

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**EFFECT OF EXTENSIVE READING ON THE READABILITY OF  
CHILDREN WITH READING DIFFICULTIES**

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UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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CHILDREN WITH READING DIFFICULTIES

BY

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requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Special Education

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DECLARATION

**Candidate's Declaration**

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: .....Date: .....

Name: .....

**Supervisors' Declaration**

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: .....Date: .....

Name: .....

Co-supervisor's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: .....

## ABSTRACT

The study investigated the effect of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties. The research design adopted for the study was experimental design specifically the quasi experimental design. A sample of 90 children was sampled using simple random sampling and purposive techniques. The experimental group consisted of 40 children and the control group consisted of 50 children. The major instrument used for data collection was reading tests.

The study revealed that Partner Reading (PR) and Repeated Reading (RR) are effective and significant approaches that can be used to improve children's reading abilities. There was a statistical significant difference in the scores of children in the experimental group and children in the control group. The study also found that Read Aloud (RA) approach is not an effective approach or strategy to help children with reading difficulties since Post-hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell test revealed that the mean score for Read Aloud was significantly different from Partner Reading and Repeated Reading.

The study recommended that school heads, administrators and teachers should make a conscious effort to screen pupils in primary three to ascertain their reading abilities. Ministry of Education (MOE) in collaboration with school heads should provide in-service training to teachers to enable them acquire the requisite skills and strategies that will help children who face challenges in reading in remedial teaching.

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my sweetest mother, confidant, sister and friend

Margaret Aba Odro.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### **Background to the Study**

Reading is paramount in everyday activities. The child's ability to read is very important because reading is a functional activity that facilitates the learning process (Walker, 1985). The child's academic achievement is dependent on his or her ability to read, therefore, if a child has problems in reading, he or she faces challenges in academic achievement (Hitchcock, Prater & Doworick, 2004; Osborn, Freeman, Burley, Wilson, Jones & Rychener, 2007). This presupposes that the hallmark of academic success is dependent on the individual's readability. Thus, if children do not learn to read and understand it will create serious conditions that will lead to failure in life (Lyon, 2003).

In the simplest sense, reading means recognising letters and groups of letters as symbols that stand for particular sounds. The sounds emanate from words that express ideas in written or printed form (Perfetti, 2007). It can therefore be asserted that one's readability is impeded when he/she encounters difficulty in recognising letters and group of letters as symbols that stand for particular sounds. Reading difficulty refers to an unexpected failure to read, write or spell despite average intelligence and motivation (Peyrard-Janvid, Anthoni, Onkamo, Laherno & Zucchelli, 2004). It can be deduced that, reading difficulty arises when there is an incongruity in children's actual reading ability and what they might be expected to achieve relative to their age groups.

From the global perspective, it is estimated that between 2 to 5% of school children have reading difficulties (Wong, 2001). According to the National Centre for Education Statistics (2007b), reports from national assessment of reading progress reveal that in 2007, almost 34% of fourth grade pupils in United States of America read below a basic level of achievement (with little or no mastery of reading knowledge and skills necessary to perform work of their grade level). Findings from the study carried out in the United Kingdom among the English speaking children, indicated that, “of the grade two and three children whose reading was assessed, approximately a quarter were functioning at fairly low level of their grade and approximately 1 out of 20 were hardly able to read at all” (Gross 1995, p.143).

The Rose Report (2009) noted poor literacy to be associated with educational failure, emotional and behavioural problems in the school years, reduced earning potential, increased risk of unemployment and social exclusion in adulthood. This shows that poor literacy cumulates in other associated problems. Rose (2009) further asserted that, for these reasons, there has been considerable interest in understanding the underlying causes of reading difficulties, improving identification and developing effective interventions. Identifying children with reading difficulties as early as possible is important to their learning in all areas. Children can then be given the support they need to keep up with their classmates and take part in all the learning opportunities at school.

Also in Africa, a research conducted by the Southern Africa Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality in about 15 countries



including Mauritius, Zambia, Lesotho, Uganda, Botswana and South Africa indicated that most pupils read below what was expected of their grade level. Additionally, some of them were not able to read at all. Specifically, Mauritius, Zimbabwe, Zambia and Namibia were reported to have performed poorly to the extent that, 97.6% of grade six learners were virtually unable to read.

Difficulty with reading is the most common characteristic of children with learning disabilities (Heward, 2009). It is estimated that 90% of all children identified as learning disabled are referred for special education services because of reading problems (Kavale & Forness, 2000). Even, some children with high cognitive abilities in general education have reading difficulties. They comprise 10% of school children (Lyon, 1995b; Shaywitz, 2003; Snow, Burns, & Griffittin, 1998). These children with reading difficulties with or without additional learning difficulties have problems with poor phonological processing (Snowling, 2000). Additionally, they have difficulty decoding alphabets and relating visual symbols to basic speech sounds (Snowling, 2000).

The situation in the countries mentioned above is not different from Ghana. A study conducted in Ghana showed that, most children in the primary schools have difficulty in reading (Early Graders Reading Assessment Report, 2014). The report further stated, specifically that, 98% of primary two pupils in Ghana could not read. This notwithstanding, about 75% of children with reading difficulties in primary three continue to be poor readers in the upper primary (Lyon, 1995a&Torgesen, 2000) and reading difficulties continue to persist into adulthood (Lyon, Alexander & Yaffe, 1997). It is then clear that a

lot of pupils face reading difficulty, especially primary school children, which affect their educational growth and development, hence, the need to identify best strategies to improve their readability. Thus a study on effects of some extensive reading approaches on the readability of children with reading difficulties is a welcome call.

### **Statement of the Problem**

In Ghana, it is common knowledge that most children have reading difficulties. According to Early Graders Readers Assessment report (2014), the National Education Assessment report 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2013 showed that, most children in the primary schools struggled to read. The Chief Examiner's Report 2005 on the performance of Ghanaian pupils in the Basic Education Certificate Examination indicated that pupil's performance in the English Language over the years was quite appalling. The reason given for their abysmal performance was partly due to pupils' difficulty in reading which even caused some of them to deviate in the course of answering examination questions.

Moreover, most recent final version of the Ghana Early Graders Readers Assessment (May 2014) conducted for basic three and six children showed that majority of public school children could not read. The outcome of the Early Graders Readers Assessment further indicated that by the end of primary 2 only 2% of children in the public schools could read (Early Graders Reading Assessment final version, May 2014). There must therefore be a way of dealing with the reading ability of children so that they can improve on their reading ability and consequently promote their competence in their academic achievement. Can the use of extensive reading approaches (such as Repeated

Reading, Partner Reading and Read Aloud) be the solution? This therefore gives me the impetus to ascertain the effects of extensive reading approaches on the readability of children with reading difficulties.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the effects of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties. Specifically, the study is guided by the following objectives.

1. To examine whether the use of Repeated Reading, Partner Reading and Read Aloud, will improve the readability of children with reading difficulties.
2. To explore the relative efficacies of the three approaches to reading.
3. To assess the most effective approach for improving the readability of children with reading difficulties.

### **Research Question/Hypotheses**

1. Which of the extensive reading approaches (Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading) is the most effective approach for improving the readability of children with reading difficulties?

The following hypotheses were used for the study.

1.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference in the reading ability between children with reading difficulties who are taught using the Repeated Reading approach (experimental group) and those who are not taught with the Repeated Reading approach (control group).
2.  $H_0$ : There is no statistically significant difference in the reading ability between children with reading difficulties who are taught using the

Partner Reading approach (experimental group) and those who are not taught with the Partner Reading approach (control group).

3. H<sub>0</sub>: There is no statistically significant difference in the reading ability between children with reading difficulties who are taught using the Read Aloud approach (experimental group) and those who are not taught with the Read Aloud approach (control group).

### **Significance of the Study**

The findings of this study may be of enormous benefits to institutions, policy makers, as well as individuals in diverse ways. The study brought to the fore, the usefulness of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties so that institutions such as Ghana Education Service and other relevant institutions can adopt the findings and translate it further into policies for adoption and implementation.

General education teachers as well as special educators would be informed by this study on the need to encourage extensive reading in the classroom as an effective tool for overcoming some of the problems associated with children with reading difficulties. The findings of the study can serve as a useful source of reference for future researchers who might want to conduct research in the field or replicate the study in a different setting.

### **Delimitation of the Study**

Although there are several strategies related to the concept of extensive reading, the study focused on the use of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties through Repeated Reading, Partner Reading, and Read Aloud. Also, the study focused on reading problems and examined

the most effective approach that could be used to improve the readability of children with reading difficulties.

### **Limitations of the Study**

Only pupils in class three of six selected basic schools in the Western Region of Ghana were used for the study. Three of the schools were used as experimental groups while the remaining three were the control groups. Again, not all the pupils in the basic schools were covered. This undoubtedly affected the sample size making it impossible to generalize the findings.

Again, certain basic essentials were taken for granted. These include the economic background of the pupils, the presence or absence of quality teachers (i.e. Well trained teachers) and availability or lack of teaching and learning materials in terms of reading materials or libraries. Further some of the children may have entered the school with certain deficits like learning disabilities and, if such deficits were not detected earlier enough for proper intervention measures, these children could continue to the upper primary school since primary three is a transitional class.

### **Definition of Terms**

For the purpose of the study, certain words and terms are used which may not be familiar to the reader. Such words and terms have been explained as follows:

Extensive reading: Means reading a lot of self-selected easy, interesting texts for general information.

Readability: The ability to read.

Reading difficulty: Refers to the inability to read, write or spell despite adequate intelligence, opportunity and motivation. For

the purpose of the study, reading difficulty refers to the inability to read fluently. It includes mispronunciation, omission, as well as substitution.

**Repeated Reading:** Involves having children re-read a short passage 2 or more times, sometimes reading the passage until a suitable reading fluency level is met.

**Partner Reading:** Refers to children taking turns to read portions of piece of literature aloud to each other.

### **Organization of the Rest of the Thesis**

Chapter two discussed the literature review related to the study. The review involved empirical studies and the conceptual review of the problem under study. The third chapter described the methodology used in the study specifically: the research design, the research instrument, the pre-testing and post-testing procedure, the procedure for data collection and data analysis. In chapter four, the results and discussion of the study were presented. The final chapter drew relevant conclusions and recommendations based on the research findings.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **Introduction**

This section dealt with the synopsis of the literature review. It highlighted areas such as concept of reading, importance of reading, theories of reading, concepts of extensive reading, characteristics of extensive reading, importance of extensive reading, models of extensive reading, reading difficulties, types of reading difficulties, causes of reading difficulties as well as empirical literature review.

### **THEORETICAL REVIEW**

#### **Theories of Reading**

With a particular consideration to the four language skills, reading is possibly the most extensively and intensively studied by experts in the field of language teaching. The results as proposed by many researchers for many decades on nature of reading, thus how people learn to process textual information have provided contrasting theories about what works best in the teaching of reading. As a result, language educators can choose among a wide variety of teaching methods and techniques for children learning to read in their second language (SL) or foreign language (FL) (Pardede, 2010). The complications of reading and learning how to read can be lost on those who know how to do it. For many people, it is difficult to remember a time when they could not read, as many learn at a younger age.

For many learners or those who learn how to read later in life, the difficulties of reading is clear. To approach these difficulties, literacy experts

theorise how reading happens and develop instructional models to help individual master this complicated process (Hamilton, 2011). According to Pardede (2010), there are three main theories which explain the nature of learning to read. The first one he discussed is the traditional theory, or *bottom up processing*, which according to him focused on the printed form of a text. This is followed by cognitive view, or *top-down processing* which indicates the role of background knowledge in addition to what appeared on the printed page. The last one he talks about is the metacognitive theory, which is based on the control and manipulation that a reader can have on the act of comprehending a text, and as such, emphasises the involvement of the reader's thinking about what he is doing while reading.

### **Traditional Theory of Reading**

Omaggio (1993) cited in Pardede (2010) posited that, the traditional bottom-up approach to reading was influenced by behaviourist psychology of the 1950s. This focuses on habit formation, brought about by the repeated association of a stimulus response and language learning which is characterised by a response system, that, humans acquire through habitual conditioning processes, where some patterns of language are reinforced (rewarded) and others are not, and only those patterns reinforced will persist. Pardede (2010) further argued that the main method associated with the bottom-up approach to reading today is known as phonics. According to him, phonics requires the learner to match letters with sounds in a defined sequence.

According to this view, reading is a linear process by which readers decode a text word by word, linking the words into phrases and then sentences



(Gray & Rogers 1956, cited in Kucer 1987). Samuels and Kamil (1988) were also of the view that, emphasis on behaviourism considered reading as a word-recognition response to the stimuli of the printed words, where little attempt was made to explain what went on within the recesses of the mind that allowed the human to make sense of the printed page. Stated differently, textual comprehension involves adding the meanings of words to get the meanings of clauses (Anderson, 1994). These lower or sub-skills of reading are connected to the visual stimulus, or print, and are consequently concerned with recognising and recalling.

Dole, Duff, Roehler and Pearson (1991) commenting on the traditional theory of reading, postulated that in the traditional view of reading, novice readers acquire a set of hierarchically order sub-skills that sequentially build toward comprehension ability. The bottom-up model sees information flow as a sequence of stages which alters the input and passes it to the next stage without any feedback or possibility of later stages of the process influencing earlier stages (Stanovich, 1980). That is, language is regarded as a code and the reader's main task is to identify graphemes and convert them into phonemes.

As a result, readers are seen as passive recipients of information in the text. Meaning resides in the text and the reader has to reproduce it. Nunan (1991a) also argued that reading in this view is basically a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents in the quest for making sense of the text. He referred to this process as the '*bottom-up*' view of reading. McCarthy (1999) on his part saw this view as '**outside-in**' processing;

as he opined that meaning exists in the printed page and is interpreted by the reader then taken in.

It is worthy to note here that, the traditional model of reading has come under immense criticisms. One such criticism is the fact that it is insufficient and defective for the main reason that it relies on the formal features of the language, mainly words and structure. Although it is possible to accept this rejection for the fact that there is over-reliance on structure in this view, it must be asserted that, knowledge of linguistic features is also necessary for comprehension to take place. To counteract over-reliance on form in the traditional view of reading, the cognitive view was introduced (Pardede, 2010).

### **Cognitive Theory of Reading**

The cognitive theory of reading also known as top-down processing is in a direct opposition or it counteracts traditional theory of reading. This new cognitive approach revolutionised the conception of the way children learn to read (Smith, 1994). Thus, in the 1960s a paradigm shift occurred in the cognitive sciences. Behaviourism became a subject of debate among scholars and was somewhat discredited because the new cognitive theory represented the mind's innate capacity for learning, which gave new explanatory power to how humans acquired their first language; this also had a tremendous impact on the field of English as first language or English as second language as psycholinguists explained "how such internal representations of the foreign language develop within the learner's mind" (Omaggio, 1993, pp. 57 as cited in Pardede, 2010).

According to Pardede (2010) there is an emphasis on the distinction between *meaningful learning* and *rote learning*. Rote learning according to Omaggio, (1993), is simply memorising lists of isolated words or rules in a new language, where the information becomes temporary and subject to loss. Meaningful learning, on the other hand, occurs when new information is presented in a relevant context and is related to what the learner already knows, so that it can be easily integrated into one's existing cognitive structure (Pardede, 2010). Deducing from the above, a learning that is not meaningful will not become permanent. This emphasis on meaning eventually informed the top-down approach to second language learning, and in the 1960s and 1970s there was an explosion of teaching methods and activities that strongly considered the experience and knowledge of the learner.

In this view, reading is not just extracting meaning from a text but a process of connecting information in the text with the knowledge the reader brings to the act of reading. In this sense, I maintain the idea that, reading is a dialogue between the reader and the text which involves an active cognitive process in which the reader's background knowledge plays a key role in the creation of meaning. The cognitive theory of reading is viewed from the point that the concept of reading is learned first and then broken down into individual words, parts of words, sentences, paragraph and so on.

This theory of reading believes there is a moment in which individuals understand the process of reading without components of how words fit together among others. A cognitive based view of reading comprehension emphasizes the interaction nature of reading and the constructive nature of comprehension. Dole, Duff, Roehler and Pearson (1991) stated that, besides

knowledge brought to bear on a reading process a set of flexible adaptable strategies are used to make sense of a text and to monitor on-going understanding. Cognitive theory of reading lends itself to models of instruction like holistic models that see individual approach text as a whole even if they are not familiar with all the words or phrases or even how the words fit together into sentences.

### **Schema Theory of Reading**

Another theory that is so paramount to reading instruction is the Schema theory which is closely related to top-down processing. This theory according to Pardede (2010), describes in detail how the background knowledge of the learner interacts with the reading task and illustrates how a child's knowledge and previous experience with the world is crucial to decoding a text. The ability to use this schemata, or background knowledge, plays a fundamental role in one's trial to comprehend a text. Schema theory is based on the notion that past experiences lead to the creation of mental frameworks that help a reader make sense of new experiences (Pardede, 2010).

The "extensive representations of more general patterns or regularities that occur in our experience" is what Smith (1994, p. 14) referred to as *schemes*. For instance one's generic scheme of the names of objects will allow him to understand the topic nouns. This therefore is an indication that past experiences will be related to new experiences, which may include the knowledge of "objects, situations, and events as well as knowledge of procedures for retrieving, organising and interpreting information" (Kucer, 1987, p.31). Pardede (2010) reaffirming Anderson and Pearson (1988) views

found in a research that recall of information in a text is affected by the reader's schemata and explained that "a reader comprehends a message when he is able to bring to mind a schema that gives account of the objects and events described in the message" (p.469).

Also that, comprehension is the process of "activating or constructing a schema that provides a coherent explanation of objects and events mentioned in a discourse" (p. 469). Thus, according to Anderson and Pearson (1988), comprehension is the interaction between old and new information. According to them, to say that one has comprehended a text is to say that she has found a mental 'home' for the information in the text, or else that she had modified an existing mental home in order to accommodate that new information. Therefore, a learner's schemata rearranges his or her scheme to accommodate new information as that information is added to the system (Omaggio, 1993).

