Winter WCPM*	Spring WCPM*
1	90		97	116
	75		59	91
	50		29	60
	25		16	34
	10		9	18
2	90	111	131	148
	75	84	109	124
	50	50	84	100
	25	36	59	72
	10	23	35	43
3	90	134	161	166
	75	104	137	139
	50	83	97	112
	25	59	79	91
	10	40	62	63

Grade	Percentile	Fall WCPM*	Winter WCPM*	Spring WCPM*
4	90	153	168	184
	75	125	143	160
	50	94	120	133
	25	75	95	105
	10	60	71	83
5	90	179	183	195
	75	153	160	169
	50	121	133	146
	25	87	109	119
	10	64	84	102
6	90	185	195	204
	75	159	166	173
	50	132	145	146
	25	112	116	122
	10	89	91	91

*WCPM = Words Correct Per Minute

APPENDIX B- GRADE TEXTS

First Grade Texts

Weeks	Day 1	Day 2
Week 1	Title: The Circus Lexile: 270 WC: 155 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 2**	Title: Exercise Lexile:320 WC: 145 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 1**
Week 2	Title: Stars Lexile: 330 WC:152 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 1**	Title: Insects Lexile: 360 WC: 157 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 2**
Week 3	Title: Yellow fish, Orange fish Lexile: 370 WC: 167 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 2**	Title: Feathers Lexile: 390 WC: 155 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 1**
Week 4	Title: Cory the Frog Lexile: 400 WC: 196 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 2**	Title: Bats Lexile: 410 WC: 152 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 1**
Week 5	Title: A Fun Day Lexile: 420 WC: 164 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 1**	Title: The Planet Jupiter Lexile: 440 WC: 144 Genre: Non Fiction **Treatment 2**
Week 6	Title: Ryan Ray Lexile: 450 WC: 162 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 1**	Title: The planets Uranus and Neptune Lexile: 460 WC: 147 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 2**

Treatment 1=Non repeated reading

Treatment 2=Repeated reading

Fourth Grade Texts

Weeks	Day 1	Day 2
Week 1	Title: Sue Maggoo, Alien Bus Driver Lexile: 720 WC: 268 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 1**	Title: Mystery of the Disappearing Guinea pig Lexile: 760 WC:267 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 2**
Week 2	Title: Winter Wonderland Lexile: 770 WC:198 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 1**	Title: Pirates at Sea Lexile:780 WC:236 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 2**
Week 3	Title: The Joy of Reading Lexile: 790 WC: 221 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 2**	Title: The Missing Princess Lexile: 820 WC:279 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 1**
Week 4	Title: Fourth Grade Superhero Lexile: 830 WC: 209 Genre: Fiction **Treatment 2**	Title: The Solar System Lexile: 850 WC: 218 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 1**
Week 5	Title: Mount Everest Lexile: 860 WC: 192 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 1**	Title: Sharks Lexile: 880 WC: 201 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 2**
Week 6	Title: The History of Skateboarding Lexile: 890 WC: 224 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 2**	Title: Gorillas Lexile: 910 WC: 202 Genre: Non fiction **Treatment 1**

Treatment 1=Non repeated reading

Treatment 2=Repeated reading

Name: Date: Session #:

Title:

Type Passage Here

Sample First Grade Text

Student Copy

The Circus

The circus is in town! I am excited to go. There are clowns with funny faces. They ride little bikes and make us laugh. The clowns have hair in all different colors. There are elephants to ride. They have saddles for me to sit in. They have crowns with feathers on their heads. The tiger will show his teeth. He has very sharp teeth. Someone will try and get him to jump through a hoop. I like the monkeys. They are funny. The monkeys play games. They wrestle with each other. They jump into the crowds of people. Maybe a monkey will sit on my lap. The best part of the show is the acrobats. They are the people who swing way up high. They do flips and turns. They fly through the air. I would like to fly through the air like the acrobats. The circus is in town! I am excited to go.