Based on the discussion, it is quite clear that, for one to be able to teach reading effectively, his/her role is to activate and build childrens' schemata. To be able to achieve this, he/she should in advance select texts that are relevant to the child's needs, preferences, individual differences, and cultures in order to provide meaningful texts so the children understand the message, which entails activating existing schemata and helping build new schemata. Pardede (2010) therefore provided three stages of activities to activate and build the child's schemata after selecting the text.

The first one he talks about is the *pre-reading activities*, in which the teachers have children think, write, and discuss everything they know about the topic, employing techniques such as *prediction*, *semantic mapping*, and *reconciled reading*. The objective is to make sure that children have the

relevant schema for understanding the text. The second stage of activity he again proposed is the *during-reading activities*, in which the teacher guides and monitors the interaction between the reader and the text.

One important skill teachers can impart at this stage is note-taking, which allows children to compile new vocabulary and important information and details, and to summarise information and record their reactions and opinions. And the last and the third stage of activity he mentioned is the *post-reading activities* which facilitate the chance to evaluate children's adequacy of interpretation, while bearing in mind that accuracy is relative and that "readership" must be respected as long as the writer's intentions are addressed (Tierney & Pearson, 1994). Post-reading activities focus on a wide range of questions that allow for different interpretations.

### **Metacognitive Theory of Reading**

According to Block (1992), there is now no more controversy on *whether reading is a bottom-up, language-based process or a top-down, knowledge-based process*. It is also no more problematic to accept the influence of background knowledge on readers. Research has gone even further to define the control executed by readers on their trial to understand a text. This control is what Block had referred to as meta-cognition. Metacognition involves thinking what one is doing whilst reading. Klein, Peterson, and Simington, (1991) stated that, individual involved in metacognitive theory of reading engage themselves in the following; identifying the purpose of reading and identifying the forms or the types of text before reading. Choosing, scanning, or reading in details, thinking about the general character and features of the form or types of the text. For instance,

they try to locate a topic sentence and follow supporting details toward a conclusion. These stem from the fact that, metacognitive theory of reading relates to how an individual thinks about his reading process before, during, and after the actual act of reading. Metacognitive theory of reading maintains that, individuals regardless of whether they approach reading from traditional, cognitive or hybrid theory of reading will be able to make impact in reading

### **Concept of Reading**

It is asserted that the term 'reading' is difficult to define (Dechant, 1991). Literature gives diverse opinions of educators' view of how reading is defined in several ways. However, despite differences of opinion concerning a definition of reading most educators agree that the reading process includes:

1. Letter and word perception and recognition.
2. Comprehension of the concepts conveyed by the printed word(s)
3. Reaction to the assimilation of the new knowledge with the reader's prior knowledge.

Moreover, it can be generally asserted that all definitions of reading fall into two main categories: firstly, reading is seen as a decoding process, thus breaking of visual/auditory code and secondly, reading for meaning, thus comprehension process. Reading can be termed as the process of giving significance, intended by the writer to the graphic symbols by relating them to one's own fund of experience (Dechant, 1991). From the above, it can be asserted that reading involves both perceptual and conceptual processes, these processes enable the reader to interpret what he or she reads by associating it with his or her schema.

Also, some researchers have viewed reading in different dimensions, they categorised the process of reading as involving certain motor, perceptual and linguistic functions. According to Finn (1993) reading can be defined based on three main categories and maintained that each category has a basis in learning theory: (Empiricist, Rationalist and Interactivist). Finn (1993) further explained that, Empiricists reflects behaviourists' models of reading. Their focus is on the skills approach emphasizing the relationship of print to language. They maintain that, reading is first translating graphic symbols into the corresponding speech sounds. This group has been described as advocating a 'bottom-up' approach to reading.

However, Heller (1995) posited that the different definitions of reading are based on the view one takes of three essential elements – skills, products and processes. She further argued that reading can be defined in three different ways as “complex unitary skills made up of numerous sub-skills acquired through instruction...the products of skills acquisition with comprehension being the visible, quantifiable, measurable aspect...or processes an individual undertakes to construct meaning from print or to construct meaning using print respectively” (p3).

Notwithstanding the above, the rationalists focus on the relationship between language and meaning. They see the reader as interpreting and building meaning in context before analysing the sub-parts of the graphic form. Smith (1998), supported the rationalist view, he referred to reading as a rational task. He said reading must be seen as a creative and constructive activity having four distinctive and fundamental characteristics – thus purposeful, selective, and anticipatory and based on comprehension of all



matters where the reader must clearly exercise control (pp. 3-4). The rationalists advocate the meaning or holistic approach to reading and have been described as advocating a “top-up” approach to reading.

On the other hand, the Interactionists or Constructionists have a balanced perspective, maintaining that reading is a transactional process (Goodman, 1984; Rosenblatt, 1989). They believe that a reader must simultaneously extract information about print as well as make hypotheses regarding the meaning of the text. Information from both sources interacts until finally the meaning of the text is clear.

However, other reading researchers relate reading to the cognitive processes. For instance, Farris (1993) said “the reader needs to interpret part of the information from the text” (P. 327). This implies that, reading is more than word recognition and gleaning of concepts, information and ideas put forth by the author as they relate to the reader’s previous knowledge (Farris 1993). Similarly, May (1994) noted that, reading is schema matching, predicting and checking predictions. Thus, when we read we constantly predict and check, depending on the context of the text being read. Such a definition reflects the previous knowledge or experiences of the reader since past experiences enable us organise and also predict what to expect as we read any material.

Instead of attempting a definition of reading, some theorists try to describe or suggest the characteristics of reading, for example, Early and Sawyer (1994) gave the following characteristics of reading which they claim are generally accepted by educators. They are:

1. Reading is a receptive language activity.

2. Reading is a cognitive activity.
3. Reading is more than a decoding task; it deals with phonemic, syntactic and semantic processes (pp. 35-36)

Most researchers however, had indicated that, the two most important components of reading are comprehension and speed of decoding print. After reviewing a number of research studies, Carr and Levy (1990) concluded that word recognition and comprehension skills are dis-sociable. Additionally, reports of developmental studies have shown that comprehension and the ability to pronounce the written word are the most important variables of reading in the reading process. Aaron and Joshi (1992) maintained that in addition to comprehension skills, reading involves sensory perceptual and motor processes. Since the child's ability to decode and comprehend what he reads are influenced by factors such as, the reader's ability to store information in his long-term-memory, the reader's experiences of background knowledge and ability to make inferences, we can conclude that reading is an interactive process.

In summary, it could be said that reading as a concept cannot be given any comprehensive definition. Some authorities try to emphasize the author-reader relationship where the reader attempts to decode the information being passed on by the author. Such decoding activity involves perceptual and sensory activities and leads to acquisition of knowledge. For this reason, some theorists like Farris (1993) associated reading with the individual's background knowledge. This type of knowledge allows for understanding what is read and the ability to predict and make hypotheses about the text being read. Thus, May (1994) attempted to define reading by making use of

this ability to match previous knowledge with current material and to try to make meaning from text. On the other hand we have seen some other reading researchers attempting to describe or give the characteristics of reading since it is not easy to define. These characteristics enable us to conceptualise the meaning of reading and to explain what reading means.

It can therefore be concluded that, reading can only be defined from the perspective of the individual. Thus the intent and purpose of reading determines the meaning one makes of the term reading. It can also be asserted that, most learners perceive reading as a process that involves decoding and comprehension skills. In the simplest sense, reading can commonly be viewed as consisting of decoding or word recognition and general understanding or problem solving skills. For the purpose of this study, it is necessary to define reading in terms of the individual's word recognition or decoding skills.

### **Concept of Extensive Reading**

Reading begins with automatic recognition of words. Children are able to do this only through massive amounts of practice (Koda, 1996; Paran, 1996). By experiencing language in context, children deepen their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar use (Coady 1997; Nation, 2009). Successful individual reading experiences according to Dickson, Simmons and Kame'enui (1995). Dickson et al. (1995) promote learner autonomy which leads to "learning success and enhanced motivation" (p 174). The theoretical framework supporting extensive reading comes from input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985, pp. 2–3) and pleasure hypothesis (Krashen, 2004). According to Krashen (1982, 1985, 1989) language learners acquire languages by understanding messages in a low anxiety context.

Based on Krashen's input hypothesis, the language acquisition device helps learners to subconsciously acquire target languages (Krashen, 1989). Krashen, (1993) posits the facilitative effect of extensive reading on various abilities/skills such as reading comprehension, writing style, vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. Similarly, Krashen's (2004) pleasure hypothesis proposed that pedagogical activities which help language acquisition are those that are enjoyable, "but enjoyment does not guarantee language acquisition" (p. 28). He pointed that, the willingness to read outside the class is exciting. The concept of extensive reading has been viewed differently by researchers. In the words of Palmers (1968) extensive reading is generally associated with reading large amount of materials with the aim of understanding the material.

According to Palmers, in extensive reading, readers are more concerned with the meaning of the text than the meaning of individual sentences. Fortressing this assertion, Burton and Daneman (2007) argued that the term extensive reading should really apply to more amounts of reading. Amount can be any amount of new text read, (including Repeated Reading), breadth of reading (variety of text types), or time spent reading. Extensive reading according to Day (2004) is a reading condition where, children select their own books and read a great deal at their own pace and are encouraged to read easy and interesting books and to stop reading a book if it is too hard, too easy, or boring. Bamford and Day (2005) also maintained that, extensive reading is reading large amounts of materials to get an overall meaning while focusing on the meaning of the text than the meaning of the individual words or sentences.

Similarly, extensive reading means reading in quantity and in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. It is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage a liking for reading” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 193–194). Mikulecky (1990) referred to extensive reading as “pleasure reading”. Extensive reading as a voluntary reading is when teachers give pupils or children time to read in the class “Sustained Silent Reading” (SSR) in class for a period of twenty minutes, for example, when teachers allow children to quietly and independently read self-selected materials (Krashen, 1993).

Extensive reading as a language teaching or learning procedure involves reading large quantities of materials or long text for global or general understanding with the intention of obtaining pleasure from the text. In extensive reading, the reading is individualised, with children choosing the books they want to read. However, these chosen books are not discussed in class (Bamford, 1984; 1987; Brumfit, 1984; Davies, 1979; Krashen& Terrell, 1983; Norris 1975; Thompson, 1984).

From the above it can be deduced that, extensive reading means reading a lot of self-selected easy, interesting texts that allows children to build their decoding skills and increase their passion to read. This suggests that extensive reading is a way to teach reading to children. Will this strategy also work effectively on children with reading difficulties? This study aims to find out if extensive reading has impact on the readability of children with reading difficulties. Based on the above, I will like to draw a tentative conclusion that, if children are provided a ‘tension free’ environment, where they can choose what to read, when to read, read for pleasure and not

necessarily for comprehensive purposes, extensive reading practices will yield positive results.

### **Characteristics of Extensive Reading**

In practicing extensive reading, some guidelines or principles are essential. According to Day and Bamford (1998) extensive reading is characterized by ten principles. These characteristics have been identified as key factors in successful extensive reading programmes (Bamford & Day, 1998).

1. Children read as much as possible in the classroom and outside the classroom. The duration children use in reading a text is an important factor in learning to read. Therefore, it is paramount to consider the amount of time children spend in reading to achieve the benefits of extensive reading and to establish a reading habit (Day & Bamford, 2002).
2. A variety of materials or a wide range of topics is available so as to encourage reading for different reasons and in different ways. Children should be given varied reading materials that are purposeful and match their level of cognition, for example books, magazines, newspapers, fiction, non-fiction, texts that inform and texts that entertain (Day & Bamford, 2002)
3. The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding. These purposes are determined by the nature of materials and the interests of the children. Extensive reading approach allows children to read for pleasure and general information. In terms of reading outcome, the focus drifts from in depth

understanding or knowledge gain and towards the reader's personal experience (Day & Bamford, 2002).

4. Reading materials are well designed with the linguistic competence of the child in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Children are discouraged from using dictionaries in extensive reading approach during reading because constant stopping to look up words makes fluent reading difficult. This enhances the motivation of the children and also builds confidence in their reading. Day and Bamford (2002) suggested that, reading materials should be at the reading ability of the children. For beginning readers, more than one or two unknown words per page might make the text too difficult for overall understanding. For intermediate learners, there should be no more than five difficult words per page. Also, Hu and Nation (2000) proposed that, learners must know at least 98% of the words in a fiction text for assisted understanding. Their proposal is based on Fry's (1991) observation that beginner readers do better with easier materials.
5. Children have the freedom to choose reading materials that interest them and can stop reading a material if it is difficult or boring. Self-selection of reading material is the key to extensive reading (Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Day & Bamford, 2002).
6. Reading is individualized and silent. Children read at their own pace. Extensive reading is usually done outside class, when and where the child chooses (Hitosugi & Day 2004; Day & Bamford, 2002).
7. Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower. Children can read faster because the materials are easy and understandable. Children are

able to decode individual words and gradually become fluent readers. Children are encouraged to ignore words they have difficulty comprehending and avoid the use of dictionaries (Hitosugi & Day 2004; Day & Bamford, 2002).

8. Teachers orient students the goals of extensive reading, explain the methodology, keep track of what students read, and guide students in getting the most out of the program. Mostly children are not given the opportunity to select reading materials of their choice at school; therefore, it is necessary to introduce to children the practice of extensive reading. For instance, the benefits of extensive reading can be discussed with children. Teachers should guide children to select reading materials that suit their reading ability. However, in order to guide children during the course to ensure they get the most out of extensive reading experience, teachers need to keep record of what and how much their pupils read. Teachers also encourage them to read the books they previously found too difficult to read (Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Day & Bamford, 2002).
9. The teacher is a role model of a reader for pupils. The teacher's role is an active member of the classroom reading community, demonstrating what it means to be a reader and the rewards of being a reader. When teachers read similar reading materials with children and discuss with them, they can recommend books for children, which can also help children model appropriate reading practices (Hitosugi & Day, 2004; Day & Bamford, 2002).



10. Reading is its own reward. Bamford and Day (1997) mentioned that, there are few or no follow-up exercises to be completed after reading. This idea was later adjusted by Hitosugi and Day (2004) that, even though, the goal is for students to experience reading and not for comprehension purposes, the teachers may need to ask the children to engage in follow-up activities after reading for these reasons to:
- a) Discover what children understood and experienced from reading;
  - b) Keep track of what children read;
  - c) Monitor children's attitude toward reading; and
  - d) Connect their reading to other content areas.

### **Strategies in Extensive Reading**

Extensive reading is primarily an out-of-class activity. After an initial lesson of explaining the programme or characteristics of extensive reading, the administration of the reading takes up only very small part of each class. There are different strategies of reading which can be classified as extensive reading. These strategies can be incorporated in the reading process to develop the child's own pace according to his or her reading abilities. Extensive reading strategies such as uninterrupted sustained silent reading, sharing/Partner Reading; Read Aloud, Repeated Reading and word bank are adopted. In adopting these strategies, learners do not read for reading sake but to improve their fluency, learning new words, collocations, patterns, comprehension and so on. These strategies have been further explained below.

1. **Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR):** Pilgreen and Krashen (1993) conceded that The Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR) is referred to as Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) by

others. Others call it recreational or independent reading. Some even have acronyms for it such as DIRT (daily independent reading time) or Dear (drop everything and read). In this strategy teachers have to set aside a block of time each day usually anywhere from ten to thirty minutes, depending on the grade level and ability of the children for quiet reading (Pilgreen & Krashen, 1993)

2. **Independent Reading:** Harmer (2003) explained that, independent reading takes place when children read on their own. In the independent reading process, children read an entire passage selected by them. Although, independent reading might involve the least of support from other assistance possible, it is mostly useful when children have sufficient ability to read a piece of literature without any support from the teacher or peers. It can also be used for reading after children have received sufficient support through other strategies of reading thus this type of strategy mostly depends on the other strategies (Allington, 1983; Allington & Walmsley, 2007).
3. **Cooperative Reading:** Slavin (1995) stated that, cooperative reading uses the principle of share, Partner Reading where children take turns reading portions of piece of literature aloud to each other, or they read silently to a designated spot and then stop to discuss what they have read. In this model, the children predict what they think will happen next and continue reading the portion of the text, either aloud or silently, and stop again for discussion. This pattern continues until they have finished the book or the selection. Cooperative reading is sometimes called buddy reading, Partner Reading, or paired reading

(Dishner, Readance & Tierney, 1990). Children may take turns reading a sentence, paragraph, or page. Teachers are entreated to allow children to pass their turn if they do not feel prepared to read the text. It also encourages children to read in teams and help build the reading ability of team members or partners. It motivates them to read and builds their self-esteem or self-confidence (Durrkins & Stevens, 1992).

4. **Guided Reading:** Guided reading is one of the important strategies which help readers to develop fluency (National Reading Panel, 2000). There are two basic types of guided reading. These are observational and interactive guided strategies. Observational guided reading is the type discussed by Fountas and Pinnell (2001) in which they suggest that children read a text that has a minimal number of new concepts and skills. This stems to the idea, teacher introduces a text, and children make some predictions as they read. The teacher observes and coaches them in their use of strategies. The text is usually a short book or text that is read in its entirety.
5. **Pleasure Reading:** Pleasure reading procedure assumes that children will enjoy reading books that they have chosen on topics of interest to them more than they will enjoy assigned readings from a teacher. If they have chosen correctly, the book should be easy to read for general understanding. Nell (1988), in a study of the psychology of pleasure reading, argued that one cannot read for pleasure in a foreign language before mastering it. He contended that even learners who are far from

fluency derive pleasure from the very experience of reading a book in a foreign language.

6. **Read Aloud:** Reading aloud is the foundation for literacy development. It is the single most important activity for reading success (Bredenkamp, Copple, & Neuman, 2000). It provides children with a demonstration of phrased, fluent reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 2009). It reveals the rewards of reading, and develops the listener's interest in books and desire to be a reader (Mooney, 1990). Reading aloud does not just involve enjoyment of literature but also is an avenue for modelling and building fluent reading (Reulzel & Hollingsworth, 1993). This affirms to the fact that, reading aloud helps to develop the concept of fluent reading through listening and watching other peers Read Aloud. Reading aloud demonstrates the relationship between the printed word and meaning, children understand that print tells a story or conveys information and invites the listener into a conversation with the author (Fountas & Pinnell, 2012).

Children can listen on a higher language level than they can read, so reading aloud makes complex ideas more accessible and exposes children to vocabulary and language patterns that are not part of everyday speech. This, in turn, helps them understand the structure of books when they read independently (Duursman, Augustyn & Zuckerman, 2008). Read Aloud exposes less able readers to the same rich and engaging books that fluent readers read on their own, and entices them to become better readers (Duursman, Augustyn & Zuckerman, 2008). Reading aloud is modelled in extensive reading for the following purposes;

1. It paves way for teachers to model fluent reading.
2. It makes reading of text more visible and interesting. Children can be given big books to read and this will make the text more visible and the reading material attractive to children.
3. It provides background knowledge for children to read on their own or with other peers.
4. It gives the teacher the opportunity to preview children's difficult words and unfamiliar concepts (Martinez & Teale, 1993).

Similarly, the following are some importance of reading aloud suggested by Trelease (2001);

1. It helps children to listen and discuss books that may be too difficult for them to read.
2. It provides a positive reading role model.
3. It furnishes new information.
4. It demonstrates the pleasures of reading.
5. It develops vocabulary.
6. It provides examples of good sentences and good story grammar.

The above suggestions reveal that once the children have listened to a book, they are likely to select their own interesting book and read. This means that, reading a book aloud affords the child the opportunity to talk about literature and as well allow him or her to read text that are suitable to the developmental level of the child. This in effect will benefit a child with reading difficulties.

7. **Repeated Reading:** Repeated Reading involves having children re-read a short passage two or more times, sometimes reading the passage

until a suitable reading fluency level is met (Begeny, Krouse, Ross, & Mitchell, 2009, p.212). According to Lerner (2003) Repeated Reading is an approach that enables children to improve their oral reading fluency by engaging them in constant reading practices. She further opined that this approach is useful for slow readers. The repeated approach involves choosing passages that have 100 to 200 words long and at a readable level that enables the reader to identify most of the words. The child then reads the passage orally 3 to 4 times repeatedly (Lerner, 2003). Therrien (2004) pointed out that Repeated Reading has a wide-ranging research base. Repeated Reading is helpful in developing fluency in children (Nichols et al., 2009). This means that, when children are adequately exposed to reading materials it enhances their decoding skills. According to Morra and Tracey (2006), Repeated Reading improves children's understanding of the phrasing of words and may also increase comprehension when given multiple exposures. Frequent opportunities to practice with the same text can be effective and will enhance one's reading ability. Therrien and Kubina (2006), noted that, this exercise of Repeated Reading can easily be integrated into any reading program and creativity can be incorporated to engage students of all abilities. Therefore, Repeated Reading strategy will be appropriate for the study.

### **The Extensive Reading Procedure in Practice**

Rodgers (2002) defines "procedure" as the "techniques, practices, and activities that operate on teaching and learning a language according to a particular method" (p. 163). This is described in terms of techniques and

tactics used by teachers, “exercises and practices activities” and “resources in terms of time, space and equipment” (p. 165). The teacher’s role in the extensive reading procedure is to encourage and help the child with their reading, by conferences during or after class time and by checking on written summaries that children do after reading. Oral or written summaries give children an opportunity to demonstrate that they are in fact doing their reading. They also help the teacher to determine if child understand their books at an acceptable level. The teacher’s role also includes keeping track of what children read and monitoring the child’s attitude towards reading (Hitosugi & Day 2004). The child’s main task in extensive reading is to read, but writing summaries is valuable not only to provide a means for teachers to check comprehension, but also improves comprehension (Champeau de Lopez, 1989; & Smith, 1998).

### **Importance of Extensive Reading**

It must be acknowledged here that despite the fact that teaching children to read is a major goal of education, many children have extreme difficulty learning in basic reading skills. Bamford and Day (1997), argued that all children must engage in extensive reading if they are to become skillful and fluent. To them automaticity of 'bottom-up' (word recognition) processors upon which comprehension depends is a consequence of practice. Based on Day and Bamford (2007) argument, it can be implied that extensive reading improves children’s decoding skills. Apart from their argument, some researchers have also found some importance of extensive reading.

To begin with, Krashen (1983) posited that extensive reading facilitates easy comprehension. He also argued that extensive reading will lead

to language acquisition, provided that certain conditions are met. He further stated that, certain conditions such as exposure to language, provision of interesting material and a relaxed tension free learning environment will facilitate language acquisition. This seems to suggest that reading extensively enhances the learner's general competence. Also, Grabe (1991) and Paran, (1996) had emphasized the importance of extensive reading as providing learners with practices that will help them in word recognition and decoding symbols. They contended that extensive reading increases the child's exposure to the language. According to them, the quality of exposure to the language that learners receive is seen as an important tool and has the potential in helping them to acquire new words.

To add, extensive reading can also increase childrens' vocabulary knowledge. Nagy and Herman (1987) claimed that children between grades three and twelve (US grade level) learn up to three thousand words (3000 words) per year. It is thought that only a small percentage of such learning is due to direct vocabulary instruction. In addition, they posited that, extensive reading can motivate learners to Read Aloud. To them, extensive reading should be based on the needs of children, their interest as well as their own selected books so as to energize and motivate them to read books. Likewise, extensive reading has the value of developing children's confidence and ability (Kembo, 1993).

Similarly, Okai (2010) argued that extensive reading is an effective and efficient way to help pupils improve their vocabulary in the second language. In the same way, the role of extensive reading in building vocabulary according to Gardner, (2004), continues to receive considerable



attention in first and second language research and pedagogy. Further, he explained that, extensive reading contributes to children's acquisition of vocabulary. Extensive reading leads to especially the 'incidental' word acquisition through repetitive encounters with unknown words while reading large volumes of material for pleasure. Moreover, extensive reading can consolidate previously learned language. It also reinforces and recombines language learned in the classroom. Graded readers have controlled grammatical and lexical competence. They provide regular and sufficient repetition of new language forms (Wodinsky & Nation, 1988).

However, Bell (2001) contended that, extensive reading is an excellent way to get children into the habit of reading a foreign language. Other approaches teach children how to read, but do not actually give them much practice in doing it. Extensive reading gives children a chance to practice reading at the level of difficulty they can cope with. Besides, there have been numerous studies reporting that extensive reading not only benefits learners of different ages, but also in different contexts. In addition to the gains in reading proficiency, positive effect, and reading habits (Camiciottoli, 2001; Nash & Yuan, 1992; Renandya, et al., 1999; Test, 1996), other benefits of extensive reading also include gains in listening proficiency (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983), writing ability (Mason & Krashen, 1997; Tsang, 1996), reading speed (Bell, 2001 and Walker, 1997), and even spelling (Day & Swan, 1998; Krashen, 1989). These studies provide valuable insights and pedagogic implications for educators who want to implement extensive reading in their classrooms. Even though, there have been numerous studies on the benefits of extensive reading,

not much has been done on effects of extensive reading on children with reading difficulties to ascertain the benefit to children with reading difficulties.

### **Concept of Reading Difficulty**

The Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (2013) postulated that the term “reading difficulties” may be used to describe a variety of difficulties that affect the ability to learn to read. Regarding reading difficulties, various types or areas come to the fore and these include: difficulties in accurate and automatic word reading, difficulties in the language processes associated with listening comprehension, and difficulties in both accurate and automatic word reading as well as in the language processes associated with oral or spoken comprehension.

1. Difficulties in accurate and automatic word reading: children can comprehend spoken text but have difficulty comprehending its written form and decoding words
2. Difficulties in the language processes associated with listening comprehension: these children can read words accurately but have difficulty comprehending what they read
3. Difficulties in both accurate and automatic word reading and in the language processes associated with oral or spoken comprehension: children with these difficulties are sometimes referred to as having a mixed reading difficulty (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2013). They further stated that some reading difficulties are frequently linked with oral language and these include:
4. Difficulties in accurate and automatic word reading which are linked with how well a child manipulates sound patterns in words.

5. Difficulties in reading comprehension is linked with oral language processes such as limited vocabulary and syntactic knowledge
6. Difficulties in both word reading and comprehension and these are linked with phonological processing and oral language difficulties.

According to the American Psychiatric Association (APA) (2000), reading difficulties or problems are termed as discrepancy between a child's actual reading scores and the reading scores that would be predicted on the basis of chronological age or intelligent quotient (IQ). From a critical look at the APA definition, one could draw the idea that, reading difficulties occur when there is a gap between the child's abilities and the child's reading performance on the measure of the child's IQ. When considering whether a person has a reading difficulty, the reader's Intellectual capacity is frequently taken into consideration. Theoretically, a child should be able to read at a level equal to his intellectual capacity or level of oral language development (Gunning, 2003).

Gifted children would be expected to read above grade level because their capacity is above average (Rosenberger, 1992). On the other hand a child with learning disability would not be expected to read on grade level because her/his capacity may be below average. Children with below average intelligence are often denied corrective service because it is believed that diminished intelligence functioning is the cause of their reading problem. However, if a child with learning disability is reading below the level indicated by their listening and/ or cognitive ability test, that child is demonstrating a reading problem.

## **Characteristics of Reading Difficulties**

Children who experience reading problems or reading difficulties typically exhibit or experience some characteristics which are related to reading tasks (Stasi & Tall, 2010). Some of these characteristics are varied and diversified. The following are some characteristics of reading difficulties

1. **Problems in phonemic analysis.** This stems to the fact that, children who have reading problems in phonemic will have problems demonstrating sound simple awareness that leads to being able to break down words into their basic phonemic parts.
2. **Problems in word identification.** This refers to difficulty in recognising letters, learning the names of letters and breaking words down into the sounds of letters and letter combination (phonemes). A child with problem decoding words will not follow phonemic guidelines.
3. **Difficulty in comprehending text.** This refers to difficulty in making meaning of a text or understanding materials that are read which affects their learning in all subject areas. Thus accurately interpreting the meaning of passages they read and drawing appropriate conclusions from materials read.
4. **Fluency in decoding or reading fluency.** This refers to reading in an automatic fashion with appropriate speed of text. This can lead to inadequately or improper style of reading.
5. **Omission.** This refers to skipping unknown words or is reading quickly without attention (Mercer & Pullen, 2009). Omission during reading may lead to lack of interest and accuracy among children. This may

often occur in children who have low level of listening vocabulary and are unable to use the necessary words in a given context.

Children with reading difficulties may also exhibit these characteristics when reading; insertion, substitution, reversal, repetition, mispronunciation and hesitation (Mercer & Pullen, 2000). Based on the characteristics discussed, it will help in easy identification and assessment of children with reading difficulties.

### **Causes of Reading Difficulties**

Studies considering dyslexia generate some causes of reading difficulties (Fisher & Defries, 2002). These causes that are associated with reading difficulties are: phonological difficulties, visual difficulties, auditory perception and auditory processing difficulties, short-term verbal memory difficulties and sequencing difficulties.

1. **Phonological difficulties:** Among extensive evidence in support of a phonological deficit theory is that people with reading difficulties have problems retaining speech in short-term memory and consciously breaking it up into phonemes (Snowling, 2000). From the above view, phonology difficulties involve relating speech sounds to changes in meaning. This phonological deficit leads to the poor mental mapping of letters of the alphabet to phonemes.
2. **Visual processing difficulties are another cause of reading difficulties.** It has been suggested that, some children with dyslexia, may have visual convergence difficulties that may lead them to reading difficulties (Stein, 1995) some people with dyslexia appear to have difficulties with visual tasks such as those involving the

perception of movements. According to Stein (1995), visual processing difficulties are caused by three factors, these are converging, accommodation and tracking.

Convergence involves the eyes converging on letters of print or handwriting at a distance of about 30 centimeters to ensure that the brain receives a unified picture of the letters and words. Accommodation involves being able to quickly adjust eye focus to changing circumstances such as changing distance between page and eye as the eye move down a page of writing, and difficulties with this clearly affect reading, writing and spelling. Tracking involves the skill of scanning a line of print from word to word and line to line while keeping one's place and, difficulties with this lead to losing one's place in reading.

3. **Auditory perception and auditory processing difficulties.** Reading difficulties relate to auditory perception and phonetic categorisation. In making deficient speech sounds, there are different durations between the instant that air is released from the lip and in vocal chords vibrating that is important as in cue in speech perception (Godfrey, Syrdal-Lasky, Millay, & Knox, 1981). It can be viewed that, auditory perception is inconsistency in phonetic categorisation which impact the ability to learn through forming inadequate long-term representation of phonetic unit. This could adversely affect the reading process of transformation script into phonetic unit of speech and ordering and combining those units that constitute words.

4. **Short-term verbal memory difficulties:** Studies of dyslexia have found problems with verbal memory and studies of dyslexia have found problems with verbal memory and learning especially in tasks requiring phonological processes (Share, 1995). For example, children with dyslexia tend to have lower digit span than control readers (McDougal et.al, 1994). Other research suggests that good readers are more likely to use verbal retrieval strategies or rehearsal strategies than poor readers (Palmer, 2000). All these researchers affirm the idea that, short-term verbal memory in children can cause dyslexia.
5. **Sequencing difficulties.** Several researches suggest that, poor readers are found less able to remember the serial order of event than average or good readers. Sequencing difficulties (temporal processing deficit) has been proposed possibly involving a high degree of processing develops associated with the parallel transmission of speech (Share, 1995). Sequencing difficulties is likely to involve identifying difficulties with the child sequencing information such as sequencing letters of the alphabet and words when reading.

## **EMPIRICAL REVIEW**

### **Extensive Reading**

Despite the benefits of extensive reading, there are numerous evidences by various researchers on the impact of extensive reading in terms of reading ability, reading fluency, writing, grammar, vocabulary, oral language and spelling. A research conducted by Elley and Mangubhai (1983) found gains in reading and general proficiency, including improvement in listening and writing. They conducted a two-year study which was referred to

as a 'Book Flood' project on almost 400 primary school students in Fiji. By the end of the first year their results proved that the subjects who received extensive reading improved in receptive skills (reading and word recognition). The second year of their research showed significant improvement that had extended to all aspects of the subjects' second language abilities, including both oral and written production.

Secondly, Hafiz and Tudor (1989) conducted a study on male secondary school ESL Pakistani students involved in a three-month extensive reading programme in the United Kingdom. Their findings showed that, the students improved in reading and writing. Thirdly, Robb and Susser (1989) reported positive effects and gains in the reading proficiency of Japanese university students who were engaged in extensive reading. In the same way, Elley (1991) reported significant improvements in reading and listening comprehension, gains in attitudes toward reading and positive affects towards English Language in primary school pupils in the South Pacific island of Niue, in Fiji, and in Singapore.

Similarly, Lai (1993) did an experiment on secondary students during a 4-week summer reading programme in Hong Kong and found gains in reading comprehension, reading speed, and writing development. However, Cho and Krashen (1994) reported drastic attitudinal changes in four adult native speakers of Korean living in the United States after the participants had read books in the Sweet Valley series designed for junior-high school girls and written at the six-grade level (which is extremely popular among high school girls) (Moffit & Wartella, 1992 cited in Cho and Krashen, 1994). They also found oral/aural language proficiency and vocabulary acquisition in addition



to great enjoyment in reading light literature. Moreover, Masuhara et al. (1996) compared the effectiveness of strategies training and extensive reading in second language comprehension of first-year English majors in a Japanese women's university over eight weeks. Extensive reading was found to be more effective for improving reading comprehension. Mason and Krashen (1997) studied Japanese university students engaging in extensive reading, and found gains in positive effect in addition to gains in reading proficiency.

Consequently, Lituanas, Jacobs and Renandya, (2001), found improvement in reading proficiency, reading speed and accuracy among secondary school students in the southern Philippines. In addition, Maxim (2002) found improvements in reading comprehension, language proficiency and positive attitude change in reading strategies of university students participating in German extensive reading programme in the United States. Leung (2002) conducted an adult's self-study of Japanese in Hawaii and found improvement in vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension and a positive attitude.

Furthermore, Hitosugi and Day (2004) reported an increase in reading ability and positive effect among university students in Hawaii who were engaged in Japanese extensive reading. Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, and Gorsuch (2004) reported an increase in reading fluency, reading rate, reading comprehension and positive perceptions of reading activities among Japanese university students majoring in linguistics in Tokyo.

Besides, Iwahori (2008) examined the effectiveness of extensive reading on reading rate and cloze test scores. Thirty three Japanese high school students were provided with graded readers as homework for seven

weeks. The results indicated that extensive reading improved reading fluency and general language proficiency. Similarly, Yamashita (2008) conducted a study in which 31 Japanese university students underwent a 15-week extensive reading course. The results indicated that extensive reading improved general reading ability.

Additionally, Tamarackitkun (2010) conducted a study in Thai; the study investigated reading comprehension, reading fluency and attitudes of students after exposure to extensive reading, an approach to teaching and learning foreign languages with students at Rajamangala University of Technology, Thanyaburi in Thailand during a period of four months. The findings suggest positive effects of extensive reading on the learners' reading comprehension and provide conclusive evidence of reading fluency improvement together with a positive attitude towards extensive reading.

In summary, with respect to gains in reading fluency, in addition to Robb and Susser (1989), Lai (1993), Mason and Krashen (1997), Litanas, Jacobs and Renandya (2001); Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, and Gorsuch (2004) also reported an increase in reading fluency, reading rate, reading comprehension and positive perceptions of reading activities among Japanese university students majoring in linguistics in Tokyo. Elley and Mangubhai (1983) and Hafiz and Tudor (1989), Mason (2003) similarly reported the development of grammatical accuracy in English among low intermediate Japanese female learners at the university level in Japan. In sum, these researches indicate gains in reading ability.

The following researches found gains in reading comprehension, (Bell, 2001; Elley and Mangubhai, 1983; Hafiz and Tudor, 1989, 1990; and

Yamashita, 2008), also, reading fluency (Beglar, Hunt and Kite, 2012; Bell, 2001; Fujita and Noro, 2009; Iwahori, 2008; Lao and Krashen, 2000; Matsui and Noro, 2010) and grammar (Elley and Mangubhai, 1983; Yang, 2001). Now, it can be said that extensive reading has significant influence on readability, reading fluency, reading comprehension and grammar. Again, extensive reading also has significant influences in the following areas: vocabulary, writing, spelling, oral proficiency, listening, attitudes and motivation (Nation, 2008).