Sample First Grade Text

Teacher Copy

Name:_____ **Date:**_____

The Circus

The circus is in town! I am excited to go. There are clowns with 14
funny faces. They ride little bikes and make us laugh. The clowns have 27
hair in all different colors. There are elephants to ride. They have saddles 40
for me to sit in. They have crowns with feathers on their heads. The tiger 55
will show his teeth. He has very sharp teeth. Someone will try and get 69
him to jump through a hoop. I like the monkeys. They are funny. The 83
monkeys play games. They wrestle with each other. They jump into the 95
crowds of people. Maybe a monkey will sit on my lap. The best part of 110
the show is the acrobats. They are the people who swing way up high. 124
They do flips and turns. They fly through the air. I would like to fly 139
through the air like the acrobats. The circus is in town! I am excited to 154
go. 155

Sample First Grade Text

Comprehension Questions

The Circus

Directions: Give a check mark for correct responses

Give an X for incorrect responses

Questions	Correct	Incorrect
1.What do the clowns do? Answer key: They ride bikes and make people laugh		
2. List three other animals in this passage. Answer key: Elephants, tiger, Monkeys		
3. What do the elephants have? Answer key: They have saddles to sit in and crowns with feathers on their heads		
4. What is the best part of the show? Answer key: The acrobat		
5. How does the author feel about the circus? Answer key: He is excited about the circus and he wants to go.		

Total Number of Correct Literal Comprehension response	

Sample Fourth Grade Text

Student Copy

Gorillas

The mighty gorilla lives in Africa, and there are two species, the eastern and the western gorilla. Gorillas live in swamps, forests, and mountain forests. They weigh approximately 400 pounds, which makes them the largest species of primates, with the males far outweighing the females. Males can grow over five feet, while the females don't grow more than four and a half feet. The arms on a gorilla are longer than its legs! They are so long, they brush the ground when they walk. They use their knuckles to walk on all fours. Gorillas are covered in brown hair. Some have lighter or darker, depending on where they live. The older males have hair that turns white on their back, they are referred to as silver back gorillas. What do these massive, mighty animals eat? They are herbivores, which means they do not eat meat. Instead, they consume plants, fruits, stems, and bamboo shoots. Gorillas eat as much as fifty pounds of food daily. Gorillas are very bright animals that have been taught how to communicate with humans using sign language. They live in groups called troops with one dominant male who will become aggressive if he feels his troop is in danger.

Sample Fourth Grade Text

Teacher Copy

Name:_____ **Date:**_____

Gorillas

The mighty gorilla lives in Africa, and there are two species, the eastern and the western gorilla. Gorillas live in swamps, forests, and mountain forests. They weigh approximately 400 pounds, which makes them the largest species of primates, with the males far outweighing the females. Males can grow over five feet, while the females don't grow more than four and a half feet. The arms on a gorilla are longer than its legs! They are so long, they brush the ground when they walk. They use their knuckles to walk on all fours. Gorillas are covered in brown hair. Some have lighter or darker, depending on where they live. The older males have hair that turns white on their back, they are referred to as silver back gorillas. What do these massive, mighty animals eat? They are herbivores, which means they do not eat meat. Instead, they consume plants, fruits, stems, and bamboo shoots. Gorillas eat as much as fifty pounds of food daily. Gorillas are very bright animals that have been taught how to communicate with humans using sign language. They live in groups called troops with one dominant male who will become aggressive if he feels his troop is in danger.

15 27 40 55 74 92 107 125 138 152 168 181 196 203

Sample Fourth Grade Text

Comprehension Questions

Fourth Grade Post-Session Literal Comprehension Assessment

Gorillas

Directions: Give a check mark for correct responses

Give an X for incorrect responses

Questions	Correct	Incorrect
1.List the two species of Gorillas? Response: The eastern and the western gorilla		
2. Approximately how much does a Gorilla weigh. Response: It weighs about 400 pounds.		
3.What are the older male gorillas with white hair on their back referred to? Response: Silver back gorillas.		
4. Why are gorillas referred to as herbivores? Response: They do not eat meat/they only eat plants, fruits		
5. How do gorillas communicate with humans? Response: They use sign language.		