In addition to Cho and Krashen (1994), Mason (2004), and Leung (2002), Pitts, White and Krashen (1989) examined gains in vocabulary by conducting two experiments using adult students of ESL in the United States and reported that second language learners could acquire vocabulary incidentally from reading. Also, Day, Omura, and Hiramatsu (1991) reported that incidental vocabulary learning occurred among both high-school and university Japanese students while reading silently for entertainment in the classroom. They used a reading passage containing 17 target words and a 17-item multiple-choice vocabulary test with five choices per item. To add, Yamazaki (1996) reported on a nine-week experiment with high school students in Japan. He found out that the extensive reading group had measurably improved in vocabulary although there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups: extensive reading and translation. Likewise, Waring and Takaki (2003) examined the rate at which English vocabulary was learned from reading the 400 headword graded reader "A Little Princess", using intermediate level female Japanese learners in Japan and found that words can be learned incidentally.

Furthermore, Pigada and Schmitt (2006) performed a one-month case study in the UK, looking at vocabulary acquisition using a 27 year-old Greek learner of French and found an enhancement of spelling, meaning, and the understanding of the grammatical behaviour of words in the text. Besides, Elley and Mangubhai (1983), Hafiz and Tudor (1989), Robb and Susser (1989), Hedgcock and Atkinson (1993), Lai (1993) as well as Mason and Krashen (1997), Janopolous (1986) studied gains in writing and reported a correlation between proficiency levels in L2 pleasure reading and writing among 7 language groups of graduate students in the United States.

Additionally, Tsang (1996) examined a group of Cantonese speaking students participating in three English programmes which included extensive reading in Hong Kong and found an improvement in writing skills in the extensive reading group whereas Polak and Krashen (1988) conducted three studies to determine whether a relationship exists between spelling competence and voluntary reading for ESL college students in the United States and found that voluntary reading helps spelling.

Nonetheless, Matsui and Noro (2010) looked at the effect of 10-minute extensive reading on junior high school students' EFL reading motivation by comparing an extensive reading group and a control group. They factor-analyzed questionnaire items given at the end of the classes; intrinsic motivation and exam-related extrinsic motivation were commonly identified in both groups, but a factor called self-confidence appeared only in the extensive reading group, indicating that the extensive reading increased students' self-confidence. However, a factor labelled anxiety and negative attitudes toward English reading was also uniquely found in the ER group. The researchers

held that teachers' encouragement of a large amount of reading may have had an adverse effect and called for more attention on the part of teachers to how they guide students.

Correspondingly, Yamashita (2013) examined the effect of extensive reading on second language reading attitude. The participants for the study were 61 undergraduates learning English as a foreign language at a Japanese university. The result showed increases in Comfort and Intellectual Value and a decrease in Anxiety. In sum the results of the studies conducted in several countries have proven that extensive reading has significant impact on learners' listening comprehension, motivation and attitudes towards reading, vocabulary acquisition, writing skills and general proficiency.

On the other hand, in Ghana, similar studies in extensive reading have been done. For instance, Obeng (2008) conducted a study on the impact of using sustained silent reading and sharing on twenty primary five pupils at St. Monica's Girls School in the Cape Coast metropolis, over a period of four weeks. The main instruments for the study were questionnaire, test and observation. The results showed that pupils with less interest and difficulty in reading performed better in reading during the SSR period and provided chances for group work. The conclusion drawn in the study was that teaching reading through the sustained silent reading programme had some improvement in reading with children who could decode properly (Obeng, 2008).

In another study, Otabil, Antwi, and Gyamerah (2009) conducted an action research on the teaching of extensive reading to improve comprehension skills of basic five pupils at University primary school in the

Cape Coast metropolis. The sample for the study was made up of thirty nine pupils and the main instrument used in the study was test, pre-test intervention and post-test. They concluded that extensive reading influences reading habits, questions answering skills and improves comprehension skills among pupils. Okai (2010) conducted a study on the impact of extensive reading on the vocabulary acquisition of pupils at the Royal Pearl International School in the Takoradi Metropolis. The sample for the study was made up fifteen pupils and the main instrument used in the study was test- pre-test – intervention and post-test. The study showed that extensive reading was an effective and efficient way to help pupils improve their vocabulary in the second language. Furthermore, her findings showed that, extensive reading programme improved pupil's confidence and ability to speak the English language fluently and use words correctly.

Notwithstanding the studies conducted in several countries including Ghana on extensive reading, not much has been done on effects of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties. Also, the geographical location and participants used in the studies described above are not similar to this study. Nevertheless, in Ghana, not much research has been done in the area of extensive reading. It is of interest, beneficial and appropriate therefore, to investigate the effects of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties.

### **Repeated Reading**

Repeated Reading strategy can be traced to Samuels (1979). He did a research on Repeated Reading strategy in 1979. Samuels' research has had great impact in the field of reading strategies that focus on guided practice and

repetition. Repeated Reading has been used with regular and special needs students, young children and adults. This practice has been successful as a widely adaptable technique used in intervention settings, whole group instruction and skill-based reading lessons. Numerous researchers have demonstrated the positive results of this method (Ruskey, 2011).

Two recent literature reviews concluded that Repeated Reading has the potential to improve students' reading fluency (Meryer & Felton, 1999; National Institute, 2000). However, Therrin (2004) commenting on the findings of Meryer and Felton (1999) argued that they did not take into account sample size differences among studies.

Therefore, following the leads of Meryer & Felton, (1999) and the National Institute, (2000), Therrein (2004), conducted an empirical study into the Fluency and Comprehension gains as a Result of Repeated Reading by using meta-analysis to ascertain essential instructional components of Repeated Reading and the effect of Repeated Reading on reading fluency and comprehension. It was thus concluded that Repeated Reading can be used effectively with nondisabled students and students with learning disabilities to increase reading fluency and comprehension on a particular passage and as an intervention to increase overall fluency and comprehension ability. Essential instructional components of Repeated Reading varied as a function of the type of Repeated Reading thus effectiveness was evaluated reading the same passage or different passages.

In a study conducted by Adams (1990) on Repeated Reading, he reports that Repeated Reading significantly improves children's words recognition, fluency and comprehension. Again, it is evident in the work of

Weinstein and Cooke (1992) that Repeated Reading is effective instructional strategy which helps children to achieve fluency skills. That notwithstanding, Therrien (2004) provided factual evidence from his study that Repeated Reading can improve fluency for individual passages as well as overall fluency and comprehension. Therrien (2004) in his study further argued that Repeated Reading is a method or approach that can be used in varied learning arrangement such as learning centers, small groups and this can be beneficial and useful in helping children to read with confident level.

Also, Linan-Thompson et al. (2003) conducted a statistical analysis of pre- and post- test scores with ELLs who participated in an intervention that included Repeated Readings. The participants were 26 ELLs in the second grade who were identified by their teachers as being at risk for reading difficulties. Specifically, the intervention was 30 minutes long and included (a) 5 minutes of Repeated Readings, (b) 5 minutes of phonemic awareness instruction, (c) 10 minutes of instructional level reading, (d) 5 minutes of word study, and (e) 2 to 3 minutes of writing. The participants made statistically significant gains in oral reading fluency. The most dramatic gains were made in reading fluency (Linan- Thompson et al., 2003). The researchers concluded that the gains in fluency when Repeated Readings was implemented was valuable to the participants, however, researchers had difficulty determining whether the Repeated Readings alone accounted for the gains because of the multi-componential nature of the intervention.

Similarly, Tarn et al. (2006) found that the use of two Repeated Reading interventions resulted in gains in fluency in 5 participants, two of whom were English Language learners with Specific learning disability. The



first intervention involved reading a passage three times, the oral reading rate of all the participants improved over their performance during baseline. The second intervention, involved reading the same passage until meeting a set criterion number of words per minute, 4 of the participants reached the predetermined fluency criterion of 100 correct words per minute.

To add, Roundy and Roundy (2009), examined the effects of Repeated Readings on student fluency. Specifically, the authors examined whether Repeated Reading improves the fluency, reading speed, reading-oriented self-esteem, and confidence of students of diverse academic abilities, socio-economics statuses, and racial and ethnic backgrounds. To examine these questions the authors conducted a study using Repeated Reading strategies with a sample of students from an urban, middle school in the south -eastern United States. They found that, on average, the use of Repeated Reading strategies increased students' fluency, words per minute (wpm) reading score, reading-oriented self-esteem, and confidence.

Further, Morisoli (2010) investigated the effects of Repeated Reading on reading fluency of diverse secondary English language learners (ELLs) with a specific learning disability (SLD) in reading. A multiple baseline reversal design across subjects was used to explore the effects of Repeated Reading on two dependent variables: reading fluency (words read correctly per minute; wpm) and number of errors per minute (epm). Data were collected and analyzed during baseline, intervention, and maintenance probes. In his intervention period, reading was followed by three oral Repeated Readings of a passage in three weeks duration. Morisoli (2010) concluded that Repeated Reading had a positive effect on the reading abilities of ELLs with a SLD in

reading. Participants read more wpm and made fewer epm. Also, her study demonstrated that Repeated Reading improved the reading abilities of ELLs with a SLD in reading.

Additionally, Bouguebs (2007) conducted an experimental research on effects of Repeated Reading on reading fluency. The purpose of her study was to ascertain the components of reading fluency (reading speed and word accuracy) on learners reading fluency using Repeated Reading Method. The study was carried out at the Teacher Training School of Constantine with sixteen (16) second year students during the scholar year of 2006-2007. Participants were selected from the English Department, and were randomly assigned to two groups (experimental group and control group). Her participants were, first, pre-tested through Curriculum Based Measurement Test, to know their reading fluency scores prior the beginning of the experiment. Over a six (06) weeks study, within twelve (12) sessions, only the experimental group received the Repeated Reading Method.

At the end of the experiment, the participant were tested (they were post tested) via the same test used in the pre-test. Results from the pre-test and post-test were given in mean scores. The results demonstrated that the students in the experimental group have outperformed those in the control group. To determine the validity of her results, a t-test analysis was established. The t-test analysis determined that the results were statistically significant, and therefore concluded that, the students who were taught with the Repeated Reading Method have improved their reading fluency as indicated by the increase of the total number of words read correctly per minute.

Lastly, Ruskey (2011) conducted a study using small groups of students within a period of four weeks. The small group met with the researcher for thirty minutes each day receiving fluency instruction and reading poetry aloud. Her findings indicated that fluency instruction and practice using Repeated Reading is a successful strategy and should be included in elementary classroom. The findings indicate the benefits of Repeated Reading in various settings.

### **Read Aloud**

To begin, reading aloud to children in the classroom is a practice that has been recommended for decades (Jacobs, Morrison, & Swinyard, 2000). Also, they claimed most children are exposed to books and reading as young children when their teachers Read Aloud to them and as years go on, teachers continue to reinforce this skill. Further, they postulated that, when children are actively engaged in Read Aloud activities it helps them to acquire some skills such as responding to questions as you read, becoming familiar with unknown vocabulary words, and using other comprehension strategies that will help them to get a better understanding of the book that is being read. For instance, the study conducted by Fisher, Flood, Lapp, and Frey (2004), teachers in San Diego and California schools were required to Read Aloud to their children every day. Fisher, Flood, Lapp and Frey, (2004), indicated that Read Aloud was effective and recommended that reading aloud should be used as a teaching routine in every class especially in classes which include children with reading difficulties.

Also, Jacobs, Morrison, and Swinyard, (2000) in their study gave empirical evidence that, when teachers conduct Read Aloud exercise to

children it motivates the children to read and to build their knowledge about a specific subject. Further, Collins (2005) also gave factual evidence in his research that, reading aloud in class not only allows the children to hear a teacher model reading for them, but also allows room for discussion to occur and the meaning of the text to be explored and thought through by the children and the teacher. She maintains that children should be allowed to fully get an understanding of themselves as well as their emotions, so that the wider world can be enhanced through an introduction to a range of different narrative texts. Collins' (2005) study also indicated that regular reading aloud to children at certain times of the day had a significant effect on their expressive language and comprehension. In the same way, her results showed that, reading aloud helps children to develop good listening habits.

In addition, Rasinski and Padak, (2000) maintained that Read Aloud strategy allows learners to become more familiar with literacy. Leuenberger (2003) also asserted that reading aloud is the foundation of a well-balanced kindergarten literacy curriculum. Moreover, McCarrier, Pinnell, & Fountas (2000) pointed out that Read Aloud stories introduce children to new topics that they can use when they engage in writing and provide a good model of how writers express their thoughts. It has the potential to expand children's repertoire (Terblanche, 2002) and teaches a large number of new vocabulary words in context rather than in isolation (Franzese, 2002) which affects their reading ability as teachers involve them in discussions about the content of the book. Teachers encourage them to use the words and expressions from the text in their responses and guide them to talk about the book using higher order thinking skills (Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, & Vaughn, 2004).

Further, Wood and Salvetti (2001) reported that the ‘Project Story Boost’ designed to help children who were considered at risk of reading failure due to poverty. They provided story read-aloud sessions for several weeks. Children who took part in this project improved in vocabulary development and participation in discussions, and reading and writing activities. Children who remained longer in the project improved in retelling stories by sequencing events and using details, and vocabulary of the stories. The positive effects of the storybooks read-aloud were also transferred to the primary grades where children scored higher in reading fluency and comprehension than those who did not participate in the project.

Similarly, Hargrave and Sénéchal (2000) examined if economically disadvantaged children who participated orally during storybook reading made gains in language. They found that preschool children from low-income homes who responded to open-ended questions around the text had better results than children who listened passively to stories; in four weeks, children achieved an increase in vocabulary which would usually take four months. Teachers differ in their read-aloud strategy mainly in the amount of discussion during and after the reading. Some encourage children to discuss the story during the Read Aloud session; others leave the discussions until the end. Involving children interactively while reading the story aloud helps improve comprehension and engagement, and post reading discussions encourage children to link the story events to their personal experiences (Terblanche, 2002).

Holland (2008) stated that there has been some controversy on whether reading aloud to children is appropriate or not, but the results of her

study reveals that reading aloud to children was very beneficial to language development of the child. His study further gives evidence that, when reading aloud to children they begin to develop a love for reading, which makes it easier and more susceptible for them to learn to fluently read, along with making it easier for them to comprehend what they are reading. Reading aloud activity is seen to be critical for developing childrens' with reading difficulties in comprehension because of its potential in developing their phonological awareness. Phonological awareness is defined as "the ability to perceive and manipulate the sounds of spoken words and it is seen to be fundamental for a child to process reading comprehension (Castles & Coltheart, 2004).

### **Partner Reading**

Research has shown that Partner Reading influences reading ability of children with or without reading difficulties. This strategy provides opportunity for children to participate in reading activity at the same time. Also, it gives teachers the benefit of engaging their pupils in constant practice without necessarily listening to them read individually. Again, it requires a class with varied reading difficulties since it is helpful for children with wide range of reading disability. The use of Partner Reading strategy as supported by research has been proven to be valuable (Rathvon, 2008). Similarly, Partner Reading strategy improves the reading ability of below average and average pupils identified with reading difficulties. Again, it has shown improvement in children with reading difficulties (Fuchset al., 1997).

Vaughn et al., (2000) implemented a study examining if Partner Reading or Collaborative Strategic Reading helps students who have reading problems and how it can increase their reading fluency or reading

comprehension. The study sampled 121 participants, mostly 3rd graders, who partook in the Partner Reading intervention or Collaborative Strategic Reading. Both strategies were implemented 2-3 times per week, for 12 weeks. The results did not find an increase in reading comprehension but they did demonstrate that Partner Reading may increase reading fluency in students (Vaughn et al., 2000).

In another study conducted by Bryan et al. (2000), the effects of Partner Reading on middle-school students achievement was examined. The same three groups of learners that were chosen in the Fuchs' et al. (1997) study were also used, but the students were from a different age group. Twenty teachers implemented Partner Reading as part of a peer tutoring programme and 20 did not implement the intervention. The programme was administered for 15 weeks with pre-treatment and post treatment data collection. Greater reading progress was found in the classrooms where Partner Reading was used (Bryant et al, 2000).

From the conducted studies, I stand to have the conviction that, Partner Reading among children who are having reading difficulties stand the chance of improving their reading abilities when appropriate attention is given to them by teachers and parents. In summary, it can be deduced that various studies have been conducted on Repeated Reading, Partner Reading and Read Aloud. However, not much research has been conducted on the effects these strategies have on children with reading difficulties. Also, most researches conducted have not compared these strategies to ascertain the most appropriate for children with reading difficulties. Therefore, I find it imperative to ascertain the effects of these strategies on the reading ability of children with

reading difficulties as well as the most appropriate strategy that will help children with reading difficulties.

### **Summary of Literature Review**

The review revealed that extensive reading strategies have significant influence on pupils reading habits and their general learning competence. It also indicated impact on pupils' vocabulary acquisition, writing skills and comprehension. The literature on extensive reading also highlighted reading conditions that are important for children in learning to read. The literature on Repeated Reading strategy revealed that, Repeated Reading enhances pupils reading fluency. It also provided evidence that Repeated Reading enhanced children's word recognition and comprehension skills. Further, literature on Read Aloud strategy indicated that Read Aloud motivated children to read and also builds their vocabulary knowledge. Again, literature on Read Aloud provided evidence that Read Aloud helps children to be familiar with literacy and helps in their language development. In addition, reviewed literature on Partner Reading showed that it improved reading ability of struggling readers. It also improved their reading fluency. Finally, the review showed that availability of reading materials is important for effective extensive reading.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter presents a description of the research design, population, the sample and sampling procedures used for the research. It also gave a detailed description of data collection instruments and data collection procedures as well as procedures of data analysis.

#### **Research Design**

According to Tolmie, Muijs and McAteer (2011), experimental design is intended to identify the cause and effect relationship in unequivocal fashion, through the use of tightly controlled studies which employ random assignment of participation to experimental conditions. It is against this background that I employed the experimental design to enable me to ensure that there is no other manipulation to influence the outcome of the study. The design was also used to establish the relationship between experimental and the control groups in the study. Besides, the design was appropriate in determining the hypothesis by reaching valid conclusions about relationships between the independent and dependent variables. According to the Centre for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning [CETL] (2012), an experimental research design refers to the conceptual framework within which the experiment is conducted.

The Centre for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning [CETL] (2012) maintains that Experimental Design is a blueprint of the procedure that enables the researcher to test his hypothesis by reaching valid conclusions about relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. In

experimental research, the cause (the independent variable) is under the control of the researcher (CETL, 2012).

Blakstad (2008) also posited that, in an experimental design, the researcher manipulates one variable, and controls or randomises the rest of the variables. It has a control group, subjects are randomly assigned between the groups, and the researcher only tests one effect at a time. He pointed out that, it is also important to know the variable(s) to be tested and measured. He further asserted that an experimental design is typically carried out by manipulating a variable, called the independent variable, affecting the experimental group. The effect that the researcher is interested in, the independent variable(s) is measured.

According to Shadish, Cook and Campbell (2002), an experimental study is a type of evaluation that seeks to determine whether a programme or intervention had the intended causal effect on programme participants. He also pointed out that there are three key components of an experimental study design: pre- test and post-test design, a treatment group and a control group, and random assignment of study participants. It was therefore appropriate to employ the experimental study to reach valid conclusions about relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. Blakstad (2008) identified the following as the strengths of experimental design

1. Control over variables. This research design aids in controlling independent variables for the experiments which aims to remove extraneous and unwanted variables. The control over the irrelevant variables is higher as compared to other research types or methods.

2. Easy determination of cause and effect relationship. The experimental design of this type of research includes manipulating independent variables to easily determine the cause and effect relationship.
3. Better Results. Due to the control set up by the experimenter and the strict conditions, better results can be achieved.
4. Another good thing about experimental research is that results can be checked and repeated.

The strengths notwithstanding, Blakstad (2008) identified the following as the weaknesses of experimental design

1. The design is likely to create artificial situations. This stems to the fact that the experimental design controls irrelevant variables at times and this can create situations that are somehow artificial.
2. Another weakness of the design is that it can be subjected to human error. Just like any other type of research, experimental research is also subjected to human error and this will somehow affect the efficiency of the results.
3. One other disadvantage of experimental design is that, there are possibilities of personal biases, unreliable samples, artificial results, and results that can only be applied to one situation and may be hard to replicate
4. Lastly, difficulty in measuring human response. Another disadvantage is that results from the experimental design may not be generalized into real-life situations.

In spite of the weaknesses and considering the nature of the study, I found the experimental design most appropriate in this investigation.

## Study Population

The study included all basic three pupils in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region. The total population of primary schools in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis at the time of this study was 316. This figure was based on available statistics from the Ghana Education Service (GES, 2014/2015). Table 1 shows the total population of primary three pupils in the six selected schools.

Table 1: Number of Primary Three Pupils in the Selected Schools

<b>Schools</b>	<b>Total number of pupils</b>	<b>Sample size</b>
School 'A'	32	12
School 'B'	30	10
School 'C'	84	18
School 'D'	31	10
School 'E'	52	16
School 'F'	88	24
Total	317	90

Source: Field Data, 2015

## Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample size for the study was 90. This comprised school A=12 school B=10 school C=18 school D= 10 school E= 16 and school F= 24 (See Table 1). (For purposes of anonymity, the real names of the schools were not used thus the schools named A, B, C, D, E, and F are all pseudonyms). Probability sampling was used to select the sample size. According to Bryman (2012), there are various types of probability sampling namely, systematic random sampling, simple random sample, stratified random sampling and

multi-stage cluster sampling. He further mentioned the multi- stage sampling approach. This informed my choice in selecting the sampling procedure for the sample. Three stages of sampling procedures were used in selecting the sample.

Table 2: Statistics on a Sample Distribution

<b>Schools</b>	<b>Sample size</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
School 'A'	12	5	7
School 'B'	10	7	3
School 'C'	18	11	7
School 'D'	10	5	5
School 'E'	16	11	5
School 'F'	24	13	11
<b>Total</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>38</b>

Source: Field Data, 2015

Firstly, in sampling the circuits for the study, the simple random technique was used, specifically, the lottery method was employed. There are 11 circuits in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis. I coded all the names of the 11 circuits in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis on sheets of paper labelled from 1-11. These labelled sheets of papers were folded and placed in a bowl. I shook the bowl and picked the folded paper one at a time. Three of the folded papers were selected, each representing a circuit.

Similarly, in the second sampling stage, the simple random technique was employed, specifically, the lottery method. The names of schools in the three circuits were coded on sheets of papers. The coded papers for each circuit were folded and placed in a bowl. This was done separately for individual circuits. I shook the bowl and picked one after the other to select two schools for the experimental and control group in each circuit. The first school picked in each circuit was labelled 'experimental' and the second

‘controlled’. This procedure was done to select the schools for the study. In all six schools were selected. The first three were then labelled as school “A”, “B”, “C” and the last three labelled as “D”, “E,” “F”. In addition, the schools were randomly assigned Repeated Reading, Read Aloud and Partner Reading.

Lastly, the purposive sampling was used in the third stage in selecting participants for the study. The idea for employing the purposive sampling is based on the fact that purposive sampling selects samples in a deliberate manner in that the sampled participants are relevant to the study (Bryman, 2012). The rationale for using this sampling technique in selecting the participants was informed by the fact that they constituted the core subject for the study and can only be identified by their teachers who are in constant touch with them. Besides, they were the children who constituted the core subject for the study and exhibited the characteristics needed for the study. The Table 3 below shows how the pupils were grouped into experimental and control group using the three approaches (Repeated Reading, Read Aloud and Partner Reading).

Table 3: Distribution of Experimental and Control Group to the Schools

<b>Label</b>	<b>Experimental group</b>	<b>Controlled group</b>
Repeated Reading	School ‘A’(12)	School ‘D’(10)
Read Aloud	School ‘B’(10)	School ‘E’(16)
Partner Reading	School ‘C’(18)	School ‘F’(24)
Total = 90	30	30

Source: Field Data, 2015

### **Research Instrument**

This section describes the research instrument that was used to gather the data. I employed Running Record (RR) as the sole instrument for the

study. This instrument was developed by Marie Clay and adapted for the study. According to Fountas and Pinnell (2005), Running Record (RR) is a tool for decoding, scoring and analysing children's precise reading behaviours. In the work of Frost, Buhle, and Blachowicz (2009), it is evident that, Running Record (RR) can be very useful and more appropriate to teachers in identifying the current reading performance of children with reading difficulties. To them, in administering Running Record (RR) teachers have to employ the strategy of sitting with children, listening to them read, quickly and efficiently recording the children's reading behaviours using series of miscues. They further asserted that, Running Record (RR) is more appropriate for children with reading difficulties because, it gives teachers the opportunity to group children by their reading abilities.

Running Record (RR) gives a reliable and valid assessment of text reading and enables the teacher to gain a richer and more comprehensive assessment of children's reading ability (Running Record Consultative Draft, 2012). They further argued that it is a procedure for analysing children's fluency in reading where children read a complete text or samples of texts. As the child reads the text, the teacher observes the child, noting the strengths and weaknesses of the child in using various strategies and cuing systems. The running record indicates the child's reading ability using varied scores in judging the child's readability. An example is illustrated in Table 4. In this study the score range for identifying a child with reading difficulty is from 39% and below. The rationale for choosing the score range was based mainly on the Ghana Education Service (GES) School Based Assessment (SBA) score for classifying a pupil for failing a particular subject.

Table 4: Using Running Record (RR) to Determine Reading Ability

<b>Level</b>	<b>Reading Abilities</b>
Above average	80% and above
Average	79% - 60%
Below average	59% and below

Source: Field Data, 2015

**The following procedures were used to administer the Running Records (RR)**

1. Selection of reading material: I selected a passage that the pupils had already read from the basic two text book made up of 110 words. (See appendix B). The reason for selecting that particular passage was that, the passage encourages and sustains readership, also, the passage has moral lessons and lastly it provides general information (Day & Bamford, 2004). The reason for choosing 110 words was that the instrument allows making a choice of 100 to 200 words. I therefore decided to select words within that range. This text book is provided by the Ghana education Service (GES) for the public primary schools. The rationale for selecting the government reading book was to ensure that the passage was standardized and appropriate for the children. Again, considering their reading abilities (reading difficulties), a passage below their level was appropriate in assessing their reading abilities.
2. Pre-reading stage (before assessing their readability): Before asking the children to Read Aloud individually, thus the second step in administering the instrument, I engaged each child in a brief



conversation approximately one minute chat to ensure they were relaxed and free from any fear or anxiety. The rationale for this activity was based on Krashen's (2007) language learning acquisition, thus the 'affective filter'. According to him, once the affective filter is low, language learning is high. He suggested that during language acquisition and learning children should be in an "anxiety free" environment to enhance learning.

3. Reading stage (assessment stage): I gave the passages to the children to read individually while they were timed, 30 seconds per word. Each child was therefore timed 9 minutes per the passage to ensure that they were all given the same length of time to read.
4. Post reading stage (Scoring): This was based on the number of words that each child was able to pronounce correctly, using the following miscues;

Self-pronounced word – mark the top of the word pronounced correctly

Misread word – write the correct word with the error above it.

Omitted word – write the word and circle it.

Self-corrected word – write the word with SC above it.

Teacher tells the word – write the word with TT above it.

In scoring each child's reading ability a self-pronounced word attracted a mark (1mark) each whereas all other miscues were scored zero (0 mark) with the exception of self-corrected words that also attracted a mark (1 mark). As pupils read individually, the number of words they pronounced correctly were scored using scheme presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Scoring scheme

Name of pupil	Omission	Self-pronounced	Misread word	Self-corrected	Teacher tells	Marks obtained	% score
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Source: Field Data, 2015

### **Pilot Testing**

A pilot test was done to validate the instrument, that is, find out how valid and reliable the instrument for the main data collection was. By reliability it “means the consistency or stability of the test scores’ (Gay et al., 2009, Hair et al., 2005, Johnson & Christensen, 2004). This implies that the assessment tool will produce the same or almost the same scores anytime it is administered to the same individual.

Validity is defined as “the appropriateness of the interpretations, inferences and actions that we make based on test scores” (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p 140). They explained further that, it is paramount to ensure validity in research instrument, thus, in ensuring validity you must ensure that the test measures what it is intended to measure, for the specific group of people and for the specific content, and also the interpretations that are made are justified based on the correct test scores. Similarly, Hair et al, (2005) opined that validity refers to how well the concept is defined by the measure.

To establish the content validity of the instrument, it was critically analysed by my supervisors and two other professionals in the field of special education for their review since content validity can be determined by expert judgment (Gay, et al 2009). The suggestions they made were used to restructure the instrument. According to Amedahe (2002) it is the soundness

of the interpretations given to the assessment scores that are validated, not the instrument. This implies that if the instrument measures what it intends to measure and the results are used for the intended purpose then the instrument can be said to be valid. The pilot test helped to refine the research instrument.

Three schools were selected from the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region. Pupils from primary three of the selected schools were used for the pilot testing of the instrument. The primary three class teachers in the selected schools identified the children with reading difficulties in their class for the pilot testing. The pilot test provided sufficient evidence that some pupils in the metropolis had reading difficulties.

#### **Data Collection Procedure**

In this section how the quantitative data was gathered using the running record instrument in testing the readability of children with reading difficulties in both the experimental and the control group. Before embarking on the data collection exercise, I obtained an introduction letter from the Head, Department of Educational Foundations, and University of Cape Coast to the Metropolitan Director of Education in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis in the western region (See Appendix A). Permission was granted and I was given the data on the 2014/2015 public primary school enrolments. This enabled me to select the schools that participated in the study after the sample and sampling procedure. A preliminary contact was made with the selected schools and a letter of introduction from the Department of Educational Foundations was given to each of the heads of the participating schools. Permission was sought from the head of the primary schools concerned before the instrument was administered.

For ethical reasons, at the schools, I explained the rationale and all other ethical issues involved in the study to the head teachers and the respective class teachers and elicited their voluntary concern. The data collection took the following procedures as described below:

**Pre-Test Procedure**

The pre-test was done within a period of three days. Two schools representing each strategy were pre-tested each day. However, it did not follow any specific timelines since the schools were already aware. The pre-test followed the procedures described in the process of administering the instrument. An example is shown in the Table 6.

Table 6: Pre-Testing Scoring Scheme

<b>Name of pupil</b>	<b>Omission</b>	<b>Self-pronounced</b>	<b>Misread word</b>	<b>Self-corrected</b>	<b>Teacher tells</b>	<b>Marks obtained</b>	<b>% score</b>
Newton	0	9	0	4	0	13	11.81

Source: Field Data, 2015

The total number of scores was registered under self- corrected words Self-pronounced word, Omission, Misread word, Self-corrected and Teacher assists. When a child hesitated or paused for 5 seconds it was taken that he or she had difficulty in pronouncing the word therefore I pronounced the word for the child and wrote TT (Teacher Tells) above the word. However, he or she was scored zero (0) for the word. Consequently, I scored (0) for the children who mispronounced all the words in the first five lines. These children were considered not able to read at all, therefore were not given the

opportunity to read the next lines. The miscues were used in scoring each child.

To score the child, the following formula was used:

$$\frac{\text{The number of words read correctly}}{\text{The total number of words in the book}} \times 100$$

Newton score was computed as follows  $13/110 \times 100 = 11.81\%$

### **Intervention phase**

The intervention phase lasted for six weeks. Two weeks for each model thus the Repeated Reading, Read Aloud and Partner Reading. Each session of the intervention lasted for 45minutes, one session each day. Instruction was provided for each school in the experimental group 5 times a week, from Monday to Friday. Mondays and Thursdays were used to teach the passages while Fridays were used to teach decoding skills (word recognition) of difficult words in the passages (see Table 7).

The second week of intervention followed the same procedure as illustrated above in the first week intervention. In doing this, varied methods were used, flash cards and word games. A timetable was drawn for each school to ensure uniformity. Moreover, different strategies were used to teach the different schools. I used the Repeated Reading approach for school “A”, Read Aloud approach for school “B” and Partner Reading approach for school “C”. Also, I assigned each group to one teacher. Thus, the mild class, moderate class and severe class but taught within the same period. The following describes the procedures used in the different approaches.

Table 7: First Week of Intervention

Days	Number of lines in the passage	Number of words
Monday	3 lines	29
Tuesday	3lines	23
Wednesday	3 lines	32
Thursday	3 lines	26
Friday	Review of some difficult words in the passage	19

Source: Field Data, 2015

### **Repeated Reading (School A)**

The Repeated Reading approach was recommended for teaching reading using the Repeated Reading approach based on Mercer, Mercer and Pullen (2011) and this guided me in administering the intervention.

1. Pupils were engaged consistently in the Repeated Reading five times in the week for a period of two weeks. The consistency was to increase their fluency.
2. The reading material was at the instructional level of the children. It was a passage from their basic two text book. The passage selected was to ensure easy decoding to reduce their frustration level in learning to read and also to arouse their interest.
3. A modelled reading was done for the children to imitate during the instruction phase. They were allowed multiple readings and practice prior to timing the reading to improve their fluency.

4. Children were provided feedback and guidance during the instruction processes. They were also assisted to review difficult words.
5. Goals were set for them and were motivated to achieve the goals in each session; this was done by employing varied reinforcement strategies to motivate them. A daily recording of the group's reading behaviour was done to monitor their progress.

## **Day One**

### **Step One: (Introduction Phase)**

I introduced myself to the children and asked them to do same. I explained the reason for our meeting thus the (intervention) to the children and motivated them to participate fully and avoid missing the sessions.

### **Step Two: (Teaching Phase)**

The teaching phase involved the actual intervention sessions. Children were given the passage to be read. The first three lines of the passage were the focus. They are made up of four sentences and 29 words. The following activities were done:

#### **Activity One (Pre-Reading Stage)**

Difficult words in the first three lines were learnt, (see appendix C). This was done repeatedly for six times.

#### **Activity Two: During Reading Stage - Teaching and Learning Activity**

I read each sentence and asked children to read as a group repeatedly for six times. This was done for all the sentences in the three lines. I called children individually to read sentences in the lines repeatedly for six times. I guided them and corrected the words they found difficult.

### **Activity Three: Conclusion- Post-Reading Stage**

I asked the children to mention some of the words they heard in the passage. Children were again asked to decode the words they mentioned by pointing to the words in the passage repeatedly for six times children were called randomly to perform this task. The purpose of the post-reading activity was to ensure that children decode the words they mention and are not rote learning. This increased their word identification skills.

### **Activity Four: Evaluation**

I pointed to the words randomly and asked children to decode them repeatedly for six times.

Remarks: all children were present for the session.

## **Day Two**

### **Step One: (Introduction Phase)**

I revised the previous lines read with the children. Children were asked to identify some of the words in the previous readings. This was done repeatedly for 3 times.

### **Step Two: (Teaching Phase)**

I indicated the portion or lines to read to the children. Then, proceeded to the activities.

### **Activity One: Introduction**

#### **Pre-Reading Stage**

I guided children to read the difficult words in the passage (in specific lines) repeatedly for six times. They are made up of 3 lines, 3 sentences and 23 words. (See appendix C)

**Activity Two: Teaching and Learning Activity.**



### **During –Reading Stage**

I read each sentence and asked children to read as a group repeatedly for six times. This process was done for all the sentences in the three lines. Children were called individually to read sentences in the lines repeatedly for six times. I guided and corrected the words they had difficulties in pronouncing.

### **Activity Three: Conclusion**

### **Post-Reading Stage**

I mentioned some of the words in the passage randomly and asked the children to identify those words by pointing to the words and decoding the words repeatedly for six times. Children were called individually to perform the task. This was done repeatedly for six times.

Remarks: all children were present for the session.

### **Day Three**

#### **Step One: (Introduction Phase)**

I asked children to read in groups repeatedly the previous lines read. I called children individually to read each sentence repeatedly for 3 times till the lines were completed. This procedure was to revise the previous lines and ensure continuity.