Total Number of Correct Literal Comprehension response	

APPENDIX C-SCRIPT FOR TREATMENT CONDITIONS

Script for Non-Repeated Reading treatment condition

Researcher	Participant
R: Hello----good to see you again! I am going to share my screen with you [shares the screen with the reading passage, ensuring it is bold enough for participant to read] can you see my screen okay?	P: Hello-----[confirms that screen share is okay]
R: You are going to read this passage to me one time. At the end, I am going to ask you some questions from the passage, afterwards, you are going to read to me again for 1 minute. Do you have any questions? [Researcher answers participant's questions]	P: [asks applicable questions]
R: The title of this passage is ---------- begin from here, you will read to the end [shows participant the beginning spot]	
R: Start reading [follows participants' reading using the teacher's copy of the same passage].	P: [reads from beginning spot to the end]
R: [provides error correction for only the first reading practice. For error correction, researcher immediately reads the incorrect word and asks participant to repeat] That word is ------- repeat	P: [Repeats the word]
R: Now read this sentence	P: [Reads the sentence containing the word]
[After the Non-Repeated Reading Treatment condition, researcher stop screen share and participant answers comprehension questions for the end-of-session assessment].	

Script for Non-Repeated Reading End-of-session comprehension assessment

Researcher	Participant
R: I am going to ask you 5 questions. Try your best to give a quick response. [Researcher sequentially calls out the questions beginning from 1 to 5. Researcher gives 5 seconds for participants to respond. If participant responds correctly, researcher gives a short positive statement e.g "*yes" or "correct"*. If the participant does not respond correctly or does not respond within the 5 seconds time, the researcher gives the correct answer and marks it as incorrect for the participant]. R: [At the end of the 5th question] Thank you for your effort. [After the comprehension end-of-session assessment, researcher conducts the Non-Repeated Reading end-of-session ORF assessment].	P: [Answers the literal comprehension questions]

Script for Non-Repeated Reading End-of-session Oral Reading Fluency assessment

Researcher	Participant
R: Next, I am going to time you for 1-minute and you are going to read to me. I am going to share my screen with you [shares the screen with the reading passage, ensuring it is bold enough for participant to read] can you see my screen okay?	P: [confirms that screen share is okay]
R: Do you have any questions?	P: [Asks appropriate question(s)]
R: When I say "please begin, "read aloud the first word in the passage and then continue reading across the line. [Researcher shows the first word]. Keep reading until I ask you to stop**.**	
R: Please begin [starts 1-minute timer when participant reads the first word] [puts a slash through errors, errors include: hesitating for more than 3 seconds, mispronunciations, and skipping a word. Self-correction within 3 seconds, additions, or pronunciations that reflect dialectical interference are not counted as errors].	P: [Reads for 1 minute]
R: [Timer goes off] Thank you. [puts a bracket (]) after the last word read before the 1- minute timer went off].	P: [Stops reading]
R: [To end the daily session] We have come to the end of our session for today, thank you for your time, see you on ----	P: [Leaves Zoom meeting]

Script for Repeated Reading treatment condition

Researcher	Participant
R: Hello----good to see you again! I am going to share my screen with you [shares the screen with the reading passage, ensuring it is bold enough for participant to read] can you see my screen okay?	P: Hello-----[confirms that screen share is okay]
R: Dealyn, you are going to read this passage to me three times. At the end, I am going to ask you some questions from the passage, afterwards, you are going to read to me again for 1 minute. Do you have any questions? [Researcher answers participant's questions]	P: [asks applicable questions]
R: The title of this passage is ---------- begin from here, you will read to the end [shows participant the beginning spot]	
R: Start reading [follows participants' reading using the teacher's copy of the same passage].	P: [Reads from beginning spot to the end]
R: [provides error correction for only the first reading practice. For error correction, researcher immediately reads the incorrect word and asks participant to repeat] That word is ------- repeat	P: [Repeats the word]
R: Now read this sentence	P: [Reads the sentence containing the word]
R: Great first reading [At the end of the first reading] Now you are going to read to me a 2nd time. When I say "please begin, "read aloud the first word in the passage and then continue reading across the line, you will read to the end [shows the first word and last word] Do you have any question?	P: [Asks appropriate question(s)]
R: Please begin [starts stopwatch when participant reads the first word]	P: [starts reading]
R: [Researcher takes WCPM during the first minute of the 2nd reading and puts a bracket (]) to mark off the last word read before the end of 1 minute. No error correction will be	P: [Reads to the end]