#### **Step Two: (Teaching Phase)**

Children were told the specific lines to be read. The lines are three, two, sentences and 32 words.

#### **Activity One: Introduction**

### **Pre-Reading Stage**

I guided children to decode the difficult words in the lines repeatedly for 6x.

#### **Activity Two: Teaching and Learning Activity**

### **During-Reading Stage**

I read each sentence and asked children to model repeatedly for six times. The same was done for the other sentences too. Children were asked to read the sentences individually for six times. I guided and corrected children as they read.

### **Activity Three: Conclusion**

### **Post-Reading Stage**

Children were asked to decode the words randomly repeatedly for six times. This task was done in group and individually.

### **Activity Four: Evaluation**

I pointed to words randomly and asked children to decode them repeatedly. They also read in groups repeatedly for six times. Remarks all children were present for the session.

### **Day Four**

#### **Step One: (Introduction Phase)**

I revised the previous lines read with the children. Children were asked to identify some of the words in the previous reading. Each word identified were mentioned repeatedly for 3 times.

#### **Step Two: (Teaching phase)**

I indicated the portion or lines to be read to the children. I then proceeded to the reading activities.

### **Activity One: Introduction**

### **Pre-Reading Stage**

Children were guided to read the difficult words in the passage repeatedly for six times. They were made up of 3 lines, 3 sentences and 26 words. (See appendix C).

**Activity Two:** Teaching and learning activity.

**During-Reading Stage.**

I read each sentence and asked children to read as a group repeatedly for 6x. This process was done repeatedly for the other lines. Each child was called to read sentences in the lines repeatedly for 6x. I guided and corrected the words they have difficulty.

**Activity Three:** Conclusion

**Post-Reading Stage**

I asked children to decode the words randomly; this was done repeatedly for six times. Children read in groups and individually.

**Activity Four:** Evaluation

Children were asked to point to words randomly and decode them repeatedly. Remarks: one of the pupils was absent.

**Day Five**

Through word drills, flash cards and word games, I guided children to decode all the difficult words in the passage repeatedly. (See appendix C)

**Step One: (Introduction Phase)**

I guided them to decode the difficult words repeatedly for six times.

**Step Two: (Teaching Phase)**

I asked children to pick flash cards and decode the words on them. Each child identified the words and repeated them six times.

**Step Three:**

Children were paired in two's each group identified the word and pronounced it six times and the partners also pronounced the word three times. This exercise was done till all partners decoded the words repeatedly through my assistance.

Remarks: all children were present for the session.

## **Week Two**

Week two proceedings followed the exact procedures described in week one.

Daily Behavioural Objective

**Condition:** Given a passage with the specific lines to be read and the instructions. "Repeat these sentences after me".

Name: Each child in school 'A' (Repeated Reading)

Behaviour: will read repeatedly for six times on six consecutive trials with not more than ten errors for each session.

## **Read Aloud (School B)**

The procedures adapted in this approach were based on Candace and Vaughn (2006) suggestions for teaching reading using the Read Aloud approach. This guided me in administering the intervention.

1. Pupils were engaged consistently in the Read Aloud five times in the week for a period of two weeks. The consistency was to increase their fluency.
2. The reading material was at the instructional level of the children. It is a passage from their basic two text book. The passage selected was to ensure easy decoding to reduce their frustration level in learning to read and also to arouse their interest.

3. Children were read to orally at a slow conversational rate approximately 3 seconds per word. Thus I Read Aloud and the children modelled the same reading procedure.
4. Children were paired in two to take turns to Read Aloud. I provided support by pronouncing words children struggled to pronounce.
5. Goals were set for them and were motivated to achieve the goals in each session; this was done by employing varied reinforcement strategies to motivate them. A daily recording of the group's reading behaviour was done to monitor their progress.

### **Read Aloud (School B)**

#### **Week One**

#### **Day One**

##### **Step One: (Introduction Phase)**

I introduced myself to the children and asked them to do same. I explained the reason for intervention exercise to them and encourage them to participate fully.

##### **Step Two: (Teaching Phase)**

This involved the actual intervention sessions. The portions to be read were indicated to the children. The teaching procedures were done through the following activities.

##### **Activity One: (Pre-reading stage)**

Difficult words in the first three lines were Read Aloud through a model reading by me at a slow conversational rate. It is made of 3 lines, 4 sentences and 29 words.

##### **Activity Two: Teaching and learning activity**

**During – reading stage:** I did a model reading of the line and asked children to do chorus reading. Each child Read Aloud the sentences. I guided and corrected difficult words.

**Activity three:** Conclusion

**Post – reading stage:** Children were asked to point to some of the words and decode them through reading aloud. This task was done individually too. The post – reading activity enhanced their decoding skills.

**Evaluation:** I pointed to the words randomly and asked children to decode them.

Remarks:

**Day Two**

**Step One: (Introduction phase)**

Children Read Aloud the previous lines.

**Step Two: (Teaching phase)**

I indicated the portion or lines to be read to the children to read. The following activities were done.

**Activity One: Introduction**

**Pre – reading stage**

Children were guided to Read Aloud the difficult words in the passage. Thus the passage had 3 lines, 3 sentences and 23 words. (See appendix C)

**Activity Two: Teaching and learning Activity**

**During – reading stage**

I Read Aloud and asked children to do a model reading. This was done for all the sentence in the three (3) lines. Children were guided with difficult words as they read.

### **Activity three: Conclusion**

#### **Post – reading stage**

Children were asked to decode some of the words and in turns through Read Aloud.

#### **Evaluation:**

Children took turns to Read Aloud the passage.

Remarks:

### **Day Three**

#### **Step One: (Introduction phase)**

I asked children to Read Aloud the previous lines in turns to ensure continuity.

#### **Step Two: (Teaching phase)**

Children were told the specific lines to be read. The lines were three (3), two (2) sentences and 32 words.

### **Activity One: Introduction**

#### **Pre – reading stage**

Through Read Aloud, I guided children to Read Aloud difficult words.

### **Activity Two: Teaching and learning Activity**

#### **During – reading stage**

I did a model Read Aloud and asked children to imitate. This was done for the other sentences too. Children took turns individually to read. I guided and corrected wrongly pronounced words as they read.

### **Activity three: Conclusion**

#### **Post – reading stage.**

Children were asked to decode the words randomly both in chorus reading and individually.

Evaluation:

I pointed to words and ask children to decode them.

Remarks:

#### **Day four**

##### **Step One: (Introduction phase)**

I revised the previous line read with the children. This was done through chorus Read Aloud.

##### **Step Two (Teaching Phase)**

I indicated the portion or line to read to the children. The teaching phase took the following procedure.

##### **Activity One: Introduction**

###### **Pre – reading Stage**

Children were guided to read the difficult words in the passage. (See Appendix C). They were 3 lines, 3 sentences and 26 words.

##### **Activity Two: Teaching and learning Activity**

###### **During reading stage**

I read and asked children to model the reading. They were called individually to read as I guided and corrected difficult words.

##### **Activity three: Conclusion**

###### **Post – reading Stage**

Children took turns to Read Aloud the sentences.

**Evaluation:** Children were asked to decode the words randomly.

#### **Day Five**

Through word drills, flash cards and word games. I Read Aloud difficult words and asked the children to model. (See appendix C).



**Step One:** I guided them to decode words on flash cards.

**Step three:**

Children were paired to Read Aloud words on cards.

**Week Two:**

The week two procedures follow the same procedure as week one. However, there was no self-introduction.

Daily Behavioural Objective

**Condition:** Given a passage with the specific lines to be read and the instruction ‘‘Read Aloud these sentences’’.

**Name:** Each child in school ‘‘B’’ (Read Aloud).

**Behaviour:** Will read the words orally.

**Criterion:** Within 2 seconds for each word with not more than 10 errors for each session.

**Partner Reading (School C)**

The procedures that were adapted in the Partner Reading approach were based on the recommendation for teaching reading using the Partner Reading approach was based on Mercer, Mercer and Pullen (2011) and this guided me in administering the intervention.

Before the pairing was done, the class teacher was asked to identify good readers in the class. After the teacher had selected the good readers in the class, the running record tool was used to assess their reading level. Those who scored 80% above were selected for the Partner Reading approach. The rationale for pairing an above average reader to a below average reader was to let the above average reader assist the below average reader. They were 6 in

number and were paired with 18 children with reading difficulty. The ratio was 1:3 (an above average reader and three below average readers).

1. Each pair (partner readers) worked together 5 times in the week
2. The reading material was at the instructional level of the children. It is a passage from their basic two text book. The passage selected was to ensure easy decoding to reduce their frustration level in learning to read and also to arouse their interest.
3. The above average reader read and the below average readers read after him or her. The procedure is repeated till the period was exhausted.
4. Feedback was provided by the above average readers if any of the below average reader missed a word. The above average reader identified in correct words pronounced by the below average reader and the below average reader re-read the sentence with the correct word.
5. Children were given tutoring roles to follow because they are class peers and some are even good friends, besides the instruction was done in the same classroom. Some of the rules were;
  - a. No teasing
  - b. Only talk to your partner
  - c. Only talk about the passage
  - d. Be co-operative
6. Goals were set for them and were motivated to achieve the goals in each session; I used varied reinforcement strategy to motivate the

various groups. A daily recording of the group's reading behaviour was done to monitor their progress.

### **Partner Reading (School C)**

#### **Week One**

#### **Day One**

#### **Step One: (Introduction phase)**

I introduced myself and asked children to do some. Children were assigned their "reading buddies". I discussed the intervention exercise with the groups and motivated them to be co-operative.

#### **Step Two: (Teaching phase)**

The teaching phase involved the actual intervention sessions. Children were given the specific line to read. I guided the good readers through the passage before they interacted with their friends. The following activities were done.

#### **Activity One: (Pre – reading)**

##### **Introduction**

The good readers helped their friends who have difficulty in reading difficult words to read.

#### **Activity Two: Teaching and learning Activity**

The good readers read and their friends modelled the reading. I guided them by monitoring group activities.

#### **Activity Three: Conclusion**

#### **Post – reading Stage**

Group leaders called their team members to read individually.

The readers corrected wrongly pronounced words and helped their friends with difficulty.

**Activity Four: Evaluation:**

I pointed to the words and called members of each group to decode them

Members in each team were called randomly to read.

Remarks:

**Day Two**

**Step One:** (Introduction phase)

Group leaders guided their friends to read previous words. Children were called individually from their teams to revise the words randomly.

**Step Two:** (Teaching phase)

This involved 3 lines, 3 sentences and 23 words. The following activities took place.

**Activity One:** Introduction

Pre – reading stage

Good readers helped their friends to review difficult words in the lines.

**Activity Two:** Teaching and learning Activity

During – reading

Good readers guided their friends to read as they read together.

Team leaders appointed members randomly to read as they guided them. I monitored the reading sessions.

**Activity Three:** Conclusion

Post – reading stage.

Group leaders asked team members some of the words heard in the passage.

Also, they asked buddies to decode the words mentioned in the passage by pointed to them.

**Activity Four:** Evaluation:

Group leader pointed to words randomly and asked friends to decode. I guided the procedure.

Remarks:

### **Day Three**

#### **Step One:(Introduction phase)**

Group leaders guided their friends to read previous words and sentences.

Children were called in groups to read previous sentences.

#### **Step Two:(Teaching phase)**

This involved the teaching activity for the session. This involved 3 lines, 2 sentences and 32 words.

#### **Activity One: Introduction**

Pre – reading stage

Group leaders were guided by their team members to decode the difficult words in the lines.

#### **Activity Two: Teaching and Learning Activity**

During – reading stage.

Group leaders read sentences and team members did same. Group leaders also read along with peers and assist them with difficult words.

#### **Activity Three: Conclusion**

Post – reading stage

Group leaders asked their peers to decode the words randomly. They were also asked to take turns in groups to read.

#### **Activity Four Evaluation:**

Group leaders were asked by their team members to decode individual words.

Remarks:

## **Day Four**

### **Step One:** (Introduction phase)

Group leaders guided their friends to read previous words and sentences.

Children were called in groups to read previous sentences.

### **Step Two:** (Teaching phase)

This involved the teaching activity for the session. This involved 3 lines, 3 sentences and 26 words.

#### **Activity One:** Introduction

Pre – reading stage

Group leaders guided their team members to decode the difficult words in the lines (See appendix C).

#### **Activity Two:** Teaching and learning Activity

During – reading stage

Group leaders read sentences and team members did same. Group leaders also read along with peers and assisted them with difficult words.

#### **Activity Three:** Conclusion

Post – reading stage.

Group leaders asked their peers to decode the words randomly. They were also asked to take turns in groups to read.

#### **Activity Four Evaluation:**

Group leaders were asked their team members to decode individual words.

Remarks

## **Day Five**

Through word drills, flash cards and word games, group leaders were guided by peers to decode all the difficult words in the passage. (See appendix C)

**Step One:**

Team members read along with their peers to decode the difficult words.

**Step Two:**

Group members picked flash cards and decode the difficult words. They did this exercise in turns.

**Step Three:** Group members did word drills by randomly identifying the difficult words.

**Week Two:**

Week two procedures followed the exact procedures in week one.

**Daily Behavioural Objective**

Condition: Given a passage with specific lines to be read, with the instruction ‘read with partners’

Name: Each child in school ‘C’ (Partner Reading)

Behaviour: will read with partners

Criteria: Within 2 seconds for each word with not more than ten (10) errors for each sessions.

**Post-Test Procedure**

The post-test was done within a day for each approach for the experimental and control group. The post-test was administered after the intervention of each approach (Repeated Reading, Read Aloud and Partner Reading). However in different week interval, since, I administered the intervention in separate weeks for each approach (Repeated Reading, Read Aloud and Partner Reading). Besides, there were two days intervals before the post tests were administered. Thus two schools were administered a post-test on a particular day (experimental and control group). The post-test took the

same procedure as the pre-test. However, they were timed 7 minutes for the post-test.

### **Data Processing and Analysis**

The analysis was done according to the research question and hypotheses. A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to analysis the research question thus to determine whether the three extensive approaches (Repeated Reading, Read Aloud and Partner Reading) is the most effective in improving the readability of children with reading difficulties. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is widely used in analyzing numerical data and is mostly suitable for comparing several means and for data that has been gathered using respondents in each condition (Pallant, 2010; Field, 2009). Apart from the one-way ANOVA, the independent sample t-test was also used to analyse the data. Independent t-test is used on two different groups of participants to determine the differences in mean values or scores (Pallant, 2010). The independent t-test was therefore used to analyse the hypotheses.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

This chapter comprises the analysis, presentation and interpretation of the findings resulting from this study. The analysis and interpretation of data are carried out based on the results of the research hypotheses. In order to clarify the results, the following procedures were used.

1. Only pre-test scores for both control and experimental groups are analysed.
2. Only post-test scores for both control and experimental groups are analysed.
3. Both pre-test and post-test scores for both control and experimental groups are analysed.

The results of the performance of the children in the control group and experimental group during the pre-test and post-test are presented under the following headings: (a) Partner Reading (b) Read Aloud and (c) Repeated Reading.

Table 8: Group of Participants

<b>Participants</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentages</b>
Experimental Group	40	45.5
Control Group	50	55.5
Total	90	100

Source: Field Data, 2015

Table 8 shows the result of the group of children. Majority 50(55.5%) of the children were in the control group while the remaining 40(45.5%) of the children were in the experimental group.

Table 9: Participants used in the Extensive Reading Approaches

Strategies	Experimental Group		Control Group		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%
Partner Reading	18	20	24	26.7	42	46.7
Read Aloud	10	11.1	16	17.8	26	28.9
Repeated Reading	12	13.3	10	11.1	22	24.4

**Source: Field Data, 2015**

As shown in Table 9, out of 90 children, 42(46.7%) were involved in the Partner Reading Approach. This was composed of 18(20%) experimental group and 24(26.7%) control groups. This was followed by 26 (28.9%) of the children who were used in the Read Aloud intervention and composed of 10(11.1%) experimental group and 16(17.8%) control group while 22 (24.4%) were involved in the Repeated Reading intervention. These children also composed of 12(13.3%) experimental group and 10(11.1%) control group.

### ANALYSIS OF MAIN HYPOTHESES

**Hypothesis 1 :** There is no statistically significant difference in the reading ability between children with reading difficulties who are taught using the Partner Reading (PR) approach (experimental group) and those who are not taught with the Partner Reading (PR) approach (control group).

The main purpose of this hypothesis was to determine whether Partner Reading (PR) approach would be an effective intervention in helping children with reading difficulties. To test this hypothesis the independent samples t-test

was used because the performance of a control group did not depend on that of experimental group. The adopted rule of thumb was that, a significant level of 0.05 or less indicated that the difference was significant, however, a significant level greater than 0.05, indicated that the difference was not significant. In each of the analysis, the pre-test score between the control and experimental groups are presented. This was followed by result of the post-test. Finally, comparison is made between pre-test and post-test scores.

Table 10: Independent Samples t-test on Control and Experimental Groups  
(Pre-test)

<b>Approaches</b>	<b>Group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev.</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Partner	Experimental	18	8.22	7.92	40	-0.555	0.582
Reading	Control	24	9.79	9.84			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

Table 10 shows the results of the pre-test conducted on the two groups regarding PR approach. Even though, the result revealed that children in both the experimental and control groups have reading difficulties, from Table 10, it was realized that experimental group had a mean score of ( $M=8.22$ ;  $SD=7.92$ ) while the control group had a mean score of ( $M=9.79$ ;  $SD=9.84$ ). This shows that the children in the control group had more difficulties in their reading abilities. Again, the standard deviation ( $SD=9.84$ ) of the control group indicates that the individual children's scores on reading varied more than that of the children in the experimental group ( $SD=7.92$ ).

When the means scores of the two groups were tested using the independent samples t-test at 5% significant level, two-tailed, the results revealed that there is no significant difference between the children in the

control and experimental groups ( $t(40)=-0.555, p = 0.582$ ). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean performance of children using Partner Reading by control and experimental groups.

Table 11: Independent Samples t-test on Control and Experimental Groups  
(Post test)

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Partner Reading	Experimental	18	11.17	8.67	40	0.270	0.788
	Control	24	10.38	9.90			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 11, the post-test scores showed that the experimental group had a mean score of ( $M=11.17; SD=8.67$ ) while the control group had a mean score of ( $M=10.38; SD=9.90$ ). By implication, the children in the experimental group performed relatively better than the children in the control group. A look at the standard deviation shows that there was variation in the scores of the experimental group ( $SD=8.67$ ) and the control group ( $SD=9.90$ ).

When the means scores of the two groups were tested using the independent samples t-test at 5% significant level, two-tailed, the results revealed that there is no significant difference between control and experimental groups ( $t(40)=-0.270, p = 0.788$ ). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean performance of children using Partner Reading by control and experimental groups.

Table 12: Result of the Difference between Pre-test and Post-test

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Partner Reading	Experimental	18	2.98	1.83	40	4.868	0.000
	Control	24	0.58	1.31			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

Table 12 provides information on the difference between the result of the pre-test and post-test to determine the effectiveness of the Partner Reading Approach in improving the reading abilities of children. It was noted in Table 11 that the Partner Reading approach was an effective strategy that could be adopted to improve children's reading ability. The mean score of ( $M=2.98$ ;  $SD=1.83$ ) shows that the children in the experimental group performed better than the children in the control group ( $M=0.58$ ;  $SD=1.31$ ). The result further indicates that children's performance in the experimental group differed from children's performance in the control groups. From Table 10, the result of the independent sample t-test revealed a significant difference between the experimental group ( $M=2.98$ ;  $SD=1.83$ ) and the control group ( $M=0.58$ ;  $SD=1.31$ ,  $t(40)= 4.88$ ,  $p=0.000$ ).

The result was in line with the finding of Murad and Topping (2000) who found that Partner Reading is often used in classrooms to promote the development of fluent and automatic reading skills. Stahl, Heubach and Crammond (1997) in their study found that, in Partner Reading, children are paired together for the purpose of supporting each other through the oral reading of connected text. Children with reading difficulties were found to improve the most (Fuchs et al., 1999; Vaughn et al., 2000).

Partner Reading is supported by researchers that shows how valuable it can be when used in schools (Rathvon, 2000). Research further shows that Partner Reading improves the scores of average readers, struggling readers and children identified with reading difficulties. A study by Vaughn et al. (2000) revealed that Partner Reading increases the reading abilities in children. Again, they found a significant improvement for reading rate for Partner Reading as compared to the comprehensive-oriented strategy. The result confirmed the finding of Muldowney (1995) which indicated significantly larger gains in word and story reading in pupils who are paired versus unpaired children. This implies that reading with someone else encourages children to try reading material that may be above their usual reading level, while also building decoding skills so that children are more comfortable with their reading. Additionally, this strategy allows the teacher to observe readers in the classroom and work with children who may need more assistance (Kuhn & Stahl, 2000).

**Hypothesis 2:** There is no statistically significant difference in the reading ability between children with reading difficulties who are taught using the Read Aloud approach (experimental group) and those who are not taught with the Read Aloud approach (control group).

The main purpose of this hypothesis was to determine whether Read Aloud (RA) approach would be an effective intervention of helping children with reading difficulties. To test this hypothesis the independent samples t-test was used because the performance of a control group did not depend on that of experimental group. The adopted rule of thumb was that, a significant level of 0.05 or less indicated that the difference was significant, however, a

significant level greater than 0.05, indicated that the difference was not significant. In each of the analysis, the pre-test score between the control and experimental groups are presented. This was followed by result of the post-test. Finally, comparison is made between pre-test and post-test scores.

Table 13: Independent Samples t-test on Control and Experimental Groups (Pre-test)

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Read Aloud	Experimental	10	7.40	6.67	24	0.103	0.919
	Control	16	7.13	6.63			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 13, the result of the pre-test revealed that both children in the experimental and control groups have reading difficulties. The children in experimental group had a mean score of ( $M=7.40$ ;  $SD=6.67$ ) while their counterparts in the control group had a mean score of ( $M=7.13$ ;  $SD=6.63$ ). The standard deviation of children in the experimental group ( $SD=6.67$ ) also indicates that there was much variation in their reading abilities than the children in the control group ( $SD =6.67$ ). Although, the result presented shows that pupils in the experimental group performed better than the pupils in the control group, the independent-sample t-test shows that the reading abilities of pupils in the experimental group ( $M=7.40$ ;  $SD=6.67$ ) was not statistically significantly different from the reading abilities of the children in the control group with ( $M=7.13$ ;  $SD=6.63$ ,  $t(24)=0.103$ ,  $p=0.919$ ).

Table 14: Independent Samples t-test on Control and Experimental Groups  
(Post-test)

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Read Aloud	Experimental	10	7.40	8.67	24	0.318	0.753
	Control	16	6.56	9.90			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

After the result of the pre-test, an intervention, (Read Aloud) (RA) was administered to help children improve their reading ability. A post- test was conducted after the intervention. The result of the post-test was presented in Table 14. It is clearly seen that there was no significant improvement in the reading abilities of the children in the experimental groups after the intervention was administered. Comparatively, the children in the experimental group had the same mean score of ( $M=7.40$ ;  $SD=8.67$ ) as indicated in the pre-test result whilst the children in the control group ( $M=6.56$ ;  $SD=9.90$ ) also indicated more abysmal reading abilities. The result of the post-test revealed that Read Aloud approach could not improve the reading abilities of the children.

Again, From table 14, it was realized that Read Aloud could not improve the reading ability of the children, it was also noted from the result of the post-test that, after comparing the mean scores of the two groups of children using the independent samples t-test at 5% significant level, two-tailed, the results revealed that there is no significant difference between control and experimental groups ( $t(24)=0.318$ ,  $p = 0.753$ ). Thus, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean performance of children in the experimental and control groups using Read Aloud approach.



Table 15: Result of the Difference between Pre-test and Post-test

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Read Aloud	Experimental	10	0.00	0.94	24	0.931	0.361
	Control	16	-0.56	1.75			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

Table 15 indicates whether there is any significant difference in the performance of the children after comparing the result of the pre-test and post-test. No significant difference was found in the scores in the two groups using Read Aloud approach. The pre-test and post-test result for the experimental group was ( $M=0.00$ ;  $SD=0.94$ ) while that of the control group was ( $M= -0.56$ ;  $SD=1.75$ ). Again, after comparing the mean scores of the two groups, the independent-sample t-test showed that there was no significant difference in the scores or performance for children in the experimental group ( $M=0.00$ ;  $SD=0.94$ ) and children in the control groups ( $M= -0.56$ ;  $SD=1.75$ ;  $t(24)=0.931$ ,  $p=0.361$ ).

From the findings, it is concluded that Read Aloud (RA) approach is not an effective approach or strategy to help children with reading difficulties since there was no significant differences between children's scores in the experimental groups and the control groups.

The results contradict the findings of (Fisher et al., 2004; Razinski & Padak, 2000) which revealed that Read Aloud was effective and concluded that Read Aloud should be used as a teaching routine in every class especially in classes which include children with reading difficulties, since the strategy allows learners to become more familiar with literacy (Wood & Salvetti, 2001). Read Aloud improves children's attention span and listening skills

(Dragan, 2001) and improves the precision of recall, sequencing ability and ease in writing (Reed, 1987). Reading aloud gives pupils new understanding on various subjects that they encounter only through books (Terblanche, 2002). Jacobs et al. (2000) concluded that when teachers conduct Read Aloud exercise to children it motivates the children to read and to build their knowledge about a specific subject.

Further, Collins (2005) gave factual evidence in his research indicating that, Reading Aloud in class not only allows the children to hear a teacher model reading for them, but also allows room for discussion to occur and the meaning of the text to be explored and thought through by the children and the teacher. Collins' (2005) study also indicated that regular reading aloud to children at certain times of the day had a significant effect on their expressive language and comprehension. In the same way, her results showed that, reading aloud helps children to develop good listening habits. In addition, Razinski and Padak, (2000) maintained that Read Aloud strategy allows learners to become more familiar with literacy. Leuenberger (2003) also asserted that reading aloud is the foundation of a well-balanced kindergarten literacy curriculum.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is no statistically significant difference in the reading ability between children with reading difficulties who are taught using the Repeated Reading (RR) approach (experimental group) and those who are not taught with the Repeated Reading(RR) approach (control group).

The main purpose of this hypothesis was to determine whether Repeated Reading (RR) approach would be an effective intervention for helping children with reading difficulties. To test this hypothesis the

independent samples t-test was used because the performance of a control group did not depend on that of experimental group. The adopted rule of thumb was that, a significant level of 0.05 or less indicated that the difference was significant, however, a significant level greater than 0.05, indicated that the difference was not significant. In each of the analysis, the pre-test score between the control and experimental groups are presented. This was followed by result of the post-test. Finally, comparison is made between pre-test and post-test scores.

Table 16: Independent Samples t-test on Control and Experimental Groups (Pre-test)

<b>Approaches</b>	<b>Group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev.</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Repeated Reading	Experimental	12	7.00	5.26	20	0.238	0.814
	Control	10	6.40	6.59			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 16, the result of the pre-test showed that both children in the experimental and control groups have reading difficulties. The children in the experimental groups had a mean score of ( $M=7.00$ ;  $SD=5.26$ ) and the children in the control group had a mean score of ( $M=6.40$ ;  $SD=6.59$ ). A look at the standard deviation shows that there was variation in the score of the experimental group ( $SD=5.26$ ) and the control group ( $SD=6.59$ ). Again, the independent samples t-test revealed that there was no significant difference in scores for children in the experimental group ( $M=7.00$ ;  $SD=5.26$ ) and children in control group [ $M=6.40$ ;  $SD=6.5$ ;  $t(20)=0.238$ ,  $p=0.814$ ].

Table 17: Independent Samples t-test on Control and Experimental Groups  
(Post-test)

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Repeated Reading	Experimental	12	13.17	6.67	20	2.410	0.026
	Control	10	6.40	6.42			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

Table 17 reveals the result of the post-test after Repeated Reading approach has been adopted as an intervention to help children with reading difficulties. It was observed that there was massive improvement in the reading abilities of the children especially, the children in the experimental group. The children in the experimental group had a mean score of ( $M=13.17; SD=6.67$ ) while the children in the control group had a mean score of ( $M=6.40; SD=6.42$ ). This clearly indicated that Repeated Reading Approach significantly helped to improve the reading abilities of children. When the mean scores of the two groups were tested using the independent samples t-test at 5% significant level, two-tailed, the results revealed that there was significant difference between control and experimental groups ( $t(20)=-2.410, p = 0.026$ ).

Table 18: Result of the Difference between Pre-test and Post-test

Approaches	Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t-value	p-value
Repeated Reading	Experimental	12	6.17	3.88	12.158	5.364	0.000
	Control	10	0.00	0.82			

Source: Field Data, 2015

\*\* significant at  $p=0.05$  (2-tailed)

Table 18 shows performance of the children after comparing the result of the pre-test and post-test. It is clearly seen that there was significant

improvement in the performance of the children after using Repeated Reading approach. The children in the experimental group had a mean score difference of ( $M=6.17$ ;  $SD=3.88$ ) whilst the children in the control group rather show no significant difference in their mean scores ( $M=0.00$ ;  $SD=0.82$ ) in their reading abilities. Again, after comparing the mean scores of the two groups, the independent-sample t-test reported that there was significant difference in the scores or performance of children in the experimental group and children in the control group ( $t(12.158)= 5.364$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). The results imply that Repeated Reading (RR) approach is an effective approach and strategy to be adopted to help children with reading difficulties in order to improve upon their reading abilities.

The result is in congruence with the findings of Morisoli (2010) who found that Repeated Reading had a positive effect on the reading abilities of English language learners with Specific learning disability in reading. Rasinski and Padak (2005) found that practice with Repeated Reading leads to improvement in oral reading fluency on the practice passage, but also on passages that have never before been encountered. Repeated Reading has been shown to be effective in increasing reading fluency and, to a lesser extent, reading comprehension for children with learning disabilities (Therrien, 2004). Therefore, children's success experience through RR builds their confidence and encourages them to invest more time and effort into achieving the skill of reading fluently (Nuttall, 1996). The basis for using Repeated Reading is that children practice reading passages multiple times instead of reading isolated words, which improves both their word recognition and comprehension skills (O'Shea, Sindelar & O'Shea, 1987).

This result is in congruence with the finding of Dowhower (1991) who found a significant increase in words accuracy, comprehension, and transfer to new text as a result of Repeated Readings on second grade children's fluency. Neumann, Ross and Slaboch (2008) concluded that as children reread text, new sight words were learned and children were able to apply these sight words to new text. From the results, the Repeated Readings intervention consistently could improve children's reading ability rates (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Therrien, 2004). Linan-Thompson et al. (2003) found that the gains in fluency when Repeated Readings was implemented was valuable to the participants, however, researchers had difficulty determining whether the Repeated Readings alone accounted for the gains because of the multi-componential nature of the intervention.

**Research Question:** Which of the reading approaches (Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading) is the most effective approach for improving the readability of children with reading difficulties?

The main purpose of this research question was to determine the relative efficacies or the effectiveness and efficiency of the three approaches to reading. One-way between-groups ANOVA with post-hoc test was used to analyse the Data. The result was presented in Table 19-23.

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics of Difference between Pre-test and Post-test

<b>Techniques</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Partner	42	1.60	1.94	0.30	-2.00	6.00
Read Aloud	26	-0.35	1.50	0.29	-6.00	2.00
Repeated	22	3.36	4.25	0.91	-2.00	10.00
Total	90	1.47	2.91	0.31	-6.00	10.00

Source: Field Data, 2015

Table 19 gives information about each reading approach (intervention). It was found that the Partner Reading had a mean score of (M=1.60; SD=1.94; n=42), Read Aloud had a mean score of (M= -0.35; SD=1.50; n=26) and Repeated Reading had a mean score of (M=3.36; SD=4.25; n=22). From the statistics of the reading approaches, Repeated Reading had the higher mean.

Table 20: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

<b>Levene Statistic</b>	<b>df1</b>	<b>df2</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
47.081	2	87	.000

Source: Field Data, 2015

Table 20 indicates the homogeneity of the variance option through Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The Levene's test is used to ascertain whether the variance in the scores is the same for each of the three reading approaches. From Table 20, the Significance value (Sig) for Levene's test is 0.000 which is less than the alpha or critical value of 0.05. This implies that the assumption of homogeneity has been violated for this sample [ $F(2, 87) = 47.081, p = .000$  at the .05 alpha level hence, the **Robust Test of Equality of Means** was used in the analysis.

**Table 21: Robust Tests of Equality of Means**

	<b>Statistic<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>df1</b>	<b>df2</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Welch	14.915	2	44.054	.000
Brown-Forsythe	9.592	2	32.790	.001

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Table 21 shows the result of the Robust Tests of Equality of Means. This test was used because the assumption of the homogeneity of variances had been violated [ $F(2, 87) = 47.081, p = .000$  at the .05 alpha level]. In this test, the Welch statistic or the Brown-Forsythe statistic for the equality of group variances based on performing an ANOVA on a transformation of the response variable were used to check the significance level (Sig). The Welch statistic or the Brown-Forsythe statistic is the F statistic resulting from an ordinary one-way analysis of variance on the absolute deviations from the median.

**Table 22: Summary of One-way ANOVA**

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
Between Groups	165.305	2	82.653	12.207	.000
Within Groups	589.095	87	6.771		
Total	754.400	89			

Source: Field Data, 2015

Table 22 shows whether the overall  $F$  ratio for the one-way ANOVA is significant. It noted that the  $F$ -ratio (12.207) is significant ( $p = .000$ ) at the .05 alpha level. This implies that there was a significant difference somewhere among the mean scores on the reading approaches (Partner Reading, Read



Aloud and Repeated Reading). However, the sig value of 0.000 did not tell which extensive reading approach was unique or most effective from the other extensive reading approaches. The statistical significance of the differences between each pair of extensive reading approaches is provided in multiple comparisons as indicated in Table 22.

**Table 23: Multiple Comparisons (The Post-Hoc Tests)**

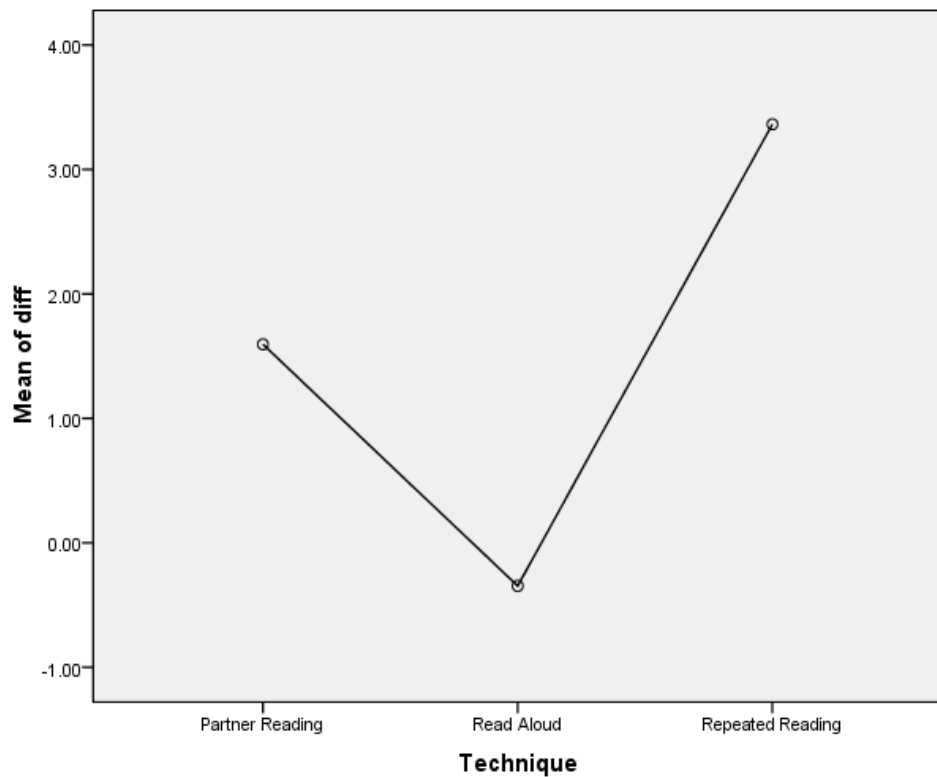
	<b>(I) Technique</b>	<b>(J) Technique</b>	<b>Mean Difference (I-J)</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Games- Howell	Partner Reading	Read Aloud	1.94139**	.41890	.000
		Repeated Reading	-1.76840	.95396	.173
	Read Aloud	Partner Reading	-1.94139**	.41890	.000
		Repeated Reading	-3.70979**	.95211	.002
	Repeated Reading	Partner Reading	1.76840	.95396	.173
		Read Aloud	3.70979**	.95211	.002

\*\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 23 showed the result of Post-Hoc test. The Post-Hoc test shows where the differences among the reading approaches occur. Since the assumption of homogeneity of variance had been violated equal variances not assumed was used in the analysis (the Games-Howell is the commonly used).