provided and researcher lets participant read to the end]. R: [Researcher puts a slash through errors, errors include: hesitating for more than 3 seconds, mispronunciations, and skipping a word. Self-correction within 3 seconds, additions, or pronunciations that reflect dialectical interference are not counted as errors]**.**	
R**:** Great second reading [At the end of the second reading] Now you are going to read to me a 3rd time. When I say "please begin, "read aloud the first word in the passage and then continue reading across the line, you will read to the end [shows the first word and last word] Do you have any question?	P: [Asks appropriate question(s)]
R: Please begin [starts stop watch when participant reads the first word]	P: [Starts reading]
R: [Researcher takes WCPM during the first minute of the 3rd reading and puts a bracket (]) to mark off the last word read before the end of 1 minute. No error correction will be provided and researcher lets participant read to the end].	P: [Reads to the end]
R: [Researcher puts a slash through errors, errors include: hesitating for more than 3 seconds, mispronunciations, and skipping a word. Self-correction within 3 seconds, additions, or pronunciations that reflect dialectical interference are not counted as errors]**.** [After the Repeated Reading Treatment condition, researcher stop screen share and participant answers comprehension questions for the end-of-session assessment].	

Script for Repeated Reading End-of-session comprehension assessment

Researcher	Participant
R: I am going to ask you 5 questions. Try your best to give a quick response. [Researcher sequentially calls out the questions beginning from 1 to 5. Researcher gives 5 seconds for participants to respond. If participant responds correctly, researcher gives a short positive statement e.g "*yes" or "correct"*. If the participant does not respond correctly or does not respond within the 5 seconds time, the researcher gives the correct answer and marks it as incorrect for the participant]. R: [At the end of the 5th question] Thank you for your effort. [After the comprehension post-session assessment, researcher conducts the Repeated Reading ORF end-of-session assessment].	P: [Answers the literal comprehension questions]

Script for Repeated Reading End-of-session Oral Reading Fluency assessment

Researcher	Participant
R: Next, I am going to time you for 1-minute and you are going to read to me. I am going to share my screen with you [shares the screen with the reading passage, ensuring it is bold enough for participant to read] can you see my screen okay?	P: [confirms that screen share is okay]
R: Do you have any questions?	P: [Asks appropriate question(s)]
R: When I say "please begin, "read aloud the first word in the passage and then continue reading across the line. [Researcher shows the first word]. Keep reading until I ask you to stop**.**	
R: Please begin [starts 1-minute timer when participant reads the first word]	P: [Reads for 1 minute]
[puts a slash through errors, errors include: hesitating for more than 3 seconds, mispronunciations, and skipping a word. Self-correction within 3 seconds, additions, or pronunciations that reflect dialectical interference are not counted as errors].	
R: [Timer goes off] Thank you. [puts a bracket (]) after the last word read before the 1- minute timer went off].	P: [Stops reading]
R: [To end the daily session] We have come to the end of our session for today, thank you for your time, see you on ----	P: [Leaves Zoom meeting]

APPENDIX D- DATA COLLECTION FORMS

Non-Repeated Reading end-of-session Assessment

Error = Mispronouncing; Hesitating for more than 3 sec; Skipping a word

WCPM = Words Read - Error

Words Read	
Error	
WCPM	

End-of-session WCPM	

End-of-session Literal Comprehension Assessment

Directions: Give a check mark for correct responses

Give an X for incorrect responses

Questions	Correct	Incorrect
1. Type Question Here		
2. Type Question Here		
3. Type Question Here		
4. Type Question Here		
5. Type Question Here		
Total Number of Correct Literal Comprehension response		

Repeated Reading practice WCPM & end-of-session Assessment

Error = Mispronouncing; Hesitating for more than 3 sec; Skipping a word

WCPM = Word Read - Error

	Practice 2	Practice 3	End-of-Session ORF Assessment
Words Read			
Error			
WCPM			

End-of-session WCPM	

End-of-session Literal Comprehension Assessment

Directions: Give a check make for correct responses

Give an X for incorrect responses

Question	**Correct**	**Incorrect**
1. Type Question Here		
2. Type Question Here		
3. Type Question Here		
4. Type Question Here		
5. Type Question Here		

Total Number of Correct Literal Comprehension response	