Figure 1 provides an easy way to compare the means scores for the different reading approaches. It is obvious from Fig 1 that Read Aloud approach recorded the lowest mean scores with Repeated Reading approach

recording the highest mean scores. This was followed by Partner Reading recording the second highest mean scores.



**Fig 1: Means Plots**

A one-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the most effective extensive reading approach on children with reading difficulties. Reading Approaches were divided into three (Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading). There was a statistically significant difference at the  $p < .005$  level in reading abilities of children for the three extensive reading approaches [ $F(2, 87) = 12.207, p = 0.000$ ]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the reading approaches (Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading) was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell test indicated that the mean score

for Read Aloud ( $M = -0.35$ ,  $SD = 1.50$ ) was significantly different from Partner Reading ( $M = 1.60$ ,  $SD = 1.94$ ) and Repeated Reading ( $M = 3.40$ ,  $SD = 4.25$ ). There was no statistically significant difference in mean scores between Partner Reading and Repeated Reading.

In conclusion, it was observed that the most effective reading approach to help improve the reading abilities of children with reading difficulties is Repeated Reading approach. This result has been supported by previous findings from the literature. Tarn et al. (2006) found that the use of two Repeated Reading interventions resulted in gains in fluency in 5 participants, two of whom were English Language learners with Specific learning disability. Roundy and Roundy (2009), found that, on average, the use of Repeated Reading strategies increased children' fluency, words per minute (wpm) reading score, reading-oriented self-esteem, and confidence. Morisoli (2010) demonstrated that Repeated Reading improved the reading abilities of ELLs with a SLD in reading. Bouguebs (2007) revealed that the children in the experimental group have outperformed those in the control group. In her research it was found out that, the experimental group had shown progress in reading fluency than the control group. The result of the study also confirmed the findings of Ruskey (2011) who indicated that fluency instruction and practice using Repeated Reading was a successful strategy and should be included in elementary classroom. The findings indicate the benefits of Repeated Reading in various setting.

The use of Partner Reading strategy has been proven to be valuable (Rathvon,2008). Similarly, Partner Reading strategy improves the reading ability of below average and average pupils identified with reading

difficulties. Again, it has shown improvement in the readability of children with reading difficulties (Fuchs et al., 1997). In the study of Vaughn et al., (2000), their results did not find an increase in reading comprehension but they did demonstrate that Partner Reading may increase reading fluency in children. In agreement to the study of Bryan et al. (2000), they found greater reading progress in the classrooms.

Concerning Read Aloud approach, the result contradicts the findings of previous studies. McCarrier, Pinnell and Fountas (2000) pointed out that Read Aloud stories introduce children to new topics that they could use when they engage in writing and provided a good model of how writers express their thoughts. Additionally, Terblanche (2002) explained that reading aloud also expands children's repertoire and teaches a large number of new vocabulary words in context rather than in isolation. Hargrave and Sénéchal (2000) found that preschool children from low-income homes who responded to open-ended questions around the text had better results than children who listened passively to stories; in four weeks, children achieved an increase in vocabulary which would usually take four months. Teachers differ in their read-aloud strategy mainly in the amount of discussion during and after the reading. Holland (2008) stated that there has been some controversy on whether reading aloud to children is appropriate or not, but the results of her study revealed that reading aloud to children was very beneficial to language development of the child.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter presents a summary of the study, findings, interpretation, conclusions, suggestions for future researchers and recommendations based on the findings.

#### **Summary of the Study**

The study investigated the effect of extensive reading on the readability of children with reading difficulties. The study found out whether the use of Repeated Reading, Partner Reading and Read Aloud, would improve the readability of children with reading difficulties. The study also found out the most effective approach for improving the readability of children with reading difficulties. The research design adopted for the study was experimental design specifically quasi experimental design. A sample of 90 children was sampled using simple random sampling and purposive techniques. The experimental group consisted of 40 children and the control group consisted of 50 children. The experimental groups were exposed to three different approaches of extensive reading namely; Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading, but the control group was not exposed to any of the extensive reading approaches. The major instrument used for data collection was reading tests. Both group (namely the experimental control) had pre- and post-test.

## Summary of Key Findings

1. From the study, the result of the independent sample t-test revealed that Partner Reading (PR) is an effective and significant approach that can be used to improve children's reading abilities. There was a statistically significant difference in the scores of children in the experimental group ( $M=2.98$ ;  $SD=1.83$ ) and children in the control group ( $M=0.58$ ;  $SD=1.31$ ,  $t(40)= 4.88$ ,  $p=0.000$ ).
2. The study found that Read Aloud (RA) approach is not an effective approach or strategy to help children with reading difficulties and there was no statistical significant differences in scores for children in the experimental group ( $M=0.00$ ;  $SD=0.94$ ) and children in the control group ( $M= -0.56$ ;  $SD=1.75$ ;  $t(24)= 0.931$ ,  $p=0.361$ ).
3. The results of the study further indicated that Repeated Reading (RR) approach is an effective approach and strategy to be adopted to help children with reading difficulties. There was a statistically significant difference in the scores of children in the experimental group ( $M=6.17$ ;  $SD=3.88$ ) and children in the control group ( $M=0.00$ ;  $SD=0.82$ ,  $t(12.158)= 5.364$ ,  $p=0.000$ ).
4. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the reading approaches (Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading) was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Games-Howell test revealed that the mean score for Read Aloud ( $M = -0.35$ ,  $SD = 1.50$ ) was significantly different from Partner Reading ( $M = 1.60$ ,  $SD = 1.94$ ) and Repeated Reading ( $M = 3.40$ ,  $SD = 4.25$ ). There was

no statistically significant difference in mean scores between Partner Reading and Repeated Reading.

### **Conclusions**

Extensive reading (ER) has proven to develop children's reading fluency, ability, speed, vocabulary acquisition, writing as well as speaking skills. From the findings, Partner Reading can increase fluency of the children as well as accuracy by providing reading practice along with an error correction procedure. Partner Reading intervention can serve as a valuable supplemental instructional programme for children who are struggling readers and it is one that is easily implemented in the classroom or even home setting. Partner Reading is a low resourced intervention and it is easy to implement.

Including Read Aloud in classroom instruction is beneficial to children and should be part of the regular instruction, that teachers need to be fluent and creative when reading aloud, and that thought should be put into book selection. Teachers can offer their knowledge and experience by making well-informed book choices for their Read Aloud which children can then benefit from by allowing them to choose books by similar authors or similar topics or genres.

Repeated Reading improves fluency performance of children. Children have shown a gradual progress on fluency rate by increasing reading rate and decreasing on word reading errors from the reading passage. This study demonstrates that these strategies can help create a positive classroom atmosphere and develop healthy self-concepts in children.

## **Recommendations**

Based on the findings and the conclusions the following recommendations are made:

1. A conscious effort should be made by school heads, administrators and teachers to screen pupils in primary three to ascertain their reading abilities. If some of the children are identified as having reading difficulties, they can further be assessed by professionals to find out if those children with reading difficulties have dyslexia, that is serious reading difficulties. Children who are identified as having reading difficulties should be managed with effective reading strategies like Repeated Reading in the regular education class to help in enhancing their reading skills or reading ability. However, children who are found to be dyslexic can be assisted with effective strategies in a resource centre.
2. In order for remediation to succeed, it is suggested that the Ministry of Education (MOE) in collaboration with school heads should train teachers to acquire the requisite skills and strategies that will help children who face challenges in reading to do remedial teaching. To this end, it is necessary for Educational Administrators and Curriculum Designers to strengthen courses in Special Education to aid in effective teacher training. Regular teachers may then be able to teach effectively to help the children with reading difficulties.
3. In addition, the government needs to equip the Special Education Division of the Ghana Education Service (GES) with assessment tools that can help in screening and further assessment. Also, GES should



have adequate special education teachers to support regular education teachers to meet the reading challenges that will emerge as a result of the Inclusive Education.

4. Again, it behoves the GES to provide adequate reading materials to aid teachers in their effort to teach the children the necessary reading skills. Also, stakeholders such as head teachers, Parents and NGOs should make conscious effort to support children with enough reading materials.
5. Further, it also suggested that MOE and GES should post more special education teachers to the basic school to support the regular education teachers. This will help them lay a good foundation in reducing reading difficulties in children and as well manage children suspected to be dyslexic in primary schools.
6. Moreover, it is recommended that teachers and school administrators should provide conducive classroom environment and positive classroom structured such that children can receive the individual attention of the teacher. It is through such interaction that the teacher can assist children with reading difficulties. Teachers should be skillful and adapt effective strategies as well as be more accommodating, more understanding, loving and caring in order to support children with reading difficulties.
7. It is recommended that teachers and school administrators should seriously enhance and improve children's reading skills from the pre-primary stages through effective teaching strategies.

8. It is suggested that teachers provide basic script instruction and allow children to choose their own reading partners. Additionally, teachers should avoid pairings of low ability children with other low ability children and high ability children with other high ability children. Teachers should encourage heterogeneous ability grouping during extensive reading practices. Teachers may want to suggest alternate partners for children who inadvertently choose such pairings or adjust the text difficulty to the pair. Overall, Partner Reading seems to be an enjoyable pedagogical strategy for teaching word recognition.
9. It is suggested that teachers should encourage their children to practice more and more reading in the class under their guidance via the Repeated Reading and outside classrooms independently via the Independent Silent Reading.

### **Suggestions for Future**

A further study can be conducted to assess the factors that influence the use of the Partner Reading, Read Aloud and Repeated Reading approach. Another area that can be explored is the impact of home background on pupil's frequency of reading. Finally, a study should be conducted on gender differences and the frequency of reading or the impact of parents' occupation on children's reading habit.

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## APPENDIX A

# UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

CAPE COAST, GHANA  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

Telephone: 32440/4 & 32480/3 Direct: 03321-36037  
TELEX: 2552, UCC, GH  
Telegrams & Cables: University, Cape Coast



University Post Office  
Cape Coast, Ghana

Our Ref:

Your Ref:

23<sup>rd</sup> July, 2015.

### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

#### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION: MS. MARTHA PEARL OKAI

Please, we write to introduce Ms. Martha Pearl Okai, a student at the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Cape Coast. She is undertaking a research titled: *Effects of extensive reading approaches on the reading ability of children with dyslexia. A case study of some selected schools in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region.*

She has expressed interest in using your District for her data collection. We are kindly asking that you grant her the assistance. We assure you that the data collected will be treated as confidential.

Please grant her all the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'EM'.

(Evonne Moses)  
Senior Administrative Assistant

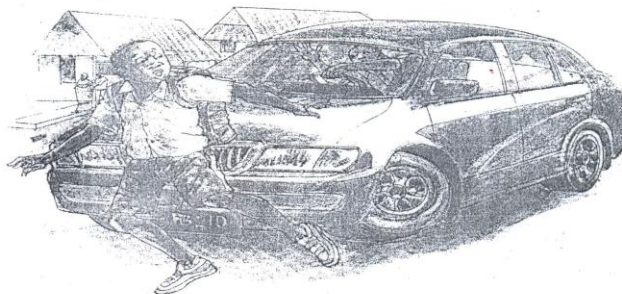
For: HEAD  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS  
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST  
CAPE COAST

## APPENDIX B

### Pre-Test and Post-Test Reading

# 4 Road Safety

## Crossing the road



Ata is going to school. He does not want to be late. He walks quickly. Suddenly, without even stopping to look left and right, he runs across the road. A car is coming towards him. At the last moment, the driver manages to stop. The driver is both angry and very relieved.

He comes out of his car and says, "My friend, you are lucky to be alive! Before you cross a road, look left first, and then look right and look left again. Cross the road when there is no car coming. Walk quickly, but never run across the road."

Ata is shaking. He now crosses the road carefully.

## **APPENDIX C**

### **DIFFICULT WORDS**

1. Quickly
2. Suddenly
3. Stopping
4. Left
5. Right
6. Across
7. Towards
8. Moment
9. Driver
10. Manages
11. Angry
12. Relieved
13. Friend
14. Lucky
15. Alive
16. Again
17. Shaking
18. Carefully
19. Never

**APPENDIX D  
RESULTS**

**Pre-test  
Independent Sample T-Test**

**Technique = Partner Reading  
Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Score	Experimental	18	8.2222	7.91540
	Control Group	24	9.7917	9.84214

a. Technique = Partner Reading

**Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
Score	Equal variances assumed	.210	.649	-.555	40	.582	-1.56944	2.82913
	Equal variances not assumed			-.572	39.764	.570	-1.56944	2.74170

a. Technique = Partner Reading

**Technique = Read Aloud**

**Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Score	Experimental	10	7.4000	6.67000
	Control Group	16	7.1250	6.63199

a. Technique = Read Aloud

**Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean	Std. Error

					(2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	
Score	Equal variances assumed	.004	.950	.103	24	.919	.27500	2.67920
	Equal variances not assumed			.103	19.167	.919	.27500	2.68288

a. Technique = Read Aloud

### Technique = Repeated Reading

#### Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	Experimental	12	7.0000	5.25703	1.51757
	Control Group	10	6.4000	6.58618	2.08273

a. Technique = Repeated Reading

#### Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
Score	Equal variances assumed	.782	.387	.238	20	.814	.60000	2.52296
	Equal variances not assumed			.233	17.140	.819	.60000	2.57698

a. Technique = Repeated Reading

### Post test result

#### Partners Reading

#### Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POST_T_S	Experimental	18	11.1667	8.66535	2.04244

Control Group	24	10.3750	9.90306	2.02145
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a. Technique = Partner Reading

**Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
POST_T_S Equal variances assumed	.210	.649	.270	40	.788	.79167	2.93002
POST_T_S Equal variances not assumed			.275	38.975	.784	.79167	2.87365

a. Technique = Partner Reading

**Read Aloud**

**Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POST_T_S	Experimental	10	7.4000	6.39792	2.02320
	Control Group	16	6.5625	6.62288	1.65572

a. Technique = Read Aloud

**Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference



POST_T_S	Equal variances assumed	.007	.935	.318	24	.753	.83750	2.63613
	Equal variances not assumed			.320	19.771	.752	.83750	2.61433

a. Technique = Read Aloud

### Repeated Reading

#### Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POST_T_S	Experimental	12	13.1667	6.67197	1.92603
	Control Group	10	6.4000	6.41526	2.02868

a. Technique = Repeated Reading

#### Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
POST_T_S	Equal variances assumed	.031	.862	2.410	20	.026	6.76667	2.80784
	Equal variances not assumed			2.419	19.545	.025	6.76667	2.79735

a. Technique = Repeated Reading

### Differences between pre-test and post-test

#### Technique = Partner Reading

#### Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
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diff	Experimental	18	2.9444	1.83021	.43138
	Control Group	24	.5833	1.31601	.26863

**Technique = Read Aloud**

**Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
diff	Experimental	10	.0000	.94281	.29814
	Control Group	16	-.5625	1.75000	.43750

a. Technique = Read Aloud

**Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
diff	Equal variances assumed	1.520	.230	.931	24	.361	.56250	.60432
	Equal variances not assumed			1.062	23.662	.299	.56250	.52943

a. Technique = Read Aloud

**Technique = Repeated Reading**

**Group Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Groupings	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
diff	Experimental	12	6.1667	3.88080	1.12029
	Control Group	10	.0000	.81650	.25820

a. Technique = Repeated Reading

**Independent Samples Test<sup>a</sup>**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	12.462	.002	4.916	20	.000	6.16667	1.25444
Equal variances not assumed			5.364	12.158	.000	6.16667	1.14966

a. Technique = Repeated Reading

### Oneway ANOVA

Diff

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	209.164	2	104.582	16.779	.000
Within Groups	230.611	37	6.233		
Total	439.775	39			

### Post Hoc Tests

#### Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: diff

	(I) Technique	(J) Technique	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LSD	Partner Reading	Read Aloud	2.94444*	.98465	.005	.9494	4.9395
		Repeated Reading	3.22222*	.93041	.001	5.1074	-1.3370
	Read Aloud	Partner Reading	2.94444*	.98465	.005	4.9395	-.9494
		Repeated Reading	6.16667*	1.06896	.000	8.3326	-4.0008
	Repeated Reading	Partner Reading	3.22222*	.93041	.001	1.3370	5.1074

Bonferroni	Partner Reading	Read Aloud	6.16667*	1.06896	.000	4.0008	8.3326	
		Read Aloud	2.94444*	.98465	.015	.4752	5.4137	
		Repeated Reading	-3.22222*	.93041	.004	5.5554	-.8890	
	Read Aloud	Partner Reading	-2.94444*	.98465	.015	5.4137	-.4752	
		Repeated Reading	-6.16667*	1.06896	.000	8.8473	-3.4860	
		Partner Reading	3.22222*	.93041	.004	.8890	5.5554	
	Tamhane	Partner Reading	Read Aloud	6.16667*	1.06896	.000	3.4860	8.8473
			Read Aloud	2.94444*	.52439	.000	1.6063	4.2826
			Repeated Reading	-3.22222	1.20048	.052	6.4653	.0209
		Read Aloud	Partner Reading	-2.94444*	.52439	.000	4.2826	-1.6063
			Repeated Reading	-6.16667*	1.15928	.000	9.3567	-2.9767
			Partner Reading	3.22222	1.20048	.052	-.0209	6.4653
	Repeated Reading	6.16667*	1.15928	.000	2.9767	9.3567		

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

### Means Plots